GATEKEEPING IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
HIRING DECISIONS: A RESUME AUDIT STUDY

By
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Abstract

This dissertation examines gatekeeping in educational administration hiring decisions. I conducted a resume audit study with educational administrators from Kansas to understand gender biases in hiring decisions for administrative roles. This study found evidence of gatekeeping that favored men from subjective evaluation of candidate hireability based on resume name when controlling for resume contents. These findings suggest gatekeeping is occurring in educational administration hiring decisions which contributes to sex stratification for valued executive-level careers in education.
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Chapter 1: Introduction

The sources and mechanisms of the gendered division of labor in educational administration are not well understood (Davis, Gooden, & Bowers, 2017; Dunshea, 1998; Stainback, Tomaskovic-Devey, & Skaggs, 2010). In education, women constitute only 24% of superintendent and 42.9% of principal positions despite the majority of teachers identifying as women (Davis et al., 2017; Goldring & Bitterman, 2013; Kowalski et al., 2011; National Center for Education Statistics, 2016c). This study will examine whether and to what extent women face gatekeeping mechanisms in accessing educational administrator positions. This audit study will examine how hiring decisions stratify educational administration candidates by gender. It will test whether decision makers favor candidates who are men over women with identical experience and skills. I draw on organizational hierarchies, sex segregation, authority gaps, social closure, and homosocial reproduction literature (Castaño, Fontanil, & García-Izquierdo, 2019; England, Levine, & Mishel, 2020; Kanter, 1977; Lewin, 1947; Murphy, 1988; Roscigno et al., 2007; Shakeshaft et al., 2014; Smith, 2002; Stainback et al., 2010).

Education is a highly feminized profession (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016c) and to what extent authority gaps are random or intentional is missing from the literature. Further, the impacts of occupational sex segregation include gendered wage differences, the devaluation of women’s work, and male primacy (England & Hermsen, 2000) are important because 90% of men and women hold biases against women (United Nations, 2020) and recent progress towards gender equality (e.g., accessing executive or managerial positions, wages) has slowed (Cohen et al., 2009; England et al., 2010).
This dissertation hopes to call attention to the underrepresentation of women in educational administration positions. This study expands the body of literature because while there is an exhaustive body of literature on the women in the labor force, this dissertation will examine potential demand side processes (e.g., gatekeeping, homosocial reproduction, and social closure), net of established supply side processes (e.g., self-selection, gender socialization), which may be preventing women’s access to authority and stratifying educational administration as an occupation.

I am interested in examining to what degree does subjectivity and bias act as gatekeeping mechanisms and generate social closure in educational administration positions. Thus, the pressing question is to determine to what extent active gatekeeping, is occurring in educational administration and governance.

The research questions this study will examine are:

**RQ1:** Is women’s access to educational administrative positions restricted by gatekeeping mechanisms?

**RQ2:** To what extent is women’s access restricted by gatekeeping mechanisms?

To better understand this disproportionality, this study examined how educational administrators rated the application materials of candidates for superintendent, assistant superintendent, principal, and assistant principal positions (Moss-Rascusin et al, 2012). The participants, current superintendents, assistant superintendents, principals, and assistant principals, were randomly assigned a resume with a gendered name (i.e., Lisa or Michael).

School districts are major employers. In 2017, 6,544,767 people worked as elementary, secondary, and district staff in the United States (Digest of Education Statistics, 2019). Education is a highly feminized profession (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016c) except for
administrative levels, and studying whether authority gaps are random or intentional is critical. The National Council for Education Statistics (NCES) has estimated that 3.1 million teachers worked full time in public schools in the United States in 2015 (2016). Of that workforce population, 76.1% identified as women. Specifically, the NCES found that 89% of elementary and 58% of secondary teachers identified as women. Just over half of principals (51.6%) and less than a quarter of superintendents (24.1%) identified as women (Davis et al., 2017; Kowalski et al., 2011).

Superintendents and principals are seen as leaders of their communities. School districts are large labor markets and its disproportionality amongst its leaders and high executives warrant study. Total primary and secondary student enrollment is expected to increase by 4% to 58.2 million students from 2015-2027 and this student growth will place additional human resource strain as districts expand their administration staff (Hussar & Bailey, 2019). The US Bureau of Labor Statistics has projected Human Resource Management will grow faster than the average for all occupations, from 2018-2028 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). Drawing from previous periods of student growth, this could indicate that there will be a subsequent demand for more educational administrators. Clearly, there is a need to study the accessibility and equity in educational administration careers.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

In this chapter, I will address the existing research that bears upon the issue of gatekeeping in educational administration and governance through social closure (Lewin, 1947; Murphy, 1988; Roscigno et al., 2007; Stainback et al., 2010) and homosocial reproduction (Kanter, 1977; Robinson & Garnier, 1985; Smith, 2002). I will illustrate the weaknesses of research in this area (Dunshea, 1998; Robinson, 2007) and draw on research from fields outside of education to inform conceptual and empirical work in gender bias, social closure, and restricted access to positions in educational administration. Despite widespread research addressing the gender authority gap, few studies to date examine gatekeeping in educational administration hiring decisions (Dunshea, 1998; Robinson, 2007).

A large body of research has established there is persistent sex segregation within and across occupations (Davis et al., 2017; England et al., 2020; Robinson, 2007; Shakeshaft et al., 2014; Stainback et al., 2010). Previous research found that overt sexism has generally been decreasing (Spence & Hahm, 1997) but that implicit biases and prejudices are resistant to change even by people who believe they have egalitarian values (Mann & Kawakami, 2012). Recent research found that the progress of desegregating occupations by sex has slowed (England et al., 2020). Consequently, and importantly to this dissertation, men and women are more likely to recommend a man over a woman for a job even when their qualifications are similar (Moss-Racusin et al., 2012; Steinpreis, Anders, & Ritzke, 1999). In combination, these persistent biases contribute to male dominance in educational administration.
In this literature review, I argue that social closure and homosocial reproduction are ways in which sex segregation is perpetuated within educational administration in addition to previously established supply-side explanations found in the literature. In educational administration, men are hired for positions of authority while women are hired for teaching positions (Davis et al., 2017). Further, when women are hired for educational administration positions, they are often sorted into lower prestige and pay positions in elementary and secondary schools while men are sorted into higher prestige and pay positions in secondary schools (Bailes & Butchery, 2020). More advantageous job positions, through prestige and higher salaries, go to men and less advantageous ones go to women (Davis et al., 2017; Dunshea, 1998). Educational administration is set up in ways that favor men for more rewarding and lucrative positions-- which are positions of authority.

**Male Dominance in Education**

Teaching is a highly feminized profession (Davis et al., 2017; Kowalski et al., 2011; National Center for Education Statistics, 2016c; Rousmaniere, 2007). Most administrators have been teachers and most teachers are women (De Angelis & O’Connor, 2012). Despite the more than three quarters of teachers who identify as women (76.1%) and the majority of principals who have been teachers, women are “severely underrepresented among school principals” during the 2011-2012 school year (Davis et al., 2017, p. 3). Over half of principals self-identified as women (51.6%) in the 2011-2012 School and Staffing Survey (SASS) (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016c). Further, women are underrepresented as secondary principals even more so than as elementary principals (Jean-Marie, 2013). Scholarship shows that there is an authority gap in education where the teaching population is predominately female, and the
administrative population is predominately male. Chase and Bell (1990) examined how men dominate educational leadership when “most teachers are women and when teaching experience is a prerequisite for leadership positions” (p. 163).

In addition to this underrepresentation, research demonstrates (Davis et al., 2017; Jean-Marie, 2013) there is a difference between the career pathways of men and women in principal positions. Davis et al., (2017) found that “the pathway to principalship disfavors females” (p. 12). These sex-based career pathways result in an authority gap at different levels of educational administration, sometimes referred to as sex segregation. For example, during the 2011-2012 academic school year, elementary principals identified as 34.9% men and 65.1% women whereas high school principals were 57.1% male and 42.9% female (Goldring & Bitterman, 2013). In 2010, 24% of superintendents were women (Kowalski et al., 2011).

More generally, there is an exhaustive body of research regarding gender and occupations, including in medicine (Girod et al., 2016; Trix & Psenka, 2003), law (Banks, 1988; Gorman, 2005; Gorman & Kmec, 2009), science (Moss-Racusin et al., 2012), math (Nosek & Banaji, 2002) business (DeMartino & Barbato, 2003), accounting (Hull & Umansky, 1997; Khlif & Achek, 2017), economics (Bayer & Rouse, 2016); sociology (Roscigno et al., 2007), and STEM (Ceci & Williams, 2010, 2011; Gasiewski et al., 2012; Katz, Tushman & Allen, 1995). However, there is a paucity of research considering the extent to which and whether gendered authority gaps and sex segregation are random or systematic in education administration. Recent, emerging scholarship in educational administration has found systemic, gendered, and racial biases exist in educational administration career pathways (Bailes & Guthery, 2020; Davis et al., 2017).
Also, in educational administration, previous research has especially contributed to a rich body of literature on the personal and professional experiences of women in educational administration careers. This scholarship includes the experiences of women of color in educational administration (Agosto & Roland, 2018; Alston, 2005; Brown, 2014; Macias & Stephens, 2019; Rodriguez et al., 2018; Liang & Peters-Hawkins, 2017). Women’s experiences have also been studied in countries and educational systems outside of the United States including Europe (Abendroth, Maas, & Van der Lippe, 2011), England (Coleman & Campbell-Stephens, 2010; Showunmi, Atewologun, & Bebbington, 2016), Canada (Armstrong & Mitchell, 2017), Turkey (Can, 2004), Australia (Dunshea, 1998; Kamara, 2017; Miller, Graham, & Al-Awiwe, 2014), South Africa (Lumby, 2015; Van Der Merwe, 2017), and New Zealand (Santamaría et al., 2016). However, there is very little scholarship examining the experiences and careers of LGBTQ+ teachers and educational administrators (Kitchen & Bellini, 2012; Shakeshaft et al., 2014). Research on gender inequality in educational administration has also focused on gender differences in wages (Dowell & Larwin, 2013; Pounder, 1988) and in turnover (Grogan, 2014). Finally, there is significant research regarding women’s experiences in higher education as faculty and administration (Hora, 2020; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2017; Wheaton & Kezar, 2019).

History

Despite an increasing number of women participating in the paid labor force since the 1970s, gender segregation persists within and across occupations (Stainback, et al., 2010; England, Levine, & Mishel, 2020). In education, administration is largely masculinized, while teaching has become feminized (Davis et al., 2017). In the United States, educational
administration has been and is still white- and male-dominated. Women’s, and especially so for women of color, access to and proliferation in administrative positions has been relatively recent (Brown, 2014; Kowalski et al., 2011; Méndez-Morse et al., 2015; Tallerico & Blount, 2004).

There are many factors influencing women’s entry into the labor force including occupational growth, job deterioration, technological change, job deterioration, and deskilling, industrial change, sex-specific demands for women, changing social attitudes and declining discrimination, and women’s labor supply and preferences (Reskin, 2018).

Historically, women were not considered fit to teach in Colonial America (Blount, 1998). Women were occasionally teachers in outlying districts where schools only “offered the rudiments of reading and occasionally somewhat more” (Perlmann, Siddali, & Whitescarver, 1997, p. 127). During this time, women in education, educational administration, and leadership were the exception. The entry of girls into education as students during the early 1800s was “gradual, decentralized, and obscure” (Tyack & Hansot, 1990, p. 46). Tyack & Hansot (1990) note, “the rapid increase in the enrollment of girls, in turn, created a both demand for and ready supply of teachers” (p. 49). The teaching profession feminized particularly quickly and due to the rapid increase of enrollment of girls and by 1900 women accounted for 70 percent of teachers despite being paid only one-half to one-third of men’s salaries. (Blount, 1998, p. 1). Thus, women entering the superintendency was an “important goal…because it was a position from which they could wield considerable educational influence” (Blount, 1998, p. 1).

After World War II, many school districts hired veteran men who sought civilian employment (Blount, 1998). Additionally, “organizational and psychological theories developed by the military later permeated educational-administration training programs and...school systems” (Blount, 1998, p. 9). Male-typed characteristics, such as assertiveness, were valued
over female-typed ones, such as nurturing. This resulted in higher salaries and faster promotion for men in administrative careers. Often credentials obtained in universities through the GI Bill replaced job tenure as a promotional consideration (Blount, 1998). By the 1970s, “women’s representation in most school administrative positions declined quickly” (Blount, 1998, p.2). For example, women in superintendency positions declined from nine to three percent and has only slightly risen since (Blount, 1998).

**Supply Side Perspectives**

Supply side and demand side perspectives are two different approaches to understanding gendered patterns in occupations. Supply side processes have to do with women’s own choices to pursue or not pursue administrative positions (Blau & Jusenius, 1976; England et al., 1988; Glass, 2000; Norris & Lovenduski, 1993; Okamoto & England, 1999; Sperandio & Devdas, 2015). By contrast, demand side processes involve female exclusion from male-dominated jobs and positions (Reskin, 1988; Tomaskovic-Devey & Avent-Holt, 2019). As in other masculinized occupations, men may be dominating valued positions in educational administration by means of exclusionary practices in hiring and promotion. Such practices include gatekeeping (e.g., gendered stereotypes regarding leadership) and social closure (e.g., masculinized social networks during recruiting). While supply side and demand side perspectives focus attention on different dynamics, such dynamics are likely to operate concurrently, as the prevalence of individual choice does not negate the possibility of discrimination, or vice versa (Reskin, 2018).

The literature on occupational sex segregation has historically focused on supply side explanations of inequality (Blau & Jusenius, 1976; Norris & Lovenduski, 1993; Okamoto & England, 1999). Multiple mechanisms characterize supply side processes. The first one is self-
selection where women select into certain professions, such as teaching, for family-friendly policies like flexible time arrangements (Okamoto & England, 1999; Sperandio & Devdas, 2015; Wright, Baxter & Birkelund, 1995). The second mechanism involves the formation of women’s career preferences in connection to beliefs that attach greater value and competence with one demographic category (e.g., male) than another (Charles & Bradley, 2009; Correll, 2004; O’Neill & O’Reilly, 2011). For instance, men may be stereotypically perceived as leaders, while women tend to be viewed as followers.

The third mechanism involves women’s search for ways to balance kinship obligations such as family, motherhood, and child care (DeMartino & Barbato, 2003; England, 2005; Looze, 2014; Smith, 2002). Compared to men, women’s time is more constricted by balancing work and family life and women view parental obligations as being a major barrier for their career advancement. Eighty percent of married women do more housework than their spouses and married women believe that household division of labor around time-inflexible work (e.g., cooking, laundry) is unfair (Oakley, 2018). Both household work and motherhood are associated with lower wages and slower career progression for women. Relatedly, female managers and professionals tend to delay having children and forming a family (Miller, 2011; Oakley, 2018). Women experience a “motherhood wage penalty” of five percent per child even when controlling for factors like human capital and work experience (Looze, 2014). Since women still do most household work, and since motherhood negatively affects women’s income and career prospects, it is important to consider the division of household labor and work-life balance when exploring women’s presence.

The two main perspectives of supply side sex segregation are the Human Capital and Gender Socialization perspectives (Okamoto & England, 1999). Stemming from neoclassical
economics, the Human Capital perspective suggests women anticipate parental leave, subsequent intermittent employment, and skill depreciation (England et al., 1988). Neoclassical economic theory suggests higher pay is a result of professions that call for more human capital and “if female jobs pay less, this may reflect their lower skill demands” (Okamoto & England, 1999, p. 545).

There are different models when considering the Human Capital theory: overcrowding (supply and demand interactions on occupations and wages), monopsony model (wages that are less than the value of a product), and human capital (women on average can accumulate or have less human capital than men) (Blau and Jusenius, 1976). Men do not anticipate these workplace interruptions or depreciations and so enter professions with higher wage returns for longer experience. Consequently, the Human Capital perspective suggests women self-select into professions (e.g. teaching) with lower wage growth and men self-select into professions (e.g. engineering) with higher wage growth (England et al., 1988; Okamoto & England, 1999). As a result, Polachek (1979) suggests predominately female professions are those with low capital depreciation (lower wage growth potential) and predominately male professions are those with high capital depreciation (higher wage growth potential for risk taking).

However, there is a massive body of literature critiquing the Human Capital perspective on sex segregation and occupational gender inequality (Blackburn et al., 2002; Blau & Jusenius, 1976; England, 1982, 1984; England, Reid, and Kilbourne, 1996). England (1982) concludes that the empirical evidence does not fit with human capital theory, meaning it does not support how predominately female professions have lower depreciation rates of human capital than predominately male professions. Blau & Jusenius (1976) suggest the smooth wage rate adjustments in neoclassical model make sex segregation doubtful.
The Gender Socialization perspective focuses on how gender is learned through socialization (Betz & O’Connell, 1989; Cleveland et al., 2000; Konrad et al., 2000), employer discrimination (Altonji & Blank, 1999; Blau & Kahn, 2017; Darity & Mason, 1998), and institutional practices (Brinton, 1988; England, 2000). This perspective discusses feedback effects where “socialization effects discrimination” and “discrimination effects socialization” (England et al., 1988, p. 546). The Gender Socialization perspective also considers institutional forces such as how female-dominated professions typically have shorter mobility ladders or where the end of the ladder is to other female-dominated jobs. Institutional practices that create sex-segregated workplaces also include “upper age limits for entering apprenticeships, veterans' preferences, limited public advertising of jobs, machinery designed for typical male height and strength, and departmental rather than plant wide seniority being credited toward promotions” (England et al., 1988, p. 547).

Theorists have also demonstrated how the gender socialization of career aspirations constrains authentic choice. Correll (2004) examined career-choice processes through status characteristic and stereotype threat frameworks. Men and women assessed their performance and ability differentially according to gender stereotypes (Correll, 2004). These standards changed how men and women evaluated their own aptitude at career-related tasks (Correll, 2004). Ultimately, Correll (2004) suggested men and women do not have different career preferences but instead have individual choices that are constrained and determined by social expectations. The socialized career aspirations aspect of women’s workforce participation can be reduced to socialized characteristics about gender and sex. These status characteristics are “attribute[s] that differentiate people” (Correll, 2004, p. 96). These status characteristics influence how people perceive sex differences, themselves, and their career aspirations based on gender socialization.
Charles and Grusky (2004) argue that women’s participation in the work force is economic and socialized. Women’s workforce participation is determined by horizontal and vertical sex segregation (Charles & Grusky, 2004). Horizontal sex segregation distinguishes between manual and nonmanual labor. If possible, women will often self-select out of manual labor because of the social stigma of women performing manual labor for income. Vertical sex segregation describes how the most desirable occupations, such as managerial positions, are preferentially filled by men (Charles & Grusky, 2004).

The notion of compensating differentials in neoclassical economic theory suggests that women self-select into certain positions with lower wages because they seek family-friendly jobs (Okamoto & England, 1999). This perspective argues women are socialized from youth to choose female-dominant professions (Okamoto & England, 1999) and implies women are less able to accumulate human capital by means of dominating certain jobs and by means of occupational wage growth (Blau and Jusenius, 1976). Additionally, women are socialized to anticipate motherhood, related parental leave, and intermittent employment, which are associated with skill depreciation (England et al., 1988; Polachek, 1979). As a result, women may consciously avoid administration and remain teachers with the expectation that they will not have to work nights, weekends, or summers in their careers (Shakeshaft et al., 2014). Men, on the other hand, do not anticipate workplace interruptions or skill depreciation and therefore enter professions with higher wage returns for longer job tenure, such as administration.

However, critics note that these mechanisms related to the supply side view are at times used to blame women for their underrepresentation in high status positions (Browne & England, 1997; Correll, 2004). One criticism stresses the lack of empirical evidence on whether predominately female professions actually have lower human capital depreciation rates than
predominately male professions (England et al., 1988). Moreover, male-dominated jobs have been found to have greater family-friendly flexibility (Correll, 2004). And, women may accept a position only to find out later it is pink collar (i.e., female-dominated), a job that may unofficially expect emotional labor that was not included in the official job listing (Guy & Newman, 2004). Even when women bypass socialized occupational preferences (Charles & Bradley, 2009), social structures (e.g., household division of labor) may differentially constrain individual career preferences, aspirations, and choices across gender (Correll, 2004).

More recent research in the supply side perspective view women less as victims and more as autonomous and agentic actors (Thompson, 2016). This perspective posits viewing people as rational individuals who make choices while situated in social and cultural contexts with varying levels of access to resources. In “choice feminism,” women make individual choices and are empowered through that autonomy (Hirshman, 2006). Current trends in educational research reflect this choice feminist perspective, particularly about women self-selecting into teaching and teacher agency. From this standpoint, women may be making informed and self-empowering choices by dominating teaching positions and avoiding administrative ones (Ladenburg & Olsen, 2008; Richardson & Watt, 2016; Buchanan, 2015). However, choice feminism is contentious and scholars from outside of education have heavily criticized the theory as being “postfeminist” (i.e., erroneously assuming gender inequality has ended) (Budgeon, 2015). This criticism stresses that even informed choices may reproduce inequality when such choices are made under conditions that obscure the actor’s interests and/or the full range of available options (Budgeon, 2015). Thus, in exploring career-related experiences of female administrators, it is important to more holistically understand their choice-making processes, the factors they considered, and how they interpreted these factors and subsequent consequences.
Demand Side Perspectives

While supply side processes explore how individuals make career decisions and choices, the demand side perspective considers how employers and organizations influence access to occupations or positions (Axelsdóttir & Halrynjo, 2018; Tomaskovic-Devey & Avent-Holt, 2019). Social closure is a broad concept that has gained significant currency in the demand side approach. It suggests that superordinate groups dominate a valued position by way of exclusionary practices limiting other groups’ access (Lewin, 1947; Parkin, 1974; Weber, 1978). Groups compete for limited resources and try to “monopolize advantages and maximize their rewards by closing off opportunities to outsiders they define as inferior or ineligible” (Weeden, 2002, p. 58).

One perspective details three mechanisms to maintain inequality in organizations: inertia, internal constituencies, and exogenous pressures (Stainback, Tomaskovic-Devey, 2010). Inertia, the most powerful of the three mechanisms, is the “tendency for organizational practices to resist change over time” (Stainback, et al., 2010, p. 226). The relative power of internal constituencies refers to the “pressures for both organizational stasis and change” (Stainback, et al., 2010, p. 226). Lastly, exogenous pressures are pressures that are external to the organization and frequently come from the organization’s environment (Stainback, et al., 2010, p. 226). The concepts of inertia, internal constituencies, and exogenous pressures situate themselves well alongside social closure and homosocial reproduction theories because they describe the situations in which the inequalities occur.

The mechanisms of gender inequalities and biases within workplaces have been extensively studied and documented in the literature (Bielby, 2000; Castaño et al., 2019; Davis et al., 2017; England et al., 2020; Jean-Marie, 2013; Koenig et al., 2011; Shakeshaft et al., 2014).
Mechanisms for gender inequalities and biases to occur within workplaces include stereotyping (Devine, 1989; Fiske et al. 2002), statistical discrimination (Tomaskovic-Devey, 1993), status expectations (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004), shifting criteria (Phelan, Moss-Racusin, & Rudman, 2008), and social closure (Roscigno et al., 2007). These processes all “point to categorical distinctions as the basis for generating inequality” (Stainback, et al., 2010, p. 241) and help to perpetuate within around educational administration jobs.

Stereotyping can negatively affect women accessing employment in leadership positions (Castaño et al., 2019). Women are ascribed gender stereotypes and roles such as being nurturing, kind, and communal (Eagly & Mlandinic, 1994). However, research has demonstrated leadership is associated with masculinized traits (Koenig et al., 2011) which creates a barrier for women. When women act in a stereotypically masculine way or are working in male-dominated fields, women are viewed less favorably because their actions do not “match” stereotypes and expectations (Eagly & Mlandinic, 1994). However, when women self-monitor their actions, they are more likely to be promoted than women who do not engage in self-monitoring (O’Neill & O’Reilly, 2011).

Another theory that describes the process of gender inequality at work is statistical discrimination. Statistical discrimination (Bielby & Baron, 1996; England, 1992; Smith, 2002; Tomaskovic-Devey, 1993) suggests that those in positions of power will make decisions based on stereotyped and ascribed group averages. Statistical discrimination occurs when the decision maker is missing information about a candidate and will default to stereotypes about the group in which the candidate is a member (e.g. race, gender) (Smith, 2002). Additionally, status beliefs can create stereotypes and gender biases (Ridgeway & Correll, 2004). In this regard, stereotypes “reinforce status inequalities by further highlighting culturally generated categorical differences,
which are applied to all members of a group” (Stainback, et al., 2010, p. 228). Schwalbe et al. (2000) point out people interact with others based on the meaning they assign to them in a process called symbolic interactionism. Further, “people's feelings toward things - other people, situations, events, objects - depend on the meanings they learn to give to those things” (Schwalbe, 2000, p. 4). Within the context of daily interactions, employment, and organizations hierarchy, power, and authority are preserved through “language, symbolic acts and/or physical control or force” (Roscigno et al., 2007, p. 316).

Research shows when statistical discrimination occurs employers “reserve some jobs for men and others for women” (Bielby & Baron, 1986, p. 759). These reservations occur because of perceived turnover costs with women due to anticipated/expected marriage and/or pregnancy (Bielby & Baron, 1986). Employers believe that Black, Hispanic, or female labor is “more costly because of its high training costs, high turnover, or low productivity” (Tomaskovic-Devey, 1993, p.9). This perception is despite there being little evidence to suggest there are differences between men and women with similar backgrounds and jobs and their actual turnover behavior (Bielby & Baron, 1986). As a result, women who are promoted to managerial positions are often concentrated towards the bottom of the chain of command supervising other women (Reskin & Ross, 1992, p. 342). Thus, men are preferred for positions with high training costs where the threat of perceived turnover is enough for employers to engage in discrimination (Bielby & Baron, 1986). Logically, employers should want to hire women because their labor is cheaper than men’s through wage gaps but there are social stigmas against women in male-dominated professions (Reskin, 2018).

Additionally, research has found employers often engage in shifting expectations and criteria as women navigate career pathways which contributes to discrimination and
disadvantage (Phelan et al., 2008). Specifically, women who are perceived with a high level of social skills are more likely to be hired while perceived competence predicts hiring for men (Phelan et al., 2008). Like sex-congruent stereotypes, when high-achieving women perform competently, they are less likely to be hired because the hiring personnel shift the hiring criteria away from competence to social skills (Phelan et al., 2008).

This cultural aspect of women’s workforce participation can be explained through socially attributed characteristics about gender and sex. In general, “an attribute that differentiates people is a status characteristic,” this is only, “if there are widely held beliefs” about the attribute (Correll, 2004, p. 96). These attributes influence how others perceive sex differences and how individuals perceive themselves based on socially constructed sex differences. An example of this supply-side preference for cultural sex segregation is Human Capital Theory in which females choose careers with flatter wages and more availability for extended leave (Correll, 2004). Correll (2004) argues this is because women think they might get pregnant or need extended leave for familial roles.

Similarly, during hiring researchers have found the gendered queuing processes impacts women’s work force participation within organizations (Mahitivanichcha & Rorrer, 2006; Tallerico & Blount, 2004). Reskin (2018) describes the queuing process as how employers rank prospective employees according to potential productivity and cost. Reskin (2018) contends gender influences employers and interactions within the labor queuing process. Employers want the highest level of productivity at the lowest cost while employees want the highest monetary return, in the form of wages, for their labor (Reskin, 2018). Other research has examined how hiring personnel will engage in preferentially sorting candidates based on gender especially when
hiring for high status jobs (Fernandez & Mors, 2008). Fernandez and Mors (2008) argue this initial sorting between different status jobs results in gender pay gaps.

Moreover, women are most likely to work with other women (Seron et al., 2016). Kilbourne et al. (1990) hypothesized women’s work is devalued because of male power and gender biases. Tomaskovic-Devey (1993) argued “the devaluing of women’s work is a status composition processes” while “the denial of access is a status closure process” (p. 13). In other words, women’s work is devalued because its status is low relative to predominately male fields. When women do attempt to gain access to high status predominately male fields, their access is often denied through status closure. When taken together, both status composition and status closure processes “produce most gender and racial inequalities” (Tomaskovic-Devey, 1993, p. 13).

Further, as professions became feminized, gendered biases and stereotypes became associated with those professions and the profession’s status diminished (Bolton & Muzio, 2008). For example, women have become increasingly participatory in “bank management, public relations, retail banking, pharmacy, insurance adjusting, typesetting and composing, and systems analysis” (Reskin & Roos, 1990, p. 50). Reskin & Roos (1990) note that as professions become feminized and associated with female stereotypes, further sex segregation and job assignments took place based on these stereotypes.

For example, communications is a field that has become feminized and associated with female stereotypes. Reskin & Roos (1990) found “employers disproportionately assigned women…on the basis of women’s reputed expertise at interpersonal relations” (p. 50-51). These assignments were despite most communication positions containing both male and female stereotypes. Trix & Psenka (2003) examined 300 letters of recommendation for medical faculty.
They found significant differences between the letters written for women and men. Women were more likely to be associated with “teaching” while men applicants were associated with “research” (Trix & Psenka, 2003, p. 191). Lastly, Menkel-Meadow (1986) suggested the high unemployment and underemployment rates of lawyers were in part due to the profession’s rapid feminization.

Relating the feminization of professions and devaluing women’s work to education, Acker (1983) discuss the status of teachers as semi-professionals. Professionals have control, prestige, and compensation comparative to other nonprofessionals. However, teachers have a high degree of specialization of knowledge and skills. Moreover, teachers have the credentialization from obtaining a degree from a higher education institution and are not amateurs. Despite specialization and credentials, research shows teachers are, at best, semi-professionals because of a lack of prestige and compensation (Acker, 1983). Further, additional research in teacher in higher education has demonstrated that women disproportionately constitute the low-paying teaching positions in universities (Park, 1996).

Likewise, recently men have been entering into predominately female professions such as nursing and teaching. Williams (1992) found when men were in female-dominated professions, such as nursing and librarianship, managerial capacities of those professions were dominated by men. Williams (1992) explained these as glass-escalator effects, or the process when men “move out of female-identified areas, and up to those regarded more legitimate and prestigious for men” (p. 263). Williams (1992) argues, men in feminine occupations have their gender seen by supervisors as a positive difference. Through this positive gender difference, men gain access to leadership opportunities and expanded authority (Williams, 1992). Additionally, research has
demonstrated when men work in predominately female professions, they are more likely to be favorably assessed and promoted to positions of authority (Acker, 1990).

However, women do not benefit in similar ways from gender differences but instead will often not be hired due to gender biases. For example, Gorman and Kmec (2009) examined the role of gender biases in law firms. They suggested high status, work uncertainty, and the historical predominance of male incumbents cause bias in decision makers in high-ranking organizational position hiring practices. Gorman and Kmec (2009) found three mechanisms for these biases “(1) decision makers’ reliance on gender as an indicator of general competence, (2) the influence of gender-stereotypical selection criteria on decision makers’ perceptions of candidates’ suitability for particular jobs, and (3) in-group favoritism” (p. 1432). Gorman and Kmec (2009) found hiring gender bias was most pronounced in upper-level promotions. In conclusion, women are at a disadvantage for attaining authority at the highest levels and change will occur slowly (Gorman & Kmec, 2009).

The literature detailed above describes how hiring and promotions towards positions of authority are often inaccessible to women through demand side perspectives. Stereotyping, high status, uncertainty, shifting criteria, glass escalator effects, queueing, and statistical discrimination are all ways in which the dominant group maintains and recreates its advantages over women.

**Education**

Educational organizations are settings in which gender inequalities persist and are recreated. Barr and Dreeban (2015) argue school systems are organizations with different levels of stratification and structure where teaching and leading specializations are gendered (Strober &
Tyack, 1980). Gender bias, as it impacts other organizations, has the potential to impact educational organizations as well. Educational environments are organizational structures and so organizationally gendered disparities are applicable and evident through research.

Jobs women hold, such as teaching, are less likely to offer promotional opportunities while the jobs men hold have long career ladders (Bielby and Baron, 1986; Park, 1996). For example, female professors are more likely to be in less prestigious, lower paying, and less secure positions than male professors (Park, 1996) and women are less likely to reach tenure (Park, 1996). Women’s promotional job opportunities are likely to deteriorate after one or two promotions from their entry-level position (Bielby & Baron, 1986). Moreover, women who are in positions of authority are likely to supervise other women despite it also being common for women to also be supervised by men (Bielby & Baron, 1986). Within organizations and companies, “men and women rarely share job titles” (Bielby & Baron, 1986, p. 760). Indeed, Kanter (1977) found “male managers in a male-dominated hierarchy are likely to act in ways that preserve male privileges and advantages” (Kanter, 1977; Gorman & Kmec, 2009; Wright, Baxter, & Birkelund, 1995, p. 407).

With regards to gender authority gaps in education, Kanter (1977) argues gendered inequalities in organizational authority are not due to individual characteristics of men and women. Instead, there is uncertainty in decision-making and as such, the decision to promote insubordinates to authority positions contains risk (Smith, 2002). Thus, this uncertainty leads to homosocial reproduction or those with promotional authority and other authority elites to “develop management enclaves composed of individuals who share a common set of social and demographic characteristics” (Smith, 2002, p. 521). Moreover, the higher the position of authority in the workplace, the more subjective are the criteria for promotion (Smith, 2002).
There is evidence of a gendered discrepancy between the career pathways of men and women in principal positions (Davis et al., 2017). The researchers controlled for gender, race, and the interaction between gender and race and found “the pathway to the principalship disfavors females [and especially women of color] even when controlling for a host of other factors” (p. 231). They conclude that the “monitoring of recruitment, selection, and assignment processes over time” deserve further research (Davis et al., 2017, p. 234). As mentioned above, historically empirical research has focused on mechanisms such as self-selection (Nosek & Banaji, 2002), familial tasks (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004), and human capital (Polachek, 1979). The research conducted by Davis et al., (2017) demonstrates the urgent need to examine the gender authority gaps in educational administration from a demand-side perspective.

To this end, Wright et al. (1995) found a gendered gap in authority attainment and that a “significant proportion of the differences in men's and women's attainment of authority is probably attributable to direct discrimination” (p. 433). Wright et al. (1995) found political and economic factors, rather than individual level factors, are important in “explaining the variability in gender inequality in workplace authority, whereas cultural differences more specifically linked to gender ideology seem less significant” (Wright et al., 1995, p. 433-434). Research also indicates that gaining access to the superintendency is negotiated through school boards and headhunters, which disproportionately limits the access of women and women of color to the superintendency (Tallerico, 2000).

As a consequence of the gendered authority gap “women are more likely … to do nurturing work, whereas men are more likely to work in jobs that involve wielding either influence or authority over other workers” (England, 1992, p. 177). In 2010, 24.1% of superintendents were women (Kowalski et al., 2011). Research suggests that while over half
(51.6%) of the principals identify as women, this proportion is not equitable because 76.1% of teachers identify as women (Davis et al., 2017). According to the NCES, the average salary of a teacher in 2011-2012 was $53,100 while the average salary of a principal was $75,500 in 2003-2004, which converts to $78,443 in 2011 USD. The School Superintendents Association reported the median 2016 superintendent salary was $130,683 but ranged from $90,000 to $230,000 depending on school district size (Finnan & McCord, 2017). Clearly, the disproportionate representation of women in educational administration has financial implications.

Moreover, England (1992) argues possessing authority in the workplace has a “significant positive effect on wages for both men and women” (p. 164). England (1992) notes the effect of authority attainment is larger for men and the effect of nurturance in the workplace “lowers wages significantly for both men and women” with a larger penalty for men (p. 164). McGuire and Reskin (1983) found “men receive twice the economic payoff that women receive for possessing authority that allows them to control monetary resources even when gender differences in education and experience are considered”. This demonstrates the financial way in which feminized skills, such as nurturing, are devalued while masculine skills, such as authority, are valued.

Additionally, “gender differences in authority attainment account for much of the pay differences between men and women at high levels of authority” (Smith, 2002, p. 534). Women have lower wage earnings because of their limitation to lower entry-level positions but also when women are in similar authority positions as men, they do not receive comparable pay (Smith, 2002, p. 533). Moreover, when occupations are dominated by women, “employers may discriminate in wage setting by offering lower wages to workers in the occupation” (England,
1992, p. 127). For example, research on teachers suggests that teacher salaries are not comparable with similar professions (Allegretto & Tojerow, 2014).

**Educational Administration**

As highlighted above, literature from many fields (Charles & Grusky, 2005; Charles & Bradley, 2009; Correll, 2004; Goldin, 1994; Reskin, 2018) has examined gender, discrimination, and work. Positions of authority are more likely to be filled by men and in education and white men are more likely than woman to move from the principalship to the superintendency (Brunner & Grogan, 2007; Smith, 2002). Despite this recent literature, there is a gap concerning demand-side gatekeeping in educational administration research (Dunshea, 1988, p. 205). Generally, the theoretical frameworks of previous research look at While there are a growing number of published studies regarding how education systems as employers reproduce and disrupt implicit and explicit discrimination, however, this literature contains many more instances of opportunities for directions for future research, especially quantitative, than existing research (Davis et al., 2017; Dunshea, 1998).

Specifically, Dunshea (1998) writes there are literature gaps in understanding the barriers within an administrative position, gender differences in managerial behaviors, and gender differences in the selection processes of principals. Further, they suggest that sexism can strongly impact woman principals, especially novice women principals (Dunshea, 1998). For example, there are gendered differences in expectations and women’s actions are held to different standards than that of their male peers (Dunshea, 1998). As a result, women principals have to perform at higher standards and be more highly qualified to lead (Dunshea, 1998).
Attention should be given to equitable hiring and creating conditions for success for women superintendents (Blount, 1998). As reported by Kowalski et al., (2011) only 24.1% of superintendents identified as women. Yet because women superintendents, like all superintendents, may fail or face difficulties (Ryan & Haslam, 2005), school boards often will feel justified in “future discriminatory hiring practices” (Blount, 1998, p. 151). Additionally, research suggests women and persons of color are denied access to prestigious principal and superintendent job positions because these high-status positions are often “contingent upon attaining and successfully navigating through a series of intermediate administrative positions” (Blount, 1998, p. 149). These overt and covert forms of discrimination faced by women and people of color suggest a white male advantage to educational administration occupations such as the superintendency and principalships.

There are many implications and consequences of stratified gendered patterns for teachers and administrators. For example, predominately female professions, such as teaching “are less likely to provide benefits, on-the-job training, promotion opportunities, and the opportunity to exercise authority” (Reskin, 1993, p. 242). Additionally, sex-segregation in occupations can impact job assignments “independent of potential workers' actual qualifications” (Reskin, 1993, p. 250). For example, research suggests, “whether the previous incumbent was female and the percentage of female educational administrators in a job each increased the probability that a new hire would be female” (Reskin, 1993, p. 250). Additionally, sex-segregation in educational administration leads to the devaluing of women’s work in education through teaching’s semi-professional status and low pay (Allegretto & Tojerow, 2014; England, 1992). Further, jobs requiring nurturing social skills, such as teaching, have negative financial returns (England, 1992).
Thus, it is necessary to study women’s access to educational administration. Previous research has used quantitative and qualitative methods and found evidence to support that gatekeeping is occurring in the educational administration labor market to maintain white male advantage (Davis & Bowers, 2019; Tallerico, 2000). This study expands the body of literature by examining women’s access to high-level educational administration positions through hiring decisions net of supply-side factors such as women’s interest in high-level administration and availability of a pipeline to fill leadership positions. This dissertation also takes an important step forward by developing and analyzing data from a resume audit study, which has commonly been used to examine equity in male-dominated fields like STEM (Moss-Racusin et al., 2012).

**Measuring Gatekeeping**

A large body of research has established there is persistent sex segregation within and across occupations (Davis et al., 2017; England et al., 2020; Robinson, 2007; Shakeshaft et al., 2014; Stainback et al., 2010). This dissertation theorized key areas of gatekeeping in educational administration based on established research on labor discrimination: hiring decisions, traits, and as an interaction. These areas are discussed below.

**Hiring Decisions and Employers: Gate and Gatekeeper**

Social closure is thoroughly addressed by scholars who emphasize various elements of the exclusion dynamic. It suggests that superordinate groups dominate a valued position by way of exclusionary practices limiting other groups’ access (Lewin, 1947; Parkin, 1974; Weber, 1978). Groups compete for limited resources and try to “monopolize advantages and maximize their rewards by closing off opportunities to outsiders they define as inferior or ineligible”
(Weeden, 2002, p. 58). Individuals in positions of power reproduce their own group’s privileges by hiring and promoting people from within their group (e.g., men hiring men). This occurs through gatekeeping (e.g., keeping women from entering administration) and homosocial reproduction (e.g., promoting men to enter administration) (Stainback, et al., 2010). Both elements are driven by practices that reinforce male advantage over women, specifically through stereotyping and in-group preferences (Stainback, et al., 2010). In homosocial reproduction individuals in power reproduce their own group’s privileges to those positions of power (Kanter, 1977). In gatekeeping, gatekeepers with the authority to make decisions in hiring are essential to the persistence of gender inequality (Robinson, 2007). This dissertation will measure gatekeeping in educational administration.

There is extensive research that bears upon gatekeeping mechanisms in hiring decisions related to gender (Foschi, 2000; Goldin & Rouse, 2000; Robinson, 2007) and, as in other masculinized occupations, the ways in which men dominate coveted positions by means of exclusionary practices in hiring and promotion. The body of research on gatekeeping has established that gatekeepers have the power and authority to make hiring decisions and are essential to the persistence of gender and racial inequality in the workplace and in specifically educational workplaces as well (Chase & Bell, 1990; Dressel, Hartfield, & Gooley, 2004; Robinson, 2007, Tallerico, 2000).

There are five primary rationales for gatekeeping in the literature: access, editorial, protection, preservation of culture, and change agent (Barzilai-Nahon, 2009). The first, access, is used as a rationale as a way to control (e.g., provide or prevent) access to a service, status, position, or participation through inclusion and exclusion. The second rationale is editorial, a type of access, and refers to how journal and newspaper editors determine what is newsworthy
(Shoemaker, 1991). The third, protection, is a way to safeguard group or network members and is related to the fourth rationale, the preservation of culture, which is used to preserve social norms and values (Metoyer-Duran, 1993). Finally, the fifth rationale for gatekeeping is change agent which are actions that will cause in social, cultural, or behavioral change (e.g., agenda setting) (Barzilai-Nahon, 2009).

These rationales for gatekeeping connect with the general disagreement in the literature about whether gatekeeping is a neutral process, with a focus on processes and stages, or a political process, which emphasizes the social context of gatekeeper’s decisions (Barzilai-Nahon, 2009; Katz et al., 1995; Shumsky & Pinker, 2003). Gatekeeping in sociology focuses on gatekeeping as a power discourse wherein the gated individual cannot move through or access gates without a gatekeeper (Barzilai-Nahon, 2009).

**Traits**

In practice, female entry into male-dominated occupations can trigger gatekeeping mechanisms and aggravate gender stereotypes to maintain male advantage (Bielby & Baron, 1986; Reskin & Roos, 1990). Gender stereotypes associate culturally masculinized traits, such as authority and assertiveness, with valued administrative roles, and associate feminized traits, like nurturance and warmth, with teaching roles (Dowell & Larwin, 2013). Research suggests that even when performing at the same level, women are held to more stringent standards than men (Foschi, 2000) and when women do succeed in predominately male careers they are generally disliked which can affect their careers and lifetime earnings (Heilman et al., 2004). Women acting in ways that are perceived to violate traditionally feminine gender stereotypes (e.g., traits
associated with leadership) experience a backlash that can affect their career outcomes (Eagly & Mlandinic, 1994; O’Neill & O’Reilly, 2011).

In-group preferences involve the double standard of shifting expectations and criteria related to hiring and promotion decisions as a function of the candidate’s gender (Phelan et al., 2008). Women are hired for their perceived social skills whereas men are hired for their perceived competence (Phelan et al., 2008). When women exhibit masculinized traits such as competence, it conflicts with stereotypes and expectations and, as a result, women are less likely to be hired since the hiring criteria has been shifted away from competence to social skills (Phelan et al., 2008). Women who perform in ways that violate traditionally feminine gender stereotypes experience a backlash effect that can negatively affect their career outcomes (O’Neill & O’Reilly, 2011). Finally, successful women are viewed as lucky rather than competent, while unsuccessful men are viewed as unlucky rather than incompetent (Stainback, et al., 2010).

Discrimination can occur through stereotyping when a person in a position of power is missing information about a candidate and defaults to stereotypes about the group to which the candidate belongs (Tomaskovic-Devey, 1993). Employers rank prospective employees according to potential productivity and cost, and sort candidates based on gender in ways that favour men for higher status jobs (Gorman & K mec, 2009; Fernandez & Mors, 2008; Reskin, 2018). Men are unfairly seen as more capable and suitable for high-level positions of authority. On the other hand, employers expect women to turnover, especially with maternity leave, which results in jobs with high training costs being reserved for white men (Bielby and Baron, 1986; Tomaskovic-Devey, 1993).

Additionally, women in administrative careers do not have as extensive social network ties as men and these executive networks are masculinized and favor men. There are various
actors in the educational governance hierarchy, both educators and non-educators (Hess, 2002). In education, administrators represent the organization (school, district) in its environment (community) and interact with external actors and groups for resources, support, cooperation, and legitimacy. Social capital, the network ties with those external actors, is a critical resource in this regard. Having social capital increases access to jobs since external ties are critical in job finding (Granovetter, 1977). Further, applicants for executive roles are commonly expected to already possess high levels of social capital (Lin, 1999).

**Measuring Gatekeeping as an Interaction**

Problematically, while there have been empirical studies demonstrating the pervasive role of gender bias in the workplace and organizations, particularly in selection decisions, Stainback et al. (2010) argue these studies do not provide the mechanisms by which the gender biases occur; however, critics of the Human Capital theory suggest restricted labor market opportunities account for occupational sex segregation (Glass, 1990). This dissertation hopes to detect this restriction, what is being referred to here as gatekeeping, through how men and women rate equal job candidates by sex.

Network Gatekeeping Theory (Barzilai-Nahon, 2009) is a theoretical framework with four main perspectives. This dissertation will utilize the fourth perspective to measure gatekeeping in accessing educational administration. The first, second, and fourth theories focus on information processes, networks, and alternatives for the gated. The third theory analyzes the dynamic between the gatekeepers and the gated in terms of dynamism and interaction. Barzilai-Nahon (2009) notes that while the literature makes a connection between the gatekeeper and the
gated, it does not closely examine the meaning or nature of these relationships. Crucially, this framework suggests the gated can shape gatekeepers’ decisions.

Thus, this dissertation theorizes that there is a gatekeeping aspect to hiring decisions in educational administration (Barzilai-Nahon, 2009; Davis & Bowers, 2019; Robinson, 2007, Roscigno et al., 2007) because male dominance negatively affects women’s access to and participation in executive-level positions (Stainback, et al., 2010). In this context, women, the gated, are prevented from moving through the gate, a successful hiring decision, by gatekeepers due to the interaction between the gated and their traits and the gatekeeper. Since the gated can influence the decisions made by gatekeepers (Barzilai-Nahon, 2009), examining the hiring processes from the exclusive perspective of gatekeepers’ decisions may not reveal implicit biases such as stereotyping, statistical discrimination, and shifting criteria as typically measured by traits. This dissertation hypothesizes that the interaction between the gated in the form of the resume name and the gatekeeper as the participant’s gender, as a way to aggregate implicit biases, will shape the gatekeepers’ decisions where male gatekeepers will favor male candidates over female candidates. To measure this, the present study will examine if equally qualified males and females are viewed as differentially hirable in favor of males as evidence of gatekeeping.
Chapter 3: Methods

Introduction

This study examined how educational administrators rate the application materials of candidates for superintendent, assistant superintendent, principal, and assistant principal positions. The resumes are provided for reference in Appendix A. Previous research has utilized resume audit studies, also referred to as correspondence studies, to measure labor market discrimination (Bertrand & Mullainathan, 2004; Darolia et al., 2014; Moss-Racusin et al., 2012). This methodology was selected because it has been able to detect discrimination (i.e., the unequal treatment of equals) (Baert, 2018; Capéau et al., 2012) and gatekeeping (Hora, 2020). Audit studies increased in popularity during the 1960s and 1970s to study fair housing and Pearce (1979) used an audit methodology to specifically study gatekeeping and racial segregation in Detroit, Michigan (Gaddis, 2018). More recent research regarding resume audit studies, hiring, and gatekeeping found that matching applicant characteristics with incumbent employee characteristics was a way in which gatekeeping was occurring in hiring decisions for positions in higher education (Hora, 2020).

Participant Recruitment

The participants for this study were current superintendents, assistant superintendents, principals, assistant principals, district administrators, and school board members. The participants recruited were educational administrators, particularly educational administrators who hire personnel because I wanted to study educational administrators who hire the personnel that on a leadership career trajectory (e.g. superintendency, principalship). The participants were...
randomly assigned a resume with a male- or female-associated name (e.g. Mary or David). After evaluating the resumes, the participants responded to a series of items addressing the candidate’s traits (e.g., competence, mentorability), hiring predictions, and the participant’s demographic information (Appendix D).

The data collection and recruitment process are depicted in Figure 1. I recruited the participants by connecting with the Kansas Association of School Boards (KASB). After discussing the study with KASB leadership I was then connected with leadership from the United School Administrators of Kansas (USA-Kansas) as well. The survey was distributed through the official KASB and USA-Kansas member email listservs to all association members subscribed to the email list. Participants completed the surveys on the online survey platform, Qualtrics. I obtained informed consent from all participants by having participants read and agreed to an informed consent statement prior to responding to any questions (Appendix C).

Survey Development

The survey included four main sections: consent, demographic information (Part 1), resume items, and demographic information (Part 2). All survey items are presented on the full survey in Appendix D. To obtain informed consent from all survey respondents, the consent item
was required, and the participant could not advance through the survey without responding to the item. If the participant did not consent, they were automatically directed to the end of the survey.

The demographic items were separated into two sections, Part 1 and Part 2. This was done in order to reduce the working memory load placed on participants before they reached the resume section. Part 1 of the demographic section included items such as level of education, undergraduate institution, gender, race/ethnicity, marital status, number of dependents, veteran status, employment location (state), licensures, current job title, number of years in current job, number of years in education, number of years in administration, and the approximate student enrollment size of current school district. Part 2 of the demographic section included items such as school district geographical location (urban, rural, etc.), school district type (public, private, etc.), weekly hours worked, extended work hours, relocation for new position/promotion, retired status, and recruitment source.

The resumes were fabricated to reflect highly and moderately performing candidates. The participants were not informed whether the resumes were real or fabricated. This was done to help credentialize the contents of the resumes. The only difference between the resumes within either performance level (high or low) were the gendered name signifier (female- or male-typed name). Figure 2 demonstrates the resumes by type. In sum, I developed four resumes, one for each of the following four levels: superintendent/high, superintendent/moderate, principal/high, and principal/moderate. These four resumes were assigned one of two name options: female- or male-associated. The resume contents between the two names were identical for each of the four levels. For example, the superintendent/high/female resume contents matched the superintendent/high/male resume contents.
Figure 2: Resume Types

Measures

The resume items included a combination of survey items developed for this study and validated scales (Moss-Racusin et al., 2012). The items that were developed for this study included asking the participant to indicate the highest position for which they believed the candidate was qualified, the candidate’s salary range, an assessment of traits (competence, experienced, hardworking, kind, and strong), and an item asking how likely the participant believed the candidate was hired. The survey items and flow are detailed in Figure 3.
Figure 3: Survey Items

Operationalizing Variables

This study sought to test whether and to what extent gatekeeping mechanisms transpire in the educational administration hiring processes using five variables: participant gender, candidate gender, the interaction between the participant’s gender and candidate’s level of the resume, and candidate traits. Table 4 shows basic descriptives for control variables included in the data analysis. Below are how the variables were operationalized for data collection and analysis.

Independent Variables

The candidate’s gender was signaled to participants by the names on one of the eight possible candidate resumes (Figure 2). For this study, candidate gender was a dichotomous variable with only two options (man or woman) in order strongly activate the stereotyping responses of the participants. Additionally, all participants responded that they self-identified as
either a man or woman. Participant gender was measured with an open text entry box and converted to a dichotomous variable based on response.

As a control, the contents of the resumes at each level of performance (high or moderately performing candidates for superintendent or principal level positions) were identical except for the candidate names. The names were determined using popular baby names in the US in the decades when most contemporary superintendents were born (1960s-1970s) (Kowalski et al., 2011). Future research should include additional names and/or other types of signifiers on resumes/job application materials to activate participants’ evaluations based on intersections of gender, race, national origin, sexual orientation, and ability.

**Participant Gender**

Participant gender was measured to document participants’ gender identities and examine how participants evaluated the resumes. Participant gender was measured with an open-ended text entry box (Magliozzi, Saperstein, & Westbrook, 2016) on Qualtrics at the beginning of the survey. The prompt was “Gender: ___________”.

**Resume Gender**

In order to address this study’s research questions, the methodology replicates portions of Moss-Racusin et al.’s (2012) resume audit study and instruments. In this study, participants were randomly assigned a resume with a gendered name (i.e., Lisa or Michael) and after evaluating the resumes, responded to a series of survey items regarding qualifications and fit, recommended starting salary, traits, mentoring, and participant demographics. These items were developed using peer-reviewed research and validated survey instruments (see Moss-Racusin et al.,
2012). Research has demonstrated when hiring personnel cannot determine the gender of a
candidate, a woman’s chances of being hired increases (Goldin & Rouse, 2000) meaning gender
plays an important role in activating gatekeeping. This study purposefully included gendered
names in order to activate gatekeeping through stereotypes. Figure 4 shows the pairing between
participant and resume gender.

**Interaction**

Four variables were created to represent the interaction between resume and participant
gender in order to measure gatekeeping in hiring decisions. The four variables were dummy
coded as male participant by male resume (1,1), male participant by female resume (1,0), female
participant by male resume (0,1), and female participant by female resume (0,0) (Figure 4).

**Dependent Variable**

**Hiring Belief**

This study is using discrepant hiring outcomes as evidence of gatekeeping. The hiring
belief variable was adapted from a survey item included in the research conducted by Moss-
Racusin et al. (2012). Participants responded to the prompt “How likely do you think the
applicant was actually hired for the job he/she applied for?” measured on a 7-point Likert scale
(1=Not at all; 7=Very much).
Figure 4: Predictor Variables

Figure 4 details the predictor variables. The predictor variable is the gender pairing between the respondent (male, female) and resume (male, female). Therefore, for this model there will be four pairs: male respondent/male resume (Cell A), female respondent/male resume (Cell B), male respondent/female resume (Cell C), and female respondent/female resume (Cell D). The outcome variable will be how respondents evaluate the resumes as measured by hiring beliefs. Therefore, this study hypothesized that on average male resumes evaluated by male respondents (Cell A) will tend to have more positive hiring outcomes (hiring beliefs) than female resumes evaluated by male respondents (Cell C). Therefore: Cell A > Cell C.

Data Collection Procedures
The survey was developed through Qualtrics and distributed through KASB and USA-Kansas member email listservs. Participants received an email from KASB or USA-Kansas that solicited their participation in an online survey (Appendix B). If participants were interested, they clicked on the provided URL and were directed to a survey administered through Qualtrics (see Appendix D for the entire survey). The participants consented before responding to any survey items. After consenting, participants responded to Part 1 of the demographic information section. Then participants read that they were being asked to evaluate a “real” resume and that they would have access to the resume while they were responding to the survey items. The participants were not told whether the resumes were fabricated or the resumes of actual candidates.

Participants were randomly assigned one of the eight resume options through the Qualtrics randomizer and branching logic functions. The participants then evaluated the resumes that showed the credentials of the resume of candidate they were randomly assigned. The highly and moderately qualified aspect of the resumes was developed in order to add a variable to measure participant responses to resume subjectivity and at what level of qualification and credentials participants sorted the resumes by gender. In sum, the qualification difference in resumes was built to determine and reveal subjective hiring decisions as another variable to measure gatekeeping (Figure 2). After examining the resume, the participants were asked to respond to a series of items. Table 1 details these items in brief and Appendix D includes the full survey.
Resume Section Item Block 1: Position and Salary Level

Participants responded to an item using a 5-point nominal scale assessing the highest position for which they think the candidate is qualified. Response options included superintendent, assistant superintendent, district administrator, principal, and assistant principal. Participants then responded to an item asking which starting salary range was appropriate for the candidate. Response options included under $50,000, $50,000-$74,999, $75,000-$99,999, $100,000-$124,999, $125,000-$149,999, $150,000-$174,999, $175,000-$199,999, and over $200,000.

Resume Section Item Block 2: Traits

The participants then responded to a series of items asking them to indicate how most people would rate this candidate in terms of characteristics on a matrix table using a 7-point Likert scale (1=Low, 7=High). These traits were generated through collecting the text of all superintendent job postings listed on topschooljobs.org in October 2017 since job advertisements include gendered wording (Gaucher, Friesen, & Kay, 2011). Once I collected this text, I ran it through a word frequency calculator. Traits that were frequently used in job listings were then used to develop this item. The traits included competent, experienced, hardworking, kind, and strong. This item asked the participant to evaluate how most people would rate the candidate because it helps to remove the observer effect which is important because the participant might have changed their responses if they perceived they were being observed by the researcher (Quadlin, 2017).
Resume Section Item Block 3: Validated Scales

After rating the candidate on traits, the participants then responded to several scales assessing competence, likeability, and mentorability from Moss-Racusin et al. (2012) (see Table 1 for the survey items). These items also were presented to the participants on a matrix table using a 7-point Likert scale (1=Not at all, 7=Very much) in the survey.

Table 1: Scales adapted from Moss-Racusin et al. (2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>Did the candidate strike you as competent?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How likely is it that the applicant has all of the necessary skills for this job?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How qualified do you think the applicant is?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likeability</td>
<td>How much did you like the candidate?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Would you characterize the candidate as someone you want to get to know better?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Would the candidate fit in well with other administrators?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentorability</td>
<td>Encourage the candidate to stay in the field if he/she was considering changing careers?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encourage the applicant to continue to focus on administration if he/she was considering switching to focus on teaching?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Give the applicant extra help if he/she was having trouble?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Resume Section Item Block 4: Hiring

The participants were asked how likely they thought the applicant was actually hired for the job he/she applied for. This item was adapted from one of the Moss-Racusin et al. (2012)
scales. The other two items on the scale (how likely would you be to invite the applicant to interview for the job and how likely would you be to hire the applicant for the job) were excluded because the participant sample included individuals who were not in job positions where they would be able to respond to actual hiring items. For example, if a participant was an assistant principal but was evaluating a superintendent level resume, the participant would not have the necessary qualifications to be able to validity respond to those two items. The third item on the scale, whether they thought the candidate was actually hired, does not ask for an actual hiring/interview decision and as such, more removed and impartial. The participants could respond to this item even if they had never before directly hired a superintendent because they have had experience interacting with superintendents by nature of their roles in educational administration.

Finally, after the participants responded to the items evaluating the resumes, they then responded to items in Part 2 of the demographic information section. The items in the demographic information Part 2 section included.
Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

This dissertation used a resume audit study methodology to examine gatekeeping in educational administration hiring decisions, specifically whether and how hiring decisions stratify educational administration candidates by gender. It tested whether decision makers favor candidates who are men over women with identical experience and skills for high-level education administration positions. This chapter contains the results of the resume audit study conducted to operationalize and answer the following research questions:

RQ1: Is women’s access to educational administrative positions restricted by gatekeeping mechanisms?

RQ2: To what extent is women’s access restricted by gatekeeping mechanisms?

The null hypothesis was there will not be a significant relationship between a candidate’s access to educational administration positions through participant’s hiring decisions (gatekeeping). The alternate hypothesis was there will be a significant relationship between a candidate’s gender and hiring decisions.

This chapter includes descriptions of sample demographics and the process used to analyze participant responses (n=160). This chapter will report three types of detailed data analysis: (a) participant demographic information, (b) means table, and (c) multiple linear regression.

Study Sample
**Study Setting**

This study relied on data from educational administrators who are members of two of large professional organizations in Kansas, KASB and USA-Kansas. Participants were asked to respond to the survey after receiving a study recruitment email originating from KASB and USA-Kansas member email listservs. Data were collected in September and October of 2019 and the survey was hosted on Qualtrics. Data analyses were conducted in SPSS.

**Response Rate**

Table 2 shows the study’s response rate. The total number of participants who received a recruitment email was 4,124 consisting of participants from USA-Kansas (n=2,151) and KASB (n=1,973). KASB reported that of the 1,973 individuals who received a recruitment email, only 88 opened the survey link resulting in a response rate of 4.460%. In total there were 267 survey responses recorded. If 88 of the total 264 responses were from KASB, this means 179 were recruited from USA-Kansas meaning USA-Kansas had a response rate of 8.321%. The total number of responses was 267 out of a total 4,124 individuals who received a recruitment email resulting in a total response rate of 6.474% for all participants.

Table 2: Response Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total emailed</th>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Response Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KASB</td>
<td>1,973</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>4.460%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA-Kansas</td>
<td>2,151</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>8.321%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4,124</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>6.474%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Criteria for Inclusion**

Figure 5 provides the details of criteria for inclusion and resulting total sample size. Of the total 267 initial participants, all of whom consented, 32 were removed because they did not complete the required gender survey item which was coded as a force response item in Qualtrics and means that the participant was unable to advance to the resume survey items. 54 were removed from the final dataset because while they did respond to at least the required demographic items (gender, race/ethnicity) they did not respond to the resume survey items. Finally, 21 responses were removed because of unclear or not applicable responses to the current job position item (e.g., teacher). The final dataset included responses from a total of 160 participants.
Figure 5: Criteria for Inclusion

After consenting, participants were randomly assigned to one of eight groups through the randomization feature in Qualtrics. The resume with the lowest number of evaluations was the
highly-qualified female principal resume and the resume (n=15) with the highest number of evaluations was the moderately-qualified male superintendent resume (n=24). The figure below (Figure 6) demonstrates the number of participants that evaluated each type of resume:

1. superintendent/high/female (n=21),
2. superintendent/high/male (n=17),
3. superintendent/moderate/female (n=20),
4. superintendent/moderate/male (n=24),
5. principal/high/female (n=15),
6. principal/high/male (n=22),
7. principal/moderate/female (n=21), and
8. principal/moderate/male (n=20).
**Participant Descriptives**

This study conducted a convenience sampling of the KASB and USA-Kansas members. Participant demographics are reported in Table 3. Over a third of participants self-identified as women (38.12%) and 61.87% of participants self-identified as men. The overwhelming majority of participants were white (96.25%) while a small percentage identified as non-white: Hispanic or Latino/a (1.25%), another (1.25%), multiracial (0.62%), and no response (0.62%). The high percent of white respondents reflects the disproportionately high percent of white superintendents in the United States (94.0%) (Davis & Bowers, 2019). Most participants worked in public (99.37%) rural (71.87%) schools and districts.

The sample for this study included participants with jobs representing a comprehensive array of educational administration positions with the majority of participants reporting they were district administrators (62.50%). Participants were also assistant principals (5.00%), principals (35.62%), assistant superintendents (43.75%), superintendents (34.37%), and school board members (6.87%). For level of education, most participants had at least obtained a bachelor’s degree (68.75%), 68.12% had a master’s degree, 16.25% had an EdD, and 1.87% had a PhD. Most participants had a teacher licensure (81.87%) and/or district licensure (55.62%) but most had a building licensure (83.75%). In addition to job titles, level of education, and licenses, the sample represented individuals with experience in education and administration (Table 5). The mean average of years in education was 22.31 years with a standard deviation of 10.5 years and the mean average of years in administration was 12.50 years with a standard deviation of 8.93 years.
Table 3: Participant Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics of Study Sample</th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Male</td>
<td>61.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Female</td>
<td>38.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Asian</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% African American</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Hispanic or Latino/a</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Multiracial</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% White</td>
<td>96.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Another</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% No Response</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Bachelor’s Degree</td>
<td>68.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Master’s Degree</td>
<td>68.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% PhD</td>
<td>1.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% EdD</td>
<td>16.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Another</td>
<td>68.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Licensure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Teacher licensure</td>
<td>81.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Building-level licensure</td>
<td>83.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% District-level licensure</td>
<td>55.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% None</td>
<td>11.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Title</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Assistant Principal</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Principal</td>
<td>35.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% District Administrator</td>
<td>62.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Assistant Superintendent</td>
<td>43.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Superintendent</td>
<td>34.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% School Board Member</td>
<td>6.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% More Than One</td>
<td>37.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Metro</td>
<td>28.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Rural</td>
<td>71.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Type</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Public</td>
<td>99.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% Private</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participant control variables included in the multiple linear regression models were participant gender (nominal, male=1, female=0), participant race (nominal, 1=white, 0=not...
white), participant geographic location (nominal, 1=metro (city, suburbs), 0=rural), the number of years a participant had professional experience in education (ratio, completed years), the number of years a participant had professional experience in educational administration (ratio, completed years), and the participant’s current job title (dummy coded nominal, district administrator (1=yes, 0=no), assistant superintendent (1=yes, 0=no), superintendent (1=yes, 0=no), school board member (1=yes, 0=no), more than one concurrent position (1=yes, 0=no).

Style type was ultimately not included in the final multiple regression model because only one participant reported they were employed in a private school. Descriptives of these participant control variables are reported in Table 4.

Table 4: Descriptives for Control Measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptives for Control Measures</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male (1/0)</td>
<td>0.619</td>
<td>0.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White (1/0)</td>
<td>0.975</td>
<td>0.157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metro (1/0)</td>
<td>0.262</td>
<td>0.441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in Education</td>
<td>22.306</td>
<td>10.746</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in Administration</td>
<td>12.500</td>
<td>8.926</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Position</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal (1/0)</td>
<td>0.356</td>
<td>0.480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Administrator (1/0)</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>0.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Superintendent (1/0)</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superintendent (1/0)</td>
<td>0.344</td>
<td>0.476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Board Member(1/0)</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More Than One (1/0)</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.191</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings

In order determine if equally qualified male and female candidates are viewed as differentially hirable in favor of males as evidence of gatekeeping, a means table was used to
calculate the average response to the question “How likely is it that this applicant was for the job he/she applied to?” as measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1=Not at All and 7=Very Much). Table 6 illustrates the means by participant gender, resume gender, and resume quality. Most of the participants thought the resumes were qualified for the superintendent position and as such the principal/superintendent differences were removed from the analyses.

In general and on average, female participants rated male applicants (resumes) the highest (M = 5.7778 SD = 0.98883) and, conversely, female participants also rated female applicants the lowest (M = 5.3333 SD = 1.04950). Male participants rated male applicants slightly higher (M 5.5870 SD = 0.85832) than female applicants (M = 5.5769 SD = 1.07277), though the mean with the highest standard deviation was connected with how male participants rated female applicants. Men and women are, on average, rating identical resumes very differently. This indicates that there is variability in candidate job application material evaluation by participants who are in positions to hire new administrative personnel.

The quality, or level, of the applicant’s resume also created interesting differences between the means by participant gender and resume gender (Table 5). On average, female participants rated the low-quality male resumes the highest and the low-quality female resumes the lowest out of all of the combinations. The order for the highest rated to the lowest rated is as follows:

1. Female participant, male resume, low quality
2. Male participant, female resume, high quality
3. Female participant, male resume, high quality
4. Male participant, male resume, high quality
5. Male participant, male resume, low quality
6. Female participant, female resume, high quality
7. Male participant, female resume, low quality
8. Female participant, female resume, low quality

What is striking about this list is that the top 50% (1-4) include 75% of the male resumes (3/4) whereas the bottom 50% (5-8) include 75% of the female resumes (3/4). These mean differences are despite the contents of the resumes being equal between genders and quality. This indicates that there is subjectivity, and due to persistent personal biases, and stereotypes, and potentially gatekeeping occurring during the hiring processes.

Table 5: Average Hired Rating

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Low Resume</th>
<th>High Resume</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Participant X Male Resume</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5.5870</td>
<td>0.85832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Participant X Female Resume</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>5.5769</td>
<td>1.07277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Participant X Male Resume</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>5.7778</td>
<td>0.98883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Participant X Female Resume</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5.3333</td>
<td>1.04950</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To answer the research questions and better understand the differences between the means in Table 5, a multiple linear regression was conducted. Specifically, this multiple linear regression examined gatekeeping and hiring decisions with gender since this study sought to predict gatekeeping, differential hiring decisions based on gender. The general form of the linear regression models is shown below:

\[ Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{ResumeGender} + \beta_2 \text{ParticipantGender} + \beta_3 \text{ResumeGenderXParticipantGender} \]

Where \( Y \) represents the how likely a participant believed a candidate was actually hired for the job they applied for. \( \beta_0 \) is the constant in each model. The unstandardized Beta coefficients are as follows: \( \beta_1 \) is the resume gender, \( \beta_2 \) is the participant gender, and \( \beta_3 \) is the
resume interaction. This study used a t-test for regression coefficients for hypothesis testing using a 0.05 significance level (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). The results from the multiple linear regression are displayed in Table 6.
Table 6: Regression Analysis of Hireability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
<th>Model 4</th>
<th>Model 5</th>
<th>Model 6</th>
<th>Model 7</th>
<th>Model 8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Participant</td>
<td>-0.018</td>
<td>0.163</td>
<td>10.009</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>0.164</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Resume</td>
<td>0.171</td>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>0.169</td>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>0.542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Resume</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>0.261</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Participant X Male Resume</td>
<td>-0.461</td>
<td>0.323</td>
<td>-0.229</td>
<td>-0.561</td>
<td>0.397</td>
<td>-0.279</td>
<td>-0.466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Participant X High Resume</td>
<td>-0.175</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>-0.142</td>
<td>0.408</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Resume X High Resume</td>
<td>-0.163</td>
<td>0.363</td>
<td>-0.071</td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.481</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>0.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Participant X Male Resume X High Resume</td>
<td>-0.363</td>
<td>0.492</td>
<td>-0.125</td>
<td>-0.384</td>
<td>0.498</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metro</td>
<td>-0.081</td>
<td>0.196</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in Administration</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in Education</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>0.314</td>
<td>0.271</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Administration</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>0.402</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Superintendent</td>
<td>-0.366</td>
<td>0.400</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superintendent</td>
<td>0.115</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Board</td>
<td>-0.402</td>
<td>0.390</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>0.478</td>
<td>0.508</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>5.600* 0.128***</td>
<td>5.497* 0.36***</td>
<td>5.424* 0.176***</td>
<td>5.291* 0.198***</td>
<td>5.214* 0.265***</td>
<td>5.214* 0.266***</td>
<td>5.214* 0.267***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 160. *p < 0.05. ***p < 0.001 level.
The correlational analyses as displayed in Table 6 showed male resumes were significantly more hirable than female resumes. However, this significance was only when the controls were added to the final model (Model 8). To determine which control variable was contributing to this significant result, a series of multiple linear regressions were run where the main and interaction effects from Models 1-7 were entered into the regression equation in the same order but in Model 8 only included one of the control variables. These regressions illustrated that a participant’s number of years in administration and whether the participant was a principal were enough on their own to produce the significance for male resumes on hireability. The first regression equation with all of the control variables added in Model 8 is detailed below first and then the results from adding in the isolated control variables are described second.

In all of the regression analyses, Models 1-3 included the main effects (participant gender, resume gender, resume quality) and Models 4-7 included the interaction terms between these main effects in order to test whether the interaction between participant gender and resume gender was a significant predictor of hiring. For the first regression where all of the control variables were included at the same time, Model 1 showed that participant gender on its own was not a significant predictor of hiring ($F(1,156) = 0.013, p > 0.05$). Models 2-3 added in resume gender and resume quality and neither were significant predictors of hiring. When the level of the resume was included in Model 3, the male resume coefficient decreased from 0.171 to 0.169.

Models 4-7 added in the interaction effects to the main effects of resume gender ($A$), participant gender ($B$), and resume quality ($C$). The interactions included male participant X male resume ($AB$), male participant X high resume ($AC$), male resume X high resume ($BC$), and male participant X male resume X high resume ($ABC$). When added these interactions included with the main effects were also not significant predictors of hiring. The coefficient for male
resumes increased from 0.169 in Model 3 with no interaction variables to 0.542 with the Male Participant X Male Resume interaction variable. Including the interaction variables changed the significance for male resumes from 0.984 in Model 3 to 0.079, 0.082, 0.083, and 0.084 in Models 4-7, respectively. This is likely because the duplicative aspect of including the interaction and the main effect terms in the same model. However, a larger sample in future studies might investigate and be better able to detect significance from this interaction due to the large amount of literature, as detailed in Chapter 2, supporting gatekeeping as an interactive mechanism.

Largely, the findings from Models 1-7 are similar to the means reported in Table 5 since, in general, the average rating on the resume was consistently around five out of seven. In Models 2-7 male resumes scored higher than female resumes but none of these were significant. However, the unstandardized coefficients for the interactions between male participants and male resumes (AB, ABC) were negative across Models 4-8 thus moderating positive main effects.

Additionally, the constant values for Models 1-7 were all statistically significant (Table 6) and unexplained by the variables. The adjusted R-squared values for Models 1-7 were as following, respectively: -0.006, -0.005, -0.005, 0.002, -0.004, -0.009, and -0.012. This means that the variables included in Models 1-7 (i.e., A, B, C, AB, AC, BC, and ABC) explained very little of the variance. For example, in Model 4, the adjusted R-squared was 0.002 which means only 0.2% variance was explained by the variables (i.e., A, B, C, and AB). The adjusted R-squared for Model 8 is discussed in more detail below.

For the first regression, Model 8 included the main effects, interaction effects, and all of the control variables. The results shown in Table 6 indicate resume gender is a significant predictor of hiring outcomes (F (16,141) = 1.530, p < 0.05) in Model 8. When controlling for
participant gender, resume quality, interactions, and participant demographics, male resumes were significantly more likely to be hired. The average male resume was 0.788 more likely to be hired than the average female resume. This means that male resumes were rated nearly a full point higher on the 7-point Likert scale by both male and female participants.

The adjusted R-squared for Model 8 was 0.051 meaning that 5.1% of the variance is explained by the variables included in Model 8 (i.e., A, B, C, AB, AC, BC, ABC, participant job (dummy coded variables: principal, district administrator, assistant superintendent, superintendent, and school board member), participant race (dummy coded variable: white), participant school location (dummy coded variable: metro), participant number of years in education, and participant number of years in administration). This lower Adjusted R-squared can be explained because of the complexity of and challenge to detect implicit and often subtle biases in hiring decisions (Nier & Gaertner, 2012).

Additionally, Model 8 included many different predictors about the resume and the participant that were based in the common literature regarding gender and educational administration. For example, rural communities tend to hire men as district leaders (O’Keefe, 2020) and geographic location of the participant was included as one of the demographic variables. This means that omitted factors are not biasing the estimated effects since the included variables are aligned with the purpose of this study and they also originated from the literature.

On average, male resumes are 0.3955 standard deviation units more hirable than the average female resume when the standardized coefficient (0.399) is multiplied by the standard deviation for hireability (0.99123). Model 8 had medium effect size (0.17) when Cohen’s D was calculated ($f^2 = r^2 / (1 - r^2)$). In Model 7 the standard error was 0.355 but in Model 8 the standard
error was larger at 0.359 which means the 0.619 in Model 7 is underestimating the male resume variable and so the 0.788 in Model 8 is a more accurate estimation.

To better understand why male resumes weren’t a significant predictor of hireability in Models 1-7 but then became a significant predictor in Model 8, a series of regressions were run which maintained the main and interaction terms from Models 1-7 in the first regression but isolated each control variable in each regression. A participants’ years in administration and a participant being a principal were both control variables that emerged as changing the regression where male resumes became significant in the final model. For regression which included only the administrative years control variable, Model 8 was not significant in the ANOVA table (F (8,149) = 1.062, p > 0.05). However, the unstandardized coefficient (0.703) for male resumes was significant (p=0.05). This coefficient was less than but similar to the insignificant unstandardized coefficient from the total regression model (0.788). Again, this means that male resumes scored a little over two-thirds a point higher than female resumes on the hireability scale out of seven total points. The unstandardized coefficient for the number of administrative years was -0.018 which means that participants with more years rated both male and female resumes as less hirable than less experienced participants. However, out of a seven-point scale, this is a relatively small penalty.

Male resumes were also significant when adding whether a participant was a current principal to Model 8 in a third regression. The ANOVA table showed Model 8 was significant (F (8,149) = 2.382, p < 0.05). The unstandardized coefficient for male resumes in this model was 0.708 and was significant (p<0.05). Again, this coefficient is similar to both the unstandardized coefficient for male resumes in Model 8 for the first (0.788) and second regression (0.703). Across these three models, male resumes are consistently scoring higher than their female
counterparts by nearly a full point on a seven-point scale. The unstandardized coefficient for principals was 0.591 (p<0.01) which means principal participants scored both male and female resumes a half point higher than non-principal participants.

To determine which of these two control variables was producing the male resume significance, a fourth regression was conducted where Models 1-7 remained the same as the first, second, and third regressions but where both years in administration and principal position were included in Model 8 at the same time. As with the third regression, Model 8 in the ANOVA table was significant (F (9,148) = 2.216, p < 0.05). The coefficients in Model 8 showed that male resumes were a significant predictor of hireability (p<0.05) with an unstandardized coefficient of 0.745 which was similar to the first three regressions. This regression showed the number of years in administration was insignificant and the unstandardized coefficient decreased from -0.018 to -0.009 which means when included in a model with principals, the participants who had worked in administration longer did not change the scores of male and female resumes as much as when it had been in the model independently. Like with the third regression, whether a participant was a principal was a significant predictor of hireability (p<0.001). The unstandardized coefficient for principals was also similar to the principal coefficient in the third regression (0.591) to the fourth regression (0.548). Again, principals scored both male and female resumes half a point higher than non-principal participants.

These results illustrate resumes with male names are rated as significantly more hirable than resumes with female names. The participants, both male and female, preferred male resumes over female. This significance was detected only when control variables were included in the regression model because the participants who were principals were significantly more likely to rate resumes as more hirable than non-principals.
Summary

As hypothesized, there is evidence to support the interaction between the gated (i.e., application, resume) and gatekeeper (i.e., hiring committee, participant) has a statistically significant positive relationship on hiring outcomes for male applicants (Table 6) because the participants, both male and female, preferred male resumes over female. However, as the analyses indicate, this was only when context and demographics, specifically principals, were accounted for in the statistical model.

These findings suggest that gatekeeping is occurring and detecting gatekeeping may be both quantitatively challenging and dependent on the roles and existing stratification within a profession/occupation. As a group, principals rated resumes as more hirable than other administrators. Previous studies have established the career pathways to high-level educational administration positions gatekeep women out by having stronger requirements for previous employment at the district level while men more often have experience as principals before becoming superintendents (Davis et al., 2017; Davis & Bowers, 2019; Tallerico, 2000b). This study examined how male and female resumes were rated on hireability. It found both male and female respondents rated 75% of the male resumes into the top 50% when in comparison to identical female resumes (Table 5). This study also found male resumes were scored as more hirable and that participants who were principals scored male and female resumes as more hirable (Table 6).

This study expands the literature because principals may participate on hiring committees for early career administrators, such as for assistant principals, and they may also mentor and encourage aspirant administrators. A crucial and unexpected finding of this study is that the level of employment of the employer impacts how candidates are rated on hireability for educational
administration positions. This indicates being hired may be dependent on the stratification and level of employment of the members of the hiring committee. This means the characteristics of the employer interact with hiring and the characteristics of the candidate interact with hiring as theorized in Chapter 2.

Analyses revealed participants were more likely to favor male candidates over female candidates for hiring decisions despite the male and female resumes being identical. The findings suggest gatekeeping is occurring during the hiring process for high-level educational administrators by candidate gender on resumes and expands the gatekeeping literature by applying methods from other fields (i.e., resume audit study). In sum, the results indicate male names on resumes are positive predictors for successful hiring decisions in educational administration. This indicates gatekeeping is occurring because the gate is preferentially being opened by gatekeepers for men which negatively restricts successful hiring decisions for female applicants.
Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

Introduction

This study takes a first step in quantitatively studying gatekeeping as a mechanism restricting access to educational administration. Equitable access and its implications for career outcomes are of significant interest to organizational and vocational researchers and the current and future candidates who themselves aspire towards administration. Previous research in education has extensively studied and documented women’s traits, qualifications, and experiences and has examined how women navigate their own career pathways amongst gatekeepers (e.g., Tallerico, 2000).

Gatekeeping undermines equitable access to positions of authority and power in educational administration. Previous research has focused on supply side explanations as predictors of sex segregation in educational administration and empirical evidence has clearly demonstrated the prevalence of gender bias in the workplace. This includes during hiring and selection decisions, yet the mechanisms by which gender biases occur are not well understood (Stainback et al., 2010). This study expands the literature by addressing the issue of gatekeeping, a demand side explanation, in hiring decisions as a key feature in reproducing male dominance. This study found evidence of gatekeeping women out of accessing educational administration positions when gender stereotypes were activated by candidate names on otherwise identical resumes (Barzilai-Nahon, 2009; Davis & Bowers, 2019; Robinson, 2007, Roscigno et al., 2007). This suggests male dominance is negatively restricting women accessing educational administration positions (Stainback, et al., 2010). This study found women are prevented from moving through the gate (hiring) by both men and women acting as gatekeepers.
Female entry into male-dominated occupations, such as educational administration, triggers gatekeeping to maintain male advantage (Bielby & Baron, 1986; Reskin & Roos, 1990). In addition, this entry prompts gender stereotypes to be aggravated so that leadership and authority are associated with more masculinized traits (e.g., authority, strength, assertiveness) while feminized traits (e.g., nurturance, care, and warmth) are associated with teaching (Dowell & Larwin, 2013). These stereotypes may work during the hiring stage when the evaluation criteria shifts where men are evaluated based on competence and women are evaluated based on social skills (Phelan et al., 2008) leading to stereotyped decisions regarding leadership. England (1992) suggests women’s work, such as teaching, is devalued and this devaluation increases women’s covert discrimination in labor markets because the hiring criteria favors men. This leads to men being perceived as more hireable for positions of authority because of how employers rank prospective employees based on stereotypes, potential productivity, cost, and expectations of turnover (e.g., anticipated maternity leave) (Gorman & Kmec, 2009; Fernandez & Mors, 2008; Reskin, 2018, Tomaskovic-Devey, 1993).

However, discrimination isn’t exclusive during hiring and female participants also acted as gatekeepers by rating male resumes as more hirable. Women also have internalized and implicit biases. At work, women are held to more rigid standards than their male peers (Foschi, 2000) and women who are successful in accessing careers in educational administration may be perceived to be lucky instead of capable (Stainback, et al., 2010). These expectations, perceptions, and the aforementioned stereotypes can also be held by women on hiring committees and may explain why both male and female participants rated male resumes higher than female resumes for hireability. By better understanding the mechanisms by which discrimination occurs, such as gatekeeping, educational administration research into how
stereotypes may also play a role in hiring decisions and how gatekeeping itself may work to reproduce stereotyped beliefs through in-group preferences and male dominance can expand the literature and connect with previous research from other fields.

Limitations

Sample Demographics

After distributing the survey to over 4,000 administrators, the final sample was predominantly white (97.5%). The ability and extent to which racially minoritized populations access executive positions in educational administration is crucial for racial justice and important to study. Additional research is needed to better understand and expand the literature on race and gatekeeping mechanisms in educational administration. Future research designs can and should be more racially comprehensive, inclusive, and participatory while being cognizant of and interrupting unpaid emotional labor and tokenism.

Power

The small sample size resulted in low statistical power making it more challenge to detect statistical significance. Moreover, the high and low distinctions for the quality of the resumes were either too small or too large and a measurement error occurred. This measurement error is unlikely because while the resume level was effective at triggering consistent responses from the participants, the contents of the resumes had also been evaluated during an expert check during the development stage of the resumes by five educational administration experts.

Future Directions and Implications for Practice
These findings set the stage for future research to more comprehensively study access to educational administration careers. Future research should examine how and to what extent race, ethnicity, language, sexual orientation, gender expression, class, and gender identity interact with this access. In practice, these findings can help to increase accessibility and transparency in hiring, onboarding, and retention through organizational protocols and policies.

Additionally, this study adapted established methodologies to the context of educational administration to research gatekeeping mechanisms. Further research is needed examining the how gatekeepers perpetuate, internalize, justify, and disrupt gatekeeping as a mechanism maintaining white, male, and white male dominance in educational administration and particularly in the superintendency. Educational researchers should consider researching the fit of methodologies used to explore sex segregation and gatekeeping in educational administration. Current methods include observations, interviews, focus groups, case studies, reporting descriptive data, regression analyses, discrete-time hazard modeling, and alluvial diagrams. Studying the existence of and mechanisms involved in accessing administration is crucial as would be future research examining the field’s current methodology to measure such mechanisms.

Methodologies generally missing from the literature include meta-analyses, social network analyses, and hierarchical analyses. Additionally, there is a lack of validated instruments to measure these disparities. Future work should also consider the implications of programmer biases in online application systems especially regarding validated pre-screening questionnaires and the potential incorporation of machine learning into the application process. Finally, research to date has been typified by its geography and more comparative research is warranted.
Future research is needed with a more robust sample to determine to what extent the effect of employer level of employment on hiring is regional or more widespread. Recent scholarship found men are assigned to principalship positions at the secondary level while women are assigned to principal positions at the elementary level which results in pay and prestige disparities (Bailes & Guthrey, 2020). Gender stratification between elementary and secondary principalships and its impacts on equitable career pathways and authority gaps is not well understood however there is an emerging literature. Evidence from this study indicates that hiring committee members’ jobs are an important factor in hiring decisions.

In practice, these findings can help to increase accessibility and transparency in hiring, onboarding, and retention through organizational protocols and policies. Fiske (2002) identified education, increasing economic opportunity, and positive contact with a variety of groups as effective tactics to reduce both unconscious and conscious bias” (p. 46). Bailes & Guthery (2020) suggest several actions to increase diversity in educational leadership. First, they recommend matching assistant principals with principals who have already successfully trained and promoted diverse assistant principals and for an increased value placed on assistant principal mentoring. Another recommendation is for states and school districts to audit licensure assessments and requirements to identify whether these are disproportionately biased against women and candidates of color (Bailes & Guthrey, 2020).
References


Digest of Education Statistics (2019). Retrieved from


Appendix A: Resumes

LISA

Phone: [Redacted]

EDUCATION

Ph.D. The University of Kansas, Educational Administration
Licensure: Building Leadership
Licensure: District Leadership
May 2012

M.Ed. The University of Kansas, Educational Administration
May 1995

B.A. University of Missouri, Education
Minored in Mathematics
Certification: Secondary teaching
Graduated Summa Cum Laude
May 1983

CORE COMPETENCIES
Change agent, honest, successful, experience, strength, community, visionary, and leadership

SELECTED ACHIEVEMENTS
- Regional Board Representative: Kansas Association of Secondary School Principals Association
- Secured funding for a 1:1 laptop initiative
- Increased the graduation rate
- Implemented a successful student mental health outreach program
- Participated in hiring committees for faculty and staff

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE: EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

High School
Principal
- Supervised school and personnel operations
- Implemented curricular and assessment standards
- Prepared and coordinated school budget
- Reported to, assisted, and collaborated with district leadership
- Worked with community leaders and parents to coordinate school-community collaboration through events and extracurricular opportunities
- Secured grant funding for and implemented online learning and flipped classroom initiatives
- Successfully increased graduation rates
- Implemented new efforts to increase teacher retention
- Observed and evaluated certified staff

High School
Principal
- Supervised school and personnel operations
- Assigned teaching and class schedules
- Implemented curricular and assessment standards
- Prepared and coordinated school budget
- Reported to, assisted, and collaborated with district leadership
- Addressed community and parental concerns
- Developed a 1:1 laptop initiative
- Facilitated an increase in graduation rates
- Implemented new efforts to increase teacher retention
- Observed and evaluated certified staff
High School
Assistant Principal
- Reported to and assisted the Principal
- Coordinated school transportation for curricular and extracurricular needs
- Ordered supplies and managed school maintenance
- Collaborated with teachers to develop curriculum
- Observed and evaluated teachers
- Met with parents and guardians
- Secured funding for a student mental health initiative
- Increased Advanced Placement participation

High School
Math Department Chair & Math Teacher
- Collaborated with math content teachers and facilitated coordinated curricular efforts
- Worked with administration to achieve student learning and assessment standards
- Lead classroom activities including developing lesson plans, instruction, assessment, and implementing IEPs and BIPs
- Sponsored the Math Club

High School
Math Teacher
- Lead classroom activities including developing lesson plans, instruction, assessment, and implementing IEPs and BIPs
- Secured funding for students to participate in a computer learning initiative
- Developed curriculum and instructional efforts in collaboration with colleagues
- Sponsored Skills USA

High School
Math Tutor
- Developed and implemented instructional and assessment plans for students with learning disabilities
- Collaborated with peers to develop coordinated instructional and assessment efforts across content areas

Professional Affiliations
- National Association of Secondary School Principals
  - Member
- Kansas Association of Secondary School Principals (KASSP)
  - Regional Board Representative, Member

Community Service
- Rotary International, 2005-Present
  - Board of Directors, Member
- Big Brothers/Big Sisters, 1989-1993
- Teaching Abroad, 1982
- Math Tutor, 1980-1984
- Kappa Delta Pi (Education Honors Society)
  - Member
MICHAEL

Phone:

EDUCATION

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PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE: EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

High School

Principal

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www.manaraa.com
LISA

Phone: 

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PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE: EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

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High School

Assistant Principal
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High School
Math Tutor
• Developed and implemented instructional and assessment plans for students with learning disabilities
• Collaborated with peers to develop coordinated instructional and assessment efforts across content areas

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Michael

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B.A.  University of Missouri, Education  May 1983
Minored in Mathematics
Certification: Secondary teaching
Graduated Cum Laude

Core Competencies
Change agent, instructional leader, manager, honest, successful, and experience

Selected Achievements
- Regional Board Representative: Kansas Association of Secondary School Principals Association
- Secured funding for a 1:1 laptop initiative
- Increased the graduation rate
- Implemented a successful student mental health outreach program
- Participated in hiring committees for faculty and staff

Professional Experience: Educational Administration

Principal
- Supervised school and personnel operations
- Assigned teaching and class schedules
- Implemented curricular and assessment standards
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- Reported to, assisted, and collaborated with district leadership
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  - Board of Directors, Member
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- Math Tutor, 1980-1984
- Kappa Delta Pi (Education Honors Society)
  - Member
LISA

PHONE NUMBER

EDUCATION

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Licensure: District Leadership

M.Ed. The University of Kansas, Educational Administration

May 2012

B.A. University of Missouri, Education
Minored in Mathematics
Certification: Secondary teaching
Graduated Summa Cum Laude

May 1995

May 1983

CORE COMPETENCIES

Change agent, instructional leader, manager, honest, successful, experience

SELECTED ACHIEVEMENTS

• Regional Board Representative: Kansas School Superintendents’ Association
• Regional Board Representative: Kansas Association of Secondary School Principals Association
• Secured funding for a 1:1 laptop initiative
• Increased the graduation rate
• Implemented a successful student mental health outreach program
• Participated in hiring committees for faculty and staff

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE: EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Superintendent

School District

• Collaborated with the School Board, district administrators, school leadership, faculty, and staff to develop and implement a district plan focused on student achievement, college readiness, district budgeting, community partnerships, and funding
• Supervised hiring and managed district- and school-level administrators
• Applied for and received federal and state grants to support innovative curricular programs
• Developed new, district-wide college readiness initiatives
• Worked with school leaders, district personnel, and the School Board to best manage and implement the district’s budget
• Assisted the School Board in setting the property tax rates
• Met MSIP guidelines for ACT, Advanced Placement, and Career Education courses
School District

Superintendent
• Worked with the School Board and district administration to best support faculty, staff, students, and community
• Supervised hiring and managed district- and school-level administrators
• Developed and implemented a plan for the district: increase college readiness, increase student graduation and Advanced Placement participation, and increase teacher retention
• Managed the district budget
• Coordinated student achievement and evaluation with the School Board
• Received federal and state grants to support extracurricular activities
• Assisted the School Board in setting the property tax rates
• Met MSIP guidelines for ACT, Advanced Placement, and Career Education courses

Assistant Superintendent of School District
• Supported the Superintendent in implementing district plans and operations
• Secured grant funding to enhance classroom technology across the district
• Facilitated coordinated curricular efforts
• Exceeded state requirements for student learning and achievement
• Recruited school leadership staff members
• Assisted the Superintendent and School Board in setting the property tax rates
• Met MSIP guidelines for ACT, Advanced Placement, and Career Education courses

High School
Principal
• Supervised school and personnel operations
• Assigned teaching and class schedules
• Implemented curricular and assessment standards
• Prepared and coordinated school budget
• Reported to, assisted, and collaborated with district leadership
• Addressed community and parental concerns and opportunities for growth
• Developed a 1:1 laptop initiative
• Facilitated an increase in graduation rates
• Implemented new efforts to increase teacher retention
• Observed and evaluated certified staff

Assistant Principal
• Reported to and assisted the Principal
• Coordinated school transportation for curricular and extracurricular needs
• Ordered supplies and managed school maintenance
• Collaborated with teachers to develop curriculum
• Observed and evaluated teachers
• Met with parents and guardians
• Secured funding for a student mental health initiative
• Increased Advanced Placement participation
High School
Math Department Chair & Math Teacher
- Collaborated with math content teachers and oversaw coordinated curricular efforts
- Worked with administration in achieving student learning and assessment standards
- Lead classroom activities including developing lesson plans, instruction, assessment, and implementing IEPs and BIPs
- Sponsored the Math Club

Math Teacher
- Lead classroom activities including developing lesson plans, instruction, assessment, and implementing IEPs and BIPs
- Secured funding for students to participate in a computer learning initiative
- Developed curriculum and instructional efforts in collaboration with colleagues
- Sponsored Skills USA

High School
Math Tutor
- Developed and implemented instructional and assessment plans for students with learning disabilities
- Collaborated with peers to develop coordinated instructional and assessment efforts across content areas

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS
- The School Superintendents Association (AASA)
  - Member
- Association for Supervision and Curriculum and Development (ASCD)
  - Member
- Kansas School Superintendents’ Association
  - Regional Board Member, Member
- National Association of Secondary School Principals
  - Member
- Kansas Association of Secondary School Principals (KASSP)
  - Regional Board Representative, Member
- Chamber of Commerce
  - Member

COMMUNITY SERVICE
- Rotary International, 2005-Present
  - Board of Directors, Member
- Big Brothers/Big Sisters, 1989-1993
- Teaching Abroad, 1982
- Math Tutor, 1980-1984
- Kappa Delta Pi (Education Honors Society)
  - Member
Michael

Phone: [Redacted] Mailing Address: [Redacted]

Education

Ph.D. The University of Kansas, Educational Administration Licensure: Building Leadership Licensure: District Leadership May 2012

M.Ed. The University of Kansas, Educational Administration May 1995

B.A. University of Missouri, Education Minored in Mathematics Certification: Secondary teaching Graduated Summa Cum Laude May 1983

Core Competencies
Change agent, instructional leader, manager, honest, successful, experience

Selected Achievements

- Regional Board Representative: Kansas School Superintendents’ Association
- Regional Board Representative: Kansas Association of Secondary School Principals Association
- Secured funding for a 1:1 laptop initiative
- Increased the graduation rate
- Implemented a successful student mental health outreach program
- Participated in hiring committees for faculty and staff

Professional Experience: Educational Administration

Superintendent

- Collaborated with the School Board, district administrators, school leadership, faculty, and staff to develop and implement a district plan focused on student achievement, college readiness, district budgeting, community partnerships, and funding
- Supervised hiring and managed district- and school-level administrators
- Applied for and received federal and state grants to support innovative curricular programs
- Developed new, district-wide college readiness initiatives
- Worked with school leaders, district personnel, and the School Board to best manage and implement the district’s budget
- Assisted the School Board in setting the property tax rates
- Met MSIP guidelines for ACT, Advanced Placement, and Career Education courses
Superintendent

- Worked with the School Board and district administration to best support faculty, staff, students, and community
- Supervised hiring and managed district- and school-level administrators
- Developed and implemented a plan for the district: increase college readiness, increase student graduation and Advanced Placement participation, and increase teacher retention
- Managed the district budget
- Coordinated student achievement and evaluation with the School Board
- Received federal and state grants to support extracurricular activities
- Assisted the School Board in setting the property tax rates
- Met MSIP guidelines for ACT, Advanced Placement, and Career Education courses

Assistant Superintendent

- Supported the Superintendent in implementing district plans and operations
- Secured grant funding to enhance classroom technology across the district
- Facilitated coordinated curricular efforts
- Exceeded state requirements for student learning and achievement
- Recruited school leadership staff members
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- Participated in hiring committees for faculty and staff

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE: EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

[Redacted] School District

Superintendent

- Worked with the School Board and district administration to best support faculty, staff, students, and the community
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Appendix B: Recruitment Email

Dear Colleagues,

As an educational leader, we are excited to invite you to participate in a brief survey. Your responses will provide insights about statewide patterns of employment and skills in educational administration. We hope you might consider supporting this effort by offering your input on this topic. We will use the feedback gathered from the survey to help guide discussions and inform future efforts. All survey responses are anonymous and the survey typically takes seven minutes to complete. Please consider taking a moment to offer your thoughts through the survey. Also, feel free to forward to this invitation to any colleagues you feel may be interested in participating.

Thank you for your voice and support.

Complete the survey now:

[Link]

If you have any questions, please contact Katy Merriweather at merriweather@ku.edu.
Appendix C: Consent Statement

Skills for Educational Administration

The Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies at the University of Kansas supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. The following information is provided for you to decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You may refuse to participate in this study by clicking ‘I do not agree’ below or simply exiting the application. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time. If you do withdraw from this study, it will not affect your relationship with this unit, the services it may provide to you, or the University of Kansas. The purpose of this study is to better understand the skills of educational administrators.

You will be asked to respond to a series of items. The survey will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. There are no risks anticipated with participating in this study. Participants who so choose may enter their email address to participate in a drawing for a gift card at the end of the survey. The participant’s email will not be associated with their survey responses and their survey responses will be kept anonymous and confidential. Participants will not receive financial compensation for their participation in this study. Your name will not be associated in any publication or presentation with the information collected about you or with the research findings from this study.

You are not required to agree to this Consent and Authorization form and you may refuse to do so without affecting your right to any services you are receiving or may receive from the University of Kansas or to participate in any programs or events of the University of Kansas.
However, if you do not agree, you cannot participate in this study. You may withdraw your consent to participate in this study at any time. You also have the right to cancel your permission to use and disclose further information collected about you, in writing, at any time, by sending your request to: Katherine Merriweather, rockchalkskills2019@gmail.com.

Questions should be directed to:

Katherine
Merriweather
Principal Investigator

Educational Leadership and Policy
Studies 1617 St. Andrews Dr.

University of
Kansas Lawrence,
KS 66047

Argun Saatcioglu,
PhD Faculty
Supervisor

Educational Leadership and Policy
Studies Joseph R. Pearson Hall

University of Kansas1122 West Campus
Rd Lawrence, KS 66045
If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant you may contact the Human Subjects Committee Lawrence Campus (HSCL) office at (785) 864-7429 or (785) 864-7385, write the Human Subjects Committee Lawrence Campus (HSCL), University of Kansas, 2385 Irving Hill Road, Lawrence, Kansas 66045-7568, or email irb@ku.edu.
Appendix D: Survey

Consent

Consent Statement (Appendix C)

☐ I AGREE
☐ I DO NOT AGREE

Page Break
Start of Block: Demographic Information (Part 1)

Please provide the following information about yourself.

What is the highest level of education you have achieved?

○ Bachelor's Degree
○ Master's Degree
○ Ph.D.
○ Ed.D.
○ Another ________________________________

What is the name of the institution where you received your undergraduate degree?

________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

Gender:
________________________________________________________________

Racial/ethnic identification:

☐ Asian
☐ African American
☐ Hispanic or Latino/a
☐ Multiracial
☐ White
☐ Another ________________________________
☐ Prefer Not To Respond

What is your marital status?

☐ Currently married
☐ Separated
☐ Divorced
☐ Widowed
☐ Never married

Number of children/dependents:
☐ 0
☐ 1
☐ 2
☐ 3
☐ 4+  

Have you ever served on active duty in the U.S. Armed Forces, Reserves, or National Guard?
☐ Never served in the military
☐ Now on active duty
☐ On active duty in the past, but not now

Current or most recent state in which you have worked:
▼ AL ... VI

Do you now or have you ever had the following:
☐ Teacher licensure
☐ Building-level administrative licensure
☐ District-level administrative licensure
☐ None/Other/Not applicable ________________________________________________

What is your current or most recent job title?
☐ Assistant Principal
☐ Principal
☐ District Administrator ________________________________
☑ Assistant Superintendent
☐ Superintendent
☐ Another

How many years have you been in your current or most recent position?
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

How many years have you professionally been in education?
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

How many years have you been in any administrative role?
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

Approximately how many students are enrolled in your current or most recent school district?
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

Page Break
Start of Block: Resume Items

On the next page, you will be presented with a resume that details a candidate's educational background, professional experience, professional affiliations, and community service. You will be asked questions about this candidate. You will have access to the resume the entire time you are responding to the questions.
Assume you are evaluating this candidate for an open position.

Note: You can access the resume in either the PDF viewer below or by opening it with the link below. These options are to allow you to access the resume in two different ways.

Given the information from the resume, what is the highest position you think this person is qualified for?

- Superintendent
- Assistant Superintendent
- District Administrator
- Principal
- Assistant Principal

If you had to choose one of the following starting salary ranges for the applicant, what would it be?

- Under $50,000
- $50,000-$74,999
- $75,000-$99,999
- $100,000-$124,999
- $125,000-$149,999
- $150,000-$174,999
- $175,000-$199,999
- Over $200,000

How do you think most people would rate this candidate in terms of the characteristics listed below?

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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Strong

Please respond to the following items.
Not at all

Did the candidate strike you as competent?
How likely is it that the applicant has all of the necessary skills for this job?
How qualified do you think the applicant is?
How much did you like the candidate?
Would you characterize the candidate as someone you want to get to know better?
Would the applicant fit in well with other administrators?
How likely do you think the applicant was actually hired for the job he/she applied for?

If you encountered this applicant at your own institution, how likely would you be to...
Not at all

Very much
Encourage the applicant to stay in the field if he/she was considering changing careers?

Encourage the applicant to continue to focus on administration if he/she was considering switching focus to teaching?

Give the applicant extra help if he/she was having trouble?

---

**Start of Block: Demographic Items (Part 2)**

Would you consider your current or most recent school district to be...

- [ ] Urban
- [ ] Rural
- [ ] Suburban
- [ ] Another ________________________________________________

What is the type of your current or most recent school or school district?

- [ ] Public
- [ ] Private
- [ ] Charter
Approximately how many hours do you spend each week in your current (or most recent) position?

- 1-39
- 40
- 41-59
- 60+

On a weekly basis, does your workday extend beyond normal school hours (e.g., evenings, weekends)?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes

Have you ever relocated to accept a job or promotion?

- Yes
- No
- Another ____________________________

Have you left the profession or are you retired?

- Yes. If yes, what year did you leave?
  ______________________________________________________
- No

How did you hear about this survey?

- Newsletter
- Email
- Professional organization
- Social Media
- Friend, family, colleague