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The Intersection of Gender and Ethnicity and Traditional American-Ethos Type International School Leadership Positions

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ABSTRACT

This research aimed to look at the intersectional relationship between leadership positions and gender, leadership positions and ethnicity, and leadership positions and gender and ethnicity in traditional American-ethos international schools. The research surveyed international school leaders, which included Heads of School, Principals, and Directors of Studies in the different regional councils and associations of international schools whose memberships include traditional American-ethos international schools. A total of 267 participants responded to the survey. The quantitative data of the study provided information about gender, ethnicity, and gender and ethnicity of the different leadership positions. Additionally, the quantitative and qualitative study design sections of this research provided the discrete categories of gender, ethnicity and leadership positions and whether these identities helped or hindered participants in obtaining a leadership position in international schools. The research showed that there is both a lack of ethnic diversity in leadership roles in this type of international school and that there is also an underrepresentation of women in the Head of School position. Because there is limited research in the area of international school leadership in terms of gender and ethnicity, this research drew mainly from studies at the national level in the US and UK. The study used Critical Race Theory and the Intersectionality Theory framework and approach as the foundation to recognize the intersections of leadership roles with other dimensions of social identity in terms of oppression and discrimination.

Declaration of authenticity for doctoral theses

I hereby declare that this thesis, submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, contains no material previously published or written in any medium by another person, except where appropriate reference has been made.

Chapters

Chapter 1: Introduction

When I graduated from university in 1993, my friends and I were ready to begin an adventure to teach English overseas. We heard from former classmates from previous years that English institutes in Japan were always looking for teachers. Because I had not had the chance to study abroad while I was in university, I was thrilled about prospect of living in Japan, especially learning another language and culture and still being with my friends from university. We wrote our cover letters and created our curricula vitae and sent them out to all the same recruiting agencies and institutions; we had the hope of being accepted to the same one so we could be placed in the same city, extending our friendship longer, just as we had planned.

The application process had a profound impact on me. To say that I was surprised would be an understatement. I had a degree from the same university; some might argue that my degree in linguistics was more suited to teach English than my friends' degrees in sociology and history. My application was treated as if I was not on the same playing field as my friends. This experience was a rude awakening and has left a painful scar on me to this day. My friends received many invitations for interviews and all got job offers. They eventually left for Japan. On the other hand, I did not even receive any acknowledgement that any of these institutions had ever received my application. I was devastated and did not understand what had happened.

It was beyond my comprehension that I could not even get one interview until one of my friends bluntly said to me, "It's because you're Asian. They want a White person to teach them English." I followed up with the recruiting agencies and asked for more details about my application. Their confirmation was another blow to my already damaged self-image. Because it was a recruitment agency in the US, they could not turn away any applications due to anti-discrimination laws. The agencies also encouraged everyone to apply; however, from their placement record, Caucasian White-looking applicants with western names generally received job offers. The applicants whose names did not sound English, such as Asian or Hispanic names, had difficulty in securing jobs. The institutes in Japan would not accept me or others of non-caucasian backgrounds as a native speakers of English. Unfortunately, their narrow view of who is a native speaker of English did not include any Hispanic or Asian people because it went against dominant discourse that existed in Japan.

Naively, I had thought just the opposite would be true: that being a person of Asian descent might have given me an advantage over others. Although I came from a completely different culture, I had thought that being Asian would have given me a little more insight than those from other cultures. In the end, I felt hurt and completely

outraged at being discriminated against and marginalized by people of the same ethnicity.

As a result of my experience, I decided not to pursue working overseas and stayed in the United States to teach and gain some teaching experience. When I entered in the field of education in the mid-nineties in Southern California in the United States, I did not think about the gender or ethnic diversity of the faculty because it did not appear to be an issue where I was growing up. I was a 20-something young graduate and teacher, ready to embark in my teaching career.

When I began my teaching career, even though California is a very diverse place in terms of ethnicity, in the school where I worked, most of my colleagues were Caucasian Americans, including my administrators. While there were also a few African Americans, a few Hispanics Americans; there was only one other Asian American teacher in the school. When I moved to Washington, D.C., it was the first time I noticed a much more diverse teaching population-even my administrators were ethic minorities. When I moved overseas to work at my first international school that the demographics in leadership shifted dramatically back to the majority of Caucasians, in other words, European descent teachers and leaders. In 2005, when I moved into my first leadership position as an assistant principal at a school in Mexico and began to attend leadership conferences and recruiting fairs, I began to notice that I was one the few ethnic minorities in the room.

Since Mexico, I have worked as a principal in the UK, Spain, India and currently, in China. I became increasingly aware of the discrepancy and lack thereof in the diversity of gender and ethnicity at international school conferences and recruiting fairs. In the past 10 years, through observations, I have noticed a small increase in the number of women and minorities in international school leadership positions. However, it has been noticeable that White men of European descent dominate the leadership positions in international schools, followed by White women. After these two categories, I found it more difficult to determin whether other minorities would come close to the former two categories. Since I had no concrete data to back this information up, it propelled my interest to research this phenonenon, leading to my doctoral dissertation research on gender and ethnicity of leaders in international schools.

As an Asian male in a leadership role at an international school, I was motivated to identify the lack of gender and ethnic diversity of leaders in international schools. I found the topic intriguing as it was personal to me. When I started out in my career back in the mid-nineties, I faced immediate racism from Asia. Ironically, I faced this racism

in Asia, but not in the U.S. I did not have trouble securing a teaching job in both California and Washington, D.C. After entering my leadership career in international schools, I experienced that my ethnicity has hindered me in the recruitment process while I interviewed for some leadership positions. However, having been successful in many positions, I believed that my experience, rather than my ethnicity, stood out on my curriculum vitae.

While I was motivated to look at the diversity of ethnicities in international schools, I was equally motivated to identify the lack of women in leadership roles as well. The struggle for minorities to secure leadership roles was similar to the struggle of women in obtaining leadership roles in schools. The underrepresentation of both women and minorities should be highlighted and discussed. As of today, I have found only one other study that had investigated gender in international schools.

There is a major lacuna in literature and research in the area of gender and there does not exist any research regarding the ethnicity of international school leaders. The only study that existed for both teachers and administrators in international schools was conducted a little over 20 years ago in 1997. The Statistical Survey of the European Council of International school (ECIS) data provided the gender of both teachers and senior administrators: "The survey showed that women accounted for 66% of all full- and part-time teaching posts and, of a total of 1,242 senior administrators, 43% were women. However, only 20% women held the most senior position in a school - that of Director/Head" (Thearle, 1997, p. 113).

The data provided only showed data about gender and not of ethnicity and only from one international council of international schools. The lack of research in this area for the past 25 years is why it is important to highlight the need for more data and information with regards to gender and ethnicity. Up until now, there has been no other research conducted on international school leaders.

Because there is a gap in research and literature, the aim of this research is to quantify the gender and ethnicity of people with leadership roles in international schools. Therefore, I developed these questions to gather the data:
- What is the intersectional relationship between leadership positions and gender, leadership positions and ethnicity, leadership positions and gender and ethnicity in international schools?
- To what extent does gender, ethnicity and both gender and ethnicity intersect with international school leadership positions?

The secondary aim of the research is to look answer the question: How diverse is the role of leadership in international schools in terms of gender and ethnicities? Using the data, in the findings below, I will identify whether or not diversity exists within international school leadership roles.

As I engage in this research, I am aware that I am of the privileged male gender. However, juxtaposed to the privileged gender, I represent an Asian person, an underrepresented ethnicity in leadership roles in international schools.

The foundation for this research comes from Critical Race Theory (CRT) and Intersectionality Theory.

Critical Race Theory sees race as a social construct; however, the objective of CRT aims to deconstruct the social construction and perception of race. Additionally, there will also be a discussion between race versus ethnicity and why I chose to examine ethnicity over race for this research.

The theoretical framework for this research is derived from Intersectionality Theory. The origin and the development of intersectionality as a theoretical framework has been linked back to Black feminist responses to the disadvantage model and recognizes that the starting point of the theory extends to the intersections of gender with other dimensions of social identity (Crenshaw, 2005). Therefore, the study examines the intersection of gender and ethnicities and where there are disadvantages with regards to leadership roles. "A fundamental assumption in every influential theoretical formulation of intersectionality is that intersectional identities are defined in relation to one another" (Shields, 2008, p. 302-3). In this case, how gender, ethnicities and leadership roles are interconnected with each other.

Intersectionality, an analytic approach that simultaneously considers the effects of multiple categories of social group membership, such as gender and ethnicities, takes place at multiple levels (Crenshaw, 1995). Intersectionality is often investigated by classifying research participants in terms of identity positions defined by multiple dimensions. It adjusts to the various research and discursive protocols in these environmental contexts by changing how gender, ethnicity and other social dynamics are conceptualized and connected, and, at the same time, "how the central subjects and social categories of intersectionality are identified" (Cho, Crenshaw, and McCall, 2013, p.792).

"Intersectionality has, since the beginning, been posed more as a nodal point than as a closed system—a gathering place for open-ended investigations of the overlapping and conflicting dynamics of race, gender, class, sexuality, nation, and other inequalities" (Cho et al., 2013, p.788). Thus, as Cho et al. (2013) suggests, the study should be an open investigation of the ethnicity and gender of leaders in international schools and these categories may be overlapping and conflicting.

In the literature review below, I have found it alarming that in the field of education where there are more women in teaching positions, more men hold the leadership roles. Additionally, there are very few ethnic minorities in leadership roles as well. The data from my research will show whether these areas hold true in international schools. There exists very limited data in the area of international schools. Therefore, the research investigates the literature review of the data of the US, UK and other English-speaking countries in terms of gender and ethnicity and leadership positions. While the literature review explores and highlights any gap in current literature, the purpose of the quantitative and qualitative research is to investigate the number of women and ethnic minorities in leadership roles in international schools.

The research examines leadership positions in the international schools, particularly looking at gender, ethnicity and both gender and ethnicity in the leadership roles and exposes the number that currently exists during this research. The research follows-up with another survey to ask whether these two areas helped or hindered the participants' attainment of their leadership position. Below, I will discuss the data that has come out of this research and explain whether or not a trend exists and whether it confirms my observations over the past 10 years.

Research Purpose

There are two folds in the purpose of this research. First, the underrepresentation of both women and minorities should be acknowledged, highlighted and discussed. Second, those in the position of hiring, such as heads of schools and board of directors should become more aware and should actively recruit both women and minorities to lead their schools and diversify their leadership teams.

One of the goals is to bring the voices of minorities and women into the dominant discourse in current society because

> *"the suppression of the ideas of African-American women in research and epistemological knowledge construction . . . undermines the economic, political, and social vitalization within the Black woman's world" (Bloom and Erlandson,*

2003, p. 341). Furthermore, the lack of voices from Asian American community, especially women in educational leadership is concern because the absence of these stories supports the gendered and racialized discourses of Asian women in the United States' mainstream culture (Perez, 2003). Eventually, one goal is disarm a system that continues to perpetuate a system that refuses to acknowledge the concerns of minorities and one that fails to provide access and equity to those who aspire to leadership, regardless of gender or ethnicity" (Liang and Peters-Hawkins, 2017, p. 42).

The audience of this dissertation is at all educators, those looking to pursue leadership roles and those in the position to recruit. My concern is that most of those in the position to recruit would be White men so why should they do anything that does not benefit them? The power is actually in their hands and power is at the center of this topic. "Power issues resulting from a deficit perspective is evidenced when females receive the message that even though they are excellent educators, coordinators and principals, they are unable to fit in the capacity of superintendents, as a male-dominated position" (Muñoz, Pankake, Ramalho, Mills, and Simonsson, 2014, p. 765).

In collecting the data, I sent an online survey to international school leaders in international schools in listservs and regional mailing lists. For the scope and purpose of this research, leadership positions included Heads of School/Directors of School, Principals and Directors of Studies/Curriculum/Teaching and Learning. Then a followed-up survey was sent to volunteers. The rationale for the methodology and methods will be further explain in its respective chapters below.

Chapter 6 will discuss the data analysis and findings of the various intersections of gender, ethnicity and leadership positions. The final chapters will include conclusions, recommendations and contributions to the field as this is only study that includes a number of leaders in terms of gender and ethinicies in international school. This research does not claim to be exhaustive or quantitative to draw consistent conclusions because the data is limited to only international school leaders, but rather it starts an investigation and provides insights into this area of research while identifying possibilities for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Context of International Schools

> *"So what are international schools? Are they an enlightened set of institutions with a vision of global peace and an ideology based on promoting internationally-minded values among their students? Are they essentially private institutions whose main aspiration is a business-focused profit margin? Or are they rather organisations that have responded to the growing demands of a global socio-economic elite: members of what has been referred to as the transnational capitalist class for whom the imperative to maintain a competitive edge in the labour market leads to a desire for their offspring to obtain globally recognised qualifications"* (Lowe, 2000, p. 24-5).

In addressing the questions stated above, Hayden answers, "In truth there is no simple answer; because for each of these the answer is yes – in some cases" (2006, p. 20). It is not the purpose of this dissertation to define what is or what makes an international school. However, because the research will be focused on leaders who work in international schools, a selection must be determined.

For the purpose of this study, international schools are defined as schools that have taken membership in regional councils and assocations of international and overseas school organizations. The majority of these schools are traditional American-ethos type international schools, which generally have a K-12 curriculum with American and international standards.

These schools belong to the following regional councils and associations of international schools. The following information about each organization and about its member schools comes from each organization's website. The formation of these organizations is to connect American and international schools in different regional locations and to collaborate and provide professional development opportunities to "improve upon the quality of teaching and learning" (https://www.aassa.com/page.cfm?p=349). While stated slightly differently on each of their websites, they offer their membership to American style internatonal schools with an American curriculum taught in English in an international setting.

AASSA: Association of American Schools in South America offers membership to "private, college preparatory institutions offering a predominantly American curriculum taught in English." (https://www.aassa.com/page.cfm?p=371)

CEESA: Central and Eastern European Schools Association states that "full membership is open to American style International Schools" which operate within the Central and Eastern European region. (https://www.ceesa.org/about-ceesa/membership.html)

EARCOS: East Asia Regional Council of Overseas Schools is open "to elementary and secondary schools in East Asia which offer an educational program using English as the primary language of instruction, and to other organizations, institutions, and individuals interested in the objectives and purposes of the Council." (https://www.earcos.org/about.php)

ECIS: Educational (*formerly European Counncil*) Collaborative for International Schools offers its membership top "international and internationally-minded schools spanning the world, teaching multiple curricula in English and in multiple languages." (https://www.ecis.org/who-we-are/about-ecis/)

MAIS: Mediterranean Association of International Schools' membership is "available for schools, colleges, businesses and interested individuals and organizations worldwide." (https://www.mais-web.org/)

NESA: Near East South Asia Council of Overseas Schools has criteria for its membership which are slightly differently from other orgnizations; NESA requires schools to be "an elementary or secondary school or school system" and to be "acrredited by a NESA recognized acrrediting agency. (NB: for the purposes of eligibility for membership statues, NESA recognizesthe following accreditation agencies: Council of International Schools, Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools, New England Association of Schools and Colleges)." (https://www.nesacenter.org/how-to-join/member-schools)

Furthermore, the International Schools Consultancy (ISC) organization has been conducting and collecting data on international schools that are k-12 English-medium schools since 1994. According to them,

> "ISC Research includes an international school if the school delivers a curriculum to any combination of pre-school, primary or secondary students, wholly or partly in English outside an English-speaking country. or; If a school is in a country where English is one of the official languages, it offers an English-medium curriculum other than the country's national curriculum and the school is international in its orientation" (https://www.iscresearch.com).

"Using the ISC (2015) definition, the number of schools considered to be International Schools rose from 1,700 in April 2000 to 3,876 in July 2006 (Brummitt, 2007), to 6,717 in January 2012 (Brummitt & Keeling, 2013) and to 7,017 in 2014 (ICEF Monitor, 2014)" (Bunnell, Fertig and James, 2016, p. 411). As per the data, the number of international schools quadrupled in about 14 years. Combined with the regional councils

and associations of international schools' membership requirement and the definition from ISC, all the schools in this research are aligned with a definition of international school. Thus, for the remainder of the research, the term international school will be used, referring to these traditional American-ethos type of international schools.

Bunnell, Fertig and James (2016) further explained that these interational schools fall into three different categories: Type A Traditional International Schools that have been established to education a cultural mix of children for the children of mobile parents who have been posted overseas. Type B Ideological International Schools are those committed to educate for global peace, which are identified by Bunnell (2013) "as 'pioneer' schools, have a unique ideological form of international internationalism (Leach, 1969). At the heart of this typology is the notion of international mindedness" (p. 410). Type C International Schools are those establised to enroll students from the local population. The schools in this research fall into all three categories.

There is still a large number of schools around the world that are missing in this set of data. The data will show intersections of gender, ethnicities and leadership positions from different councils of international schools. The data is limited to those who responded and represent a cross section of gender and ethnicity of those who hold leadership position in international schools.

For selfish reasons as an Asian male leader myself, I was interested in finding more developed data, accurate and current data in international schools. Additionally, I want to use the data to highlight the data for heads of schools and board members in hope that they will keep the data in mind when it comes to recruitment season every year.

Gender, Ethnicity, and Leadership Positions

For the purpose of this research, leadership includes the following positions: Head of School, Primary or Elementary Principal, Kindergarten to Grade 8 Principal, Middle School Principal, Secondary School Principal, High School Principal, and Director of Teaching and Learning/Curriculum/Studies. While the research could include other leadership positions such as Assistant Principals, Deputy Heads of Schools and Director of Technology, I have decided not to include them because these positions do not consistently exist in all international schools. Therefore, I have included positions that are consistently represented in the schools.

The Type C International Schools that have been estabblised to enroll students from the local population can have a different structure of leadership. Some of these schools have

what is known as 'co-principalship,' where there is one 'western' principal and one local (Chinese) principal such as the Yew Chung Interntational School (YCIS) model of co-principalship (Bunnell, 2008). This raises more questions regarding their definition of 'western', whether they mean 'white' or do they mean western raised and educated. Would someone like me, who is of Asian descent, raised and educated in the United States and completing my doctorate in the UK, fall under their definition of 'western' or do they really mean a 'white' person?

With regards to my survey, I do not know whether these local Chinese principals took the survey. The o-principalship model exists; however, I do not know whether this particular co-principalship model of one local and one 'western' exists in other interational schools. If so, there would be more ethnic minority principals in the data set from Latino, African, Asian and Arab descents.

Thearle's research in 1997 only reported data on the senior administrators, including the most senior position in a school, that of Head of School or Director. The research provided a significant data set at the time in terms of gender. Since then, no other research has been conducted to illustrate the progress of women in these leadership roles. Therefore, I have extended and expanded the research to revisit gender and even further expanded it to include ethnicity of people in leadership positions and have divided these roles into different positions, including the data of gender and ethnicities for each position.

Additionally, this section provides a brief background on the top position in a school, which is the superintendent in the United States, also know as Director or Head of School in international schools. The literature review of this portion of the research revealed limited information regarding women in superintendent roles. Approximately 25 years ago, Montenegro (1993) provided one of the few data points in this area in the United States. Female superintendents represented only a single digit of seven percent in all of the school districts in the United States. This number showed an abysmal representation and was completely disproportionate compared to the general teaching population, where women represented 51 percent, and at the same time, 83 percent of teachers were women in elementary schools (Shakeshaft, 1999). These numbers showed an alarming underrepresentation of women in leadership roles and a lopsidedness of gender representation in schools. About ten years later, in 2000, approximately 13 percent of the school districts in the United States were run by female superintendents (Glass, Björk, and Brunner, 2000) and up to 18 percent nationwide in 2005 (Grogan and Brunner, 2005). There was an upward positive trend because the number of women in school leadership roles more than doubled from 1993 to 2005. However, if we were to

look at this from the male gender perspective, the data showed that 82 percent of superintendents were men. However, in Hyle's research (2008), in the United States, although there has been affirmative action legislation, and much feminist research and scholarship since the 1960s, "women remain underrepresented in educational leadership, and men remain overrepresented" (p. 2). More precisely, Glass et al. (2000) estimated that:

> *"During this same time period, there were approximately 2,164,000 public school teachers in the United States. Of these, 553,984 (25.6 percent) were men and 1,610,016 (74.4 percent) were women (NCES [National Center for Education Statistics], 1997). . . . [Thus,] the odds of a male teacher becoming superintendent are one in [43]; for a female teacher, the odds are one in [825]. In other words, men are [approximately 20] times more likely than women to advance to the superintendency from teaching"* (Skrla, 1999, p. 3).

In researching the data from other English-speaking countries, I found similar figures. Coleman (2005) found that the number in principal roles was much lower even though most teachers were women in both primary and secondary schools in England. For example, in 1997, only 26 percent of secondary principals was women while 52 percent of the teaching force was women. Five years later in 2002, out of a teaching force that was 55 percent women, only 31 percent of secondary principals were women. Coleman (2005) also found these disproportionate figures in a number of studies: New Zealand, Canada, and the United States. This obviously shows an imbalance of gender representation at the highest level of leadership in the United States and other English-speaking countries.

Furthermore, Grogan (2005) wanted to rule out the argument that women were not interested in the role. She found that 40 percent of those women in the central office in the research want to pursue the superintendent role and want to emphasize that there was interest. While 40 percent of her research participants were interested in pursuing superintendency, only 18 percent nationwide were elected or chosen to fill the coveted position. "However, until there is a more equitable distribution of women in the highest levels of educational leadership, we are sending a message that says women's leadership is still not much valued" (p. 26). Grogan (2005) further suggested that scholars need to devote more time in researching and writing about women in leadership in order to bring the attention of the power imbalance of this issue.

To address the imbalance between women and men in the highest position of educational leadership, Grogan (2005) argues:

> *"(1) state and federal agencies and foundations must fund more research on the topic; (2) women and men researchers need to take the topic more seriously and bring renewed critical perspectives and energy to it; (3) women in positions of leadership must talk about the joy they derive from their work; (4) women and men in positions of power in educational systems must deliberately mentor more women and especially more women of color; (5) pre-service women teachers must be directed towards leadership as a way to remain close to teaching and learning; (6) women leaders must talk about and think creatively with other women of ways to couple family responsibilities with administration; (7) compensation for superintendents must increase to attract the highly qualified women central office administrators who are already relatively well paid; and (8) gender power differentials in educational administration must be acknowledged"* (Grogan, 2005, p. 27).

This is certainly a comprehensive list, which will require a number of stakeholders to make a dramatic paradigm shift in order to balance genders in leadership positions. To start, it requires the state and federal agencies to do their part to fund research in this area. This suggests that the regional councils of international school would need to fund research to conduct research and collect data for international schools. At the same time, the responsibility falls on both men and women to pursue this topic further. As a male colleague in a leadership position, I would argue that men have more of the responsibility of highlighting and emphasizing this topic. At the moment, male voices, in particular White male voices are the dominant group; therefore, they (we) must do their (our) part in balancing the power.

Lessons from the United States

It is worthwhile to examine the data for principalship before the historic 1954 case of Brown vs. Board of Education in the United States because the data is eye opening. Before the Brown vs. Board of Education decision, which decided that schools could no longer be segregated, African Americans represented a larger number in the principal roles. It made sense that before the historic decision, as schools were segregated, African American students attended schools led by African American principals. Before the Brown case, "the Black principal represented the Black community; was regarded as the authority on educational, social, and economic issues; and was responsible for establishing the all-Black school as the cultural symbol of the Black community" (Tillman, 2004, p. 102). Unfortunately, after the historic decision, a high number of African American principals lost their positions (Brown, 2005). According to Brown, "African American principals in segregated schools were the ones in greater jeopardy of losing their positions during integration. In the 3-year period from 1967-1970 the

number of Black principals in North Carolina diminished by 75%, from 670 to 170, in Alabama by 84% from 250 to 40, and in Louisiana from 1966 to 1971 the number of Black principals declined by 29% from 512 to 363" (Brown, 2005, p. 586). All of a sudden, because there were "White" students in the schools, African American principals could not lead the school as if their qualification were only suited for African American students. These numbers are disturbing because while the Brown decision allowed schools to integrate based on race, the school districts, managed by White superintendents and policy makers, felt that African Americans were no longer qualified or fit to lead schools that were integrated.

Furthermore, as a result of the dramatic drop in the number of African American principals, "Black principals were often denied the opportunity and authority to act on behalf of Black children in the implementation of desegregation" (Tillman, 2004, p. 103). While many viewed that decision as a positive move for society, one might argue the decision may have done more harm to African American students than it did to help them because African American students had fewer African American role models in educational leadership positions. Further research shows that black and Latino principals and school leaders represent effective role models for minority students (Tillman, 2004). The role model figure in students' lives is significant for the development of their identity and future aspirations (Sanchez, Thornton, and Usinger, 2008). Seeing someone in a leadership who is similar to them allows students to see themselves in these roles in the future. It shows that they can have access to them as well. This could be extended and applied to international schools as well. There are students in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Middle East that do not have role models who look like them in these international schools. Schools needs to consider having leaders who might represent a good role model for their student population in different regions of the world.

Recent figures indicate that the demographics of U.S. schools also changed dramatically. The percentage of students who belong to an ethnic minority group almost doubled in about 30 years from 22 percent in 1972 to 43 percent in 2006 in public schools across the United States. As a result of the increase in minority students, it impacted the percentage White students, which decreased from 78 percent to 57 percent of the number of students enrolled (Sanchez et al., 2009). While the number of minorities of different ethnicities increased in the student population, the number of minority principals did not follow the same pattern.

According to the National Center for Educational Statistics in 2002, only 11 percent of all school principals in the United States were African Americans and the number

remained unchanged in 2003-2004. From the perspective of creating a pipeline for future ethnic minority principals, the low number of principals of African American and other ethnicities can be connected to and caused by the following factors: shortages of African American teachers and teachers of other ethnicities, thus, fewer would enter future leadership positions; a lack of mentoring of these teachers for principal positions; recruitment of diversity into school administrator programs; and the appointment of ethnically diverse leaders (Foster, 2004). In the same school year, only

> *"5.3 percent were Hispanic. The remaining ethnic groups had less than one percent of American Indian/Alaska Native, Asian, multiple races, and Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, with the percentage of principals within each group lowering, respectively. Additionally, in nearly half of the states in the nation, 90 percent of the principals are White"* (Sanchez et al., 2009, p. 2).

From 2003 to 2008, unfortunately, the demographics of ethnic minority principals showed some increased, but still remained very low. In the United States during the 2007–08 school year, only about 18 percent of principals were from minority backgrounds (Battle and Gruber, 2009).

In more recent data in 2013, only about 3 percent of school administrators in the US were of Asian descents, approximately 6 percent were Hispanic or Latino, and about 13 percent of education administrators were Black or African American, totaling about 22 percent who were from ethnic minority backgrounds (Department for Professional Employees, 2014). These statistics represent the most current data in the United States. While this data shows that only 22 percent were ethnic minorities, conversely, it also states that the rest of the 78 percent of the principals are white, which does not represent the student population at 43 percent from minority groups (Sanchez et al. 2009). The data also shows the lack of representation of diversity ethnicities in school leadership positions to represent and support the diverse student population.

The policies to develop an equality of leadership is complex and complicated because we need to view the education system as a whole rather than one part or one category to address the issue. For example, Quezada and Louque (2004) further argue that this change needs to be addressed in several areas. They suggest to start with the university faculty level where professors, in particular in the education department, do not reflect its student population:

"In 1997, Whites made up 84% of full-time faculty positions, while Asian Americans made up approximately 5.5%, African Americans 4.9%, Hispanics, 2.6 %, and Native Americans .4 percent (National Center for Education Statistics, 2000.) Nationally, approximately 90% of all university professors in public and private colleges are White (Colby and Foote, 1995). In the California State University system, where over 22, 814 faculty are employed, 76% of tenure-track faculty are White, 13 % Asian, 7% Latino, 4% African American and .6% Native American (California Research Bureau, 2002). The percent of White faculty on each campus is higher than the percent of the White population in the respective counties they serve" (p. 214).

In the early years of the 2000s, the diversity of the California State University (CSU) faculty did not reflect that of the student population. In 2001, students who identified "White" represented about 39 percent of the entire CSU student population and about 61 percent represented other ethnic groups (www.calstate.edu). However, the CSU faculty continued to hire Whites, which represented 70 percent of its new faculty hires (Muzslay, 2003). Quezada and Louque (2004) further emphasized the need for and presence of faculty of different ethnicities because they serve as role models, advisors, and faculty leaders, linking back to the research of Sanchez et al. in 2008. Students of different ethnicities assume that when faculty from wide a spectrum of ethnicities is present; the program is demonstrating some level of commitment to equity and diversity issues.

Another area of change that is needed is the enrollment of prospective, ethnically diverse principal candidates in educational preparation programs. This area must become a high priority for universities. "The lack of minorities in educational preparation programs is parallel to the educational struggles that racial and ethnic groups have historically endured (Sanchez et al., 2008, p. 2). Fewer minority students in the educational programs will lead to fewer students in educational leadership programs, which will create a pipeline issue, meaning that there will be fewer ethnic minority candidates for leadership positions in the future.

Even more alarming is the fact that "little research has been conducted about women of color in both positions, and even when studies are done, because women of colour in leadership positions are rare, very few voices are heard" (Grogan, 2005, p. 24). In 1995, Lomotey reported that African American women faced barriers in the system as they aspire and pursue to be administrators because they found that neither their districts nor their schools promote or recruit them for training programs in the educational administration field. The number of African American women in pre-K–12 educational leadership positions, while still small, has steadily increased over the years; however, the increase remained still small compared to the numbers of White men, White women, and African American men (Tillman, 2004).

The research that has come out in the UK showed similar trends in data. "Even with the directive from the European Union in 2006 which requires all forms of discrimination (age, disability, race, sex, religious affiliation or belief and sexual orientation) to be illegal in the workplace, racism and sexism continued to be an issue" (Davidson, Powney, Wilson, Hall, and Mirza, 2005, p. 312). Of the 2158 survey respondents in the Davidson et al. study, 25 percent of them saw ethnicity as very/somewhat important in teachers' promotion prospects. However, "60% of respondents (230 out of 384) from minority ethnic groups regarded ethnicity as being of some importance in promotion. Indeed, 41% of this group (153 out of 384) believed it had had a negative influence on their careers" (Davidson et al., 2005, p. 319). Further research shows that only 9 percent of ethnic minority males and 4 percent of ethnic minority females held senior management positions (Davidson et al., 2005). The low number of ethnic minority leaders supports the findings that ethnicity is a hindrance in obtaining a leadership position.

A review of the literature review from the U.S. indicates that the both women and ethnic minorities are underrepresented in schools. With the combination of being female and an ethnic minority, the rate of underrepresentation is even greater. Thus, in looking at the intersectionality of school leadership, questions arise about the relationship of the intersections of gender, ethnicity and leadership roles in international schools whether the underrepresentation also exists in international schools.

The only data for both teachers and administrators that came out from international schools was published a little over 20 years ago in 1997. The Statistical Survey of the European Council of International school (ECIS) data provided the gender of both teachers and senior administrators: "The survey showed that women accounted for 66% of all full- and part-time teaching posts and, of a total of 1,242 senior administrators, 43% were women. However, only 20% women held the most senior position in a school - that of Director/Head" (Thearle, 1997, p. 113). The data provided only showed gender, not the ethnicity of staff members from one international council of international schools. The lack of research in this area is why it is important to highlight the need for more data and information with regards to gender and ethnicity. Up until now, there has been no other data conducted regarding gender, ethnicity, and international school leaders.

Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework

Why use ethnicity instead of race? Race versus Ethnicity

The research certainly has the potential to encompass many different categories; however, in order to keep the research manageable, I have limited the categories to gender and ethnicity with the intersection of leadership positions. The controversy in looking at diversity is the racism that is implicated with the topic; thus, I will be looking at Critical Race Theory in order to provide background for this controversy.

Critical Race Theory

Critical Race Theory (CRT) is the study of the relationship between race, racism, and the power in its paradigm, with the goal to transform the dominant discourse. On the contrary to many other academic theories, CRT carries an activist purpose. The goals of CRT are to understand the current social situation, examine its current trends and seek to change it. Understanding the dominant discourse is straight-forward; society tends to be organized in the dominant discourse with regards to racial lines and hierarchies. Additionally, for the better, CRT also aspires to reshape power dynamics, structures, and institutional racism which are ubiquitous in society (Delgado and Stefancic, 2001). The theory challenges researchers to partake in activism for social change; indeed, I am hoping to make a change and increase the number of women and non-European descent leaders in international schools. Additionally, CRT challenges the traditional theories by questioning the norm in order to come up with changes from the political level to the classroom. While originally well-intended with ideas of equality, CRT encourages academic scholars to look past these intentions; however, CRT "suggests that we should examine the everyday practices, patterns of inequality, and results of real-life struggles for racial justice" (Su, 2007, p. 532).

The activist purpose of this theory inspired me to explore the current social situation in international schools and to highlight the number of women and ethnic minorities in the leadership roles. Then with the findings from the data, I aspire to change the current recruitment practices in order to transform the current dominant discourse.

In exploring the different theories for this dissertation, the research on Critical Race Theory and education accentuates the role of education in assisting minorities to express different counter-narratives against the dominant discourse. The selection of this theory for this dissertation is because since its inception, CRT has called for action, and Su (2007) suggests that education is one of the means to achieve it. Therefore, my counter-

narrative comes from one individual's experience and perspective; however, my hope is that the results of this research calls to action those with the power to hire when they engage in their leadership searches to include gender and ethnic diversity.

According to Delgado and Stefancic (1994, 2001), to fully understand CRT, one should know and understand its basic tenets. Primarily, CRT views racism as part of one's daily life and it not considered an anomaly; it is ordinary. They consider it to be a common experience of most people of color in the United States and minorities around the world. The dominant group maintains racial boundaries by limiting access to its dominant group in order to maintain status and power. Thus, racism looks natural to people belonging to the dominant group, including the oppressed group, because racism is an entrenched feature in society. Therefore, subordinate groups challenge the overall classification system and the resources and rewards that come along with it (Saperstein, Penner and Light, 2013). Secondly, "'White-over-color' ascendancy serves important purposes via the notion of interest convergence" (Delgado and Stefancic, 2001, p. 37). As the expectation for most anti-racist reforms occur in small incremental steps, changes are not expected to happen immediately and rapidly. Some theorists might also argue that only when changes benefit the elites of the dominant group, will they occur. Finally, the knowledge component of CRT, the "social construction" premise, claims that the idea of race is product of the thoughts and perceptions of society. Delgado and Stefancic (2000) state that race is:

> *"Not objective, inherent, or fixed, they correspond to no biological or genetic reality; rather, races are categories that society invents, manipulates, or retires when convenient. People with common origins share certain physical traits, of course, such as skin color, physique, and hair texture. But these constitute only an extremely small portion of their genetic endowment, are dwarfed by that which we have in common, and have little or nothing to do with distinctly human, higher-order traits, such as personality, intelligence, and moral behavior. That society frequently chooses to ignore these scientific facts, creates races, and endows them with pseudo-permanent characteristics is of great interest to critical race theory"* (Delgado and Stefancic, 2000, p. 7-8).

"'Whiteness' is a racial discourse, whereas the category 'White people' represents a socially constructed identity, usually based on skin color" (Leonardo, 2002, p. 31). While researchers, such as Leonardo and Delgado and Stefancic recognize there are differences in different races in terms of our biological and physical make-up, they argue that these differences do not constitute any differences in intelligence, personality and moral behavior. Ansley (1997) highlights that the social construction of race and identity supports an economical, cultural and political system in which the dominant White group control resources and power in western societies. Thus, the social construction of

race and identity has given Whites privileges over non-Whites, creating the inequality of treatment of people of color.

While Ansley refers to the control of power and material resources, Omi and Winant (1994, 2008) extend beyond to categorize and refer to the control of power and material resources as racial projects and define them as "simultaneously an interpretation, representation, or explanation of racial dynamics, and an effort to reorganize and redistribute resources along particular racial lines" (p. 56). This definition captures and refers to racial projects, ranging from mass actions or comprehensive legislation that affect a large number of people to speech acts or experiences of prejudice or discrimination that affect someone on a personal level. When institutions, whether they are in economic, political or social realms, distribute resources along racial lines, they categorize individuals into different races. The experience of discrimination and prejudice a racial subject faces shape both the social and psychic structure of race and racism. The connection between the definition of race and the racial social structure are continuous and ingrained; however, at the same time, they are unstable and create dissension between groups and within groups (Omi and Winant, 2008).

Discrimination and prejudice at the individual level may frustrate a person on the surface of injustice. At the same time, others may never face it, thus, creating dissension among people in the same group and between groups, whether that is gender, ethnicity or both. While discrimination and prejudice experiences cannot be taken away from individuals, focusing at the individual level does not resolve the issues of injustice. By providing data for different groups, the conversation moves to focusing on a third point, the data, rather than experiences of individuals. How can we use the data to change injustice at the larger systemic level of recruitment to have more balance of gender and ethnicities of leaders in international schools?

In the scientific realm, other than the physical attributes of race such as hair, skin color, and eye color, scientists have refuted that race is considered to be a legitimate biological concept, yet race is continued to be used to marginalize people in the political discourse and still remains to be a powerful construct and signifier in our society (Morrison, 1992):

"Race has become metaphorical - a way of referring to and disguising forces, events, classes, and expressions of social decay and economic division far more threatening to the body politic than biological 'race' ever was.
Expensively kept, economically unsound, a spurious and useless political asset in election campaigns, racism is as healthy today as it was during the Enlightenment. It seems that it has a utility far beyond economy, beyond the sequestering of classes from one another, and has assumed a metaphorical life so completely embedded in daily discourse that it is perhaps more necessary and more on display than ever before" (p. 63).

While Morrison made this statement more than 20 years ago, it still applies to politics and other fields, such as education, today. One strong example is the school funding in the yearly federal budget in the United States. CRT argues the inequality that exists in school funding is a function of structural and institutional racism (Ladson-Billings, 1998). Another example is modifying the formula for national funding in a way that would guarantee equal funding, resources and properties that are adequate for all communities across the board, especially for poor communities of color (Su, 2007). In reviewing education dogma, scholars suggest that CRT would be valuable in expressing the ways in which small incremental restructuring often hinders and even presents anti-racist social change.

These wider educational inequalities might not be directly related to my area of research of international school leadership. However, while funding, resources, and properties are at the heart of public education, human resources is at the heart of international education; thus, it must be taken into consideration. Human resources is responsible for recruiting and hiring teachers and school leaders. Ultimately, the final decision for recruiting school leaders boils down to the board of directors and heads of school. However, the human resources department is the first line of recruitment in terms of scanning and vetting viable candidates. Without conquering and breaking the first line of recruitment, candidates would not have the opportunity to be in front of hiring committees. It is absolutely necessary to examine these inequalities from all aspects and perspectives.

Unfortunately, one of the critiques of CRT is the argument that the theory has been critiquing the ubiquitous and continued racism in public education rather than focusing on advancing towards finding potential remedies for this inequality (Su, 2007). Racism keeps people of color in a vicious cycle - one generation unable to qualify for advancement in education, secure employment, or qualify for mortgages, thus, generates a cyclical low achievement in education in the coming generations, leading to continued unemployment and underemployment, and a lack of adequate of housing. Ironically, people of color, specifically African Americans, can live their lives without

facing a single act of racism against them; however, many suffer the consequence of systemic and structural racism that exist in society (Ladson-Billings, 1998). There are scholars who argue that CRT holds fundamentally negative views (Rosen, 1996); however, CRT scholars counter-argue and respond that they have had solutions that have helped this issue to move forward (Su, 2007). For example, by revealing the concealed aspects of racism, CRT aspires to uncover White privilege "in its various permutations" (Ladson-Billings, 1999, p. 12) and expose a social order along racial lines that is very much sectioned off, based on skin color. By uncovering and unveiling, CRT hopes that racism, which is an eternal feature in the social, educational and political continuum, will be exposed (Lopez, 2003). Racism is a component so ingrained in society that we do not see it in our daily lives, how it occurs and forms our relationships and institutions to which we belong, and the way we think. While I do not claim that racism exists in the recruitment of international school leaders, I hope that by revealing the data, institutions will rethink their recruitment practices—namely that ethnicity and gender do play a role in the recruitment process. In examining the data, one might question why there is such a disparity in the results of high number of European descent leaders and low number of Non-European descent leaders in international schools. It is the vicious cycle that perpetuates European descent leaders to hire European descent leaders; thus, those from the non-dominant group cannot break the cycle and obtain a leadership role. It takes the dominant group to change the current discourse.

Whether conscious or unconscious, the concepts of White entitlement and superiority are global; thus, the relationship between the dominant group, Whites, and subordinate group, non-Whites, is a regular proliferation that continues to comes across many institutions, organizations and social settings (Ansley, 1997) and in this particular case, in international schools. The most treacherous and possibly the most powerful facets of Whiteness are that the people who belong to this dominant group lack the awareness of their own Whiteness as a social construct and neither are they aware of their own role in maintaining the inequities that Whiteness implies (Gillborn, 2005). Therefore, the social construction derives from and also reinforces privileges and power that are still prevalent today. The goal is how to raise awareness so that the dominant group sees its privileges and the inequities that exist and work along with the non-dominant group to equalize this social injustice. For example, when someone from the dominant group faces this inequity themselves, it is be difficult to digest because they might be experiencing it for the first time, while those who are in the non-dominant might have faced it before and may navigate the injustice better. If people from the dominant group could come to the realization that these types of injustice happen on a consistent basis on a systematic level for non-dominant group members, then we would be moving closer to a more just society.

The physical attributes and characteristics of an individual and the superficial differences determine no differences in human beings; however, the social construction of race continues to play the most powerful role in interpretation of race, giving one race privileges and power over another, purely based on the physical differences. Some critical race theorists may disagree and argue that discussions about race and racism would perhaps divide the different groups. On the other hand, others might argue that developing and telling counter-narratives would show members of different racial groups how race is socially constructed and hope that each group, especially the dominant group, will challenge and undertake the issues of race (Su, 2007). The goal of this research is to provide the current data and counter narrative to take on the inequity of leadership gender and ethnic representation in international schools.

CRT recognizes that people see race and racism as normal and part of everyday life. Currently, racism has become "invisible," meaning that it is so ingrained in our daily lives that some people no longer see it. Individuals also begin to think that it is simply a misbehavior or an attitude of some people or a thing of the past. Unfortunately, racism is rarely seen as occurrences that happen in our daily lives on a systematic level (Lopez, 2003). This is where the root of racism lies, on a systemic level that is overlooked in our daily lives. One main insight of CRT is that it considers race as a social construction by people and society. People of color face racism as a result of the social constructs. CRT's activist dimension wants to change the way people view race, which people currently see it as a physical attribute; however, CRT sees race as a social construct and it aims to deconstruct the social construction and perception of race.

Race versus Ethnicity

As a result of the controversy discussed previously with Critical Race Theory, I decided to pursue the term ethnicity rather than race because ethnicity is a category of people who identify with each other based on common ancestral, social, cultural or national experience. Additionally, ethnic identity is shared by individuals connected by relationship or kinship in terms of culture, religion, geography, language, and practices (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, and Renn, 2010). According to Koster (2013), ethnicity normally encompasses objective identifications such as country of origin, nationality, and language, and subjective evaluations like ethnic identity and group awareness. The research examines how people identify themselves, rather than by a social construct of race that categorizes people. Furthermore, race is a contentious issue because its lack clarity and definition.

For example, under the guidelines of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) in the United States, the definition of race remains unclear:

> *"The EEOC defines White, black, and Asian based on origins in the "original peoples" from specific geographical areas, but defines Hispanic based on culture or origin with no reference to "original peoples," and adds a tribal identification prong to the American Indian classification. White, black, and Asian/Pacific Islander, therefore, are racial classifications based solely on ancestry, Hispanic is a racial classification based on Spanish culture or national origin regardless of ancestry (i.e. race), and American Indian/Alaska native is a racial classification based on ancestry and tribe affiliation. In short, racial definition seems to vary with the group being defined"* (Wright, 1995, p. 7-8).

With such a definition, the term 'race' remains contentious. The law provides an inconsistent definition of race and no logical way to distinguish members of different races from one another, particularly as the world consists more and more of multiracial individuals; thus, continuing to use race negates those individuals. Unfortunately, the meaning and use of the concept of race are variable historically and contingent upon political, economic, cultural and social practices (Omi and Winant, 1994).

The terms *ethnicity* and *race* are often used interchangeably, thus, causing confusion. "Even though the term ethnicity was originally proposed to refute the notion of essential biological differences between social groups it has now come to assume and is often used to imply (both in everyday and scientific settings) exactly those essentialist connotations which it was originally meant to do away with" (Zagefka, 2009, p.232). In a span of 20 years apart, Schermerhorn (1978) and Cornell and Hartmann (1998) defined ethnicity as a collective with putative common ancestry that shares cultural practices, symbols and norms, including values, religion and language. Researchers claim that ethnicity is group-defined and voluntaristic because they argue that selecting an ethnic group is a self-conscious decision. Therefore, one's ethnicity is a self-determined status while race is imposed externally and is an ascribed status (Cornell and Hartmann, 1998).

Reicher and Hopkins (2001) argue that 'voluntary ethnicity' may not be an option because ethnic self-definition is restricted by its limited societal definitions and constrained by perceptions of others and because others are unlikely to accept very radical definitions and changes of ethnicity. Zagefka (2009) further argues that ethnicity is not grounded in biological differences because it is socially constructed and although the possibilities for ethnic categories are malleable and can be changed, they are limited by already existing constructions (Zagefka, 2009, p. 230-31). "This position is supported by genetics research which consistently finds that genetic variations within ethnic

groups are much larger than variations between groups" (Zagefka, 2009, p.230). This is further supported by Eller (1999) that "any amount of cultural difference is enough to build an ethnic group on, but no amount is enough to ensure that an ethnic group is built on it. Ethnicity is, ultimately, a construction, like all other forms of social and cultural life" (p.48).

While both race and ethnicity are socially constructed, scientists and journal editors have advocated the use of ethnicity over race because they see that ethnicity does not carry problematic history of scientific racism and biological reductionism (Schwartz, 2001). According to the American Sociological Association, "race" refers to physical differences that groups and cultures consider socially significant, while "ethnicity" refers to shared culture, such as language, ancestry, practices, and beliefs. Scholars "argue that ethnicity as a concept more fully or accurately captures the environmental, cultural, behavioral, or socio-political experiences" (Lee, 2009, p. 1184). Therefore, I have decided to used ethnicity because it refers to shared attributes, which are more inclusive, rather than race, which focuses on the physical differences, which are more exclusive.

Zagefka (2009) suggests that unless we take into account the existence of identity choice and the subjective meanings of identity categories of ethnicity, the data of researchers will remain very difficult to interpret in meaningful ways in order to move this issue forward. She also suggests that we allow "participants to self-identify, rather than to assign them to predetermined ethnic labels, should be the norm. While this might already be practiced by many researchers, it is certainly not practiced by all" (p.239). She further suggests that "self- identification items should be designed in such a way that they allow choosing categories which were not provided by the researcher" (p.239). While I agree with the suggestion, allowing participants to select categories not provided by the researcher would be difficult as it would be too opened ended and comparison of data would be nearly impossible. Therefore, this dissertation focuses on individuals self-identifying their own ethnicity from five pre-selected ethnicities. Individuals have the liberty of self-identification, especially when one identifies with more than one ethnicity, and they do not have to feel locked into one category.

However, "sociologist Catherine Harnois cautioned against using race/ethnicity in quantitative research as something that can be 'controlled for' in a vacuum (Harnois, 2009), rather than in relationship to an issue" (Nielsen, 2011, p. 10). In examining the intersection of leadership with gender and ethnicity, the data will show the relationship correlation between the different categories of gender and ethnicity, rather than the differences in each category. Nielsen (2011) further suggests that "to be truly intersectional, both method and theory must push beyond discrete categories to

examine portrayals of identity in a way that is more accurate and offers a more critical-cultural richness" (p. 7). This research investigates the ancestral self-identification of participants, removing race as a category; therefore, it eliminates any political association with this lexicon. I want to avoid categorizing minority men, minority women and women into non-dominant race categories, which can be misguided and inaccurate (Crenshaw, 1994). The data will either support the imbalance or balance in gender and lack of diversity of ethnicities in international school leaders.

In order to provide context of how I am, as the researcher, a male of Asian descent, view race, here are my personal thoughts. I view race as fluid because race is not always at the forefront of my thought when I see people. I see race when I see it out of context of the dominant discourse. For example, because people of white European descents are the majority in the United States, as an Asian male from a Vietnamese background, Asians are categorized as minorities. Thus, when, as an Asian person who is a mintority in my society, my Asian background stands at the forefront of my thought and others as well because people see the difference of the two.

However, when I travel back to Viet Nam where the dominant race is Asian, I do not view myself as Asian because I am what I am part of in the dominant race. My gender stands out more than my race. When a person of European descent is in Viet Nam, Vietnamese people would see their "whiteness". The same occurs where I currently work in Shanghai, China. While I am a foreinger in China, because of my Asian background, Chinese people do not see my race of Asian as I blend in with the dominant race. They see me as one of them. Only when they speak to me in Mandarin do they see me as 'other.' A person of European descent cannot claim the same anonymity in China, whereas they might be able to in many western countries. Race is fluid as it depends on the context in which a person finds themselves at a particular moment in time.

Intersectionality Theory

The origins of the intersectionality framework stem from the work of feminist scholars of color when they recognized that oppression and discrimination exist with the intersections of gender with other dimensions of social identity (Crenshaw, 1994/2005; Shields, 2008). These categories are not separate essentialist categories because they are connected and interdependent. It would be difficult to explain injustices through one category of oppression of one individual. Being of the same gender, women may face the same issues; however, women of color face completely different issues of social inequality and injustice that their White counterparts may not face any of it at all, thus, giving rise to the intersections of gender with social identity. The theory was introduced

in the legal and humanities studies in order to understand societal oppression and discrimination faced by subordinated groups of people (Syed, 2010). "The theoretical foundation for intersectionality grew from study of the production and reproduction of inequalities, dominance, and oppression" (Shields, 2008, p.302). Fortunately, the theory has crossed over to other domains to examine intersectionality beyond oppression and injustice in today's time.

In the context of the social and anti-discrimination movement in the early 80s, researchers introduced intersectionality theory as a new vocabulary to draw attention to and highlight the differences and sameness in identities. Intersectionality played an instrument role in considering the identities of ethnicity, gender, and different axes of power across academic disciplines and in political discussions because it examines the two concepts of differences and sameness (Cho, et al., 2013). While intersectionality is used to understand differences, it is also used to highlight less obvious similarities (Cole, 2008). Intersectionality further examines the conflict and the overlap between similarities and differences in terms of identities, such as ethnicity and gender because injustice related to these are distinctly different. Thus, intersectionality simultaneously examines multiple modes of oppression, social inequality and injustice and at the same time it "gets to the heart of identity, both self-identity and how individuals see others" (Nielsen, 2011, p. 9). Given the research, the need for individual participants to have choice in self-identifying via selecting their ethnicity should be taken into consideration as I create the survey.

Originally, the intersectionality approach was used to analyze interconnections of oppression and highlight the exclusion of women from a feminist perspective, it is now widely used across other analyses of oppression and injustice that extends beyond gender, such as class, ethnicities and any other exclusions. After its origins in the early 1980s, researchers use the term intersectionality to "draw attention to the interconnections, interdependence and 'interlocking' of these categories of disadvantage" (Bastia, 2014, p. 238). Levine-Rasky (2011) further states that the framework of intersectionality is intertwined and it is impossible to separate these identities and thus, emphasizes that the different dimensions of social identity of a person cannot be teased out into individual and single strands.

Intersectionality examines the cross-section of each person's multiple identities because identity is a complex issue and how one self-identifies differs from how others see them. For example, as a Vietnamese man, I am both a man and a person of color; therefore, the overlapping identities with which I identify do not stand alone and the injustice I face stems from both gender and minority status. In the research, participants have the

choice to self identify their gender and ethnicity and provide information whether either characteristic has helped or hindered their job prospects. The overlapping identities, such as a female and Non-European, which face hindrances in recruitment will need to identify whether one or both of her characteristics led to the injustice.

Identity "relates to awareness of self, self-image, self-reflection, and self- esteem. In contemporary American society, identity is emphasized as a quality that enables the expression of the individual's authentic sense of self" (Shields, 2008, p. 301). Many intersectionality theorists may reject this example of essentialism. Therefore, as a Vietnamese man, I belong in two different social categories in which I have either claimed membership in or through which have been associated. The intersectionality of a person's multiple social identities profoundly impacts the person's beliefs about gender and ethnicity because these naturalize and reinforce one another, and at the same time reflect that relationship of power between the different crisscrossing identity categories (Shield, 2008). Moreover, how a person identifies is not static. For example, when I am in Viet Nam visiting friends and family, I identify simply as a man, as the Vietnamese part assumed in the dominant culture; therefore, my ethnicity is not at the forefront of my identity. As Levine-Rasky (2011) suggests, identity changes and shifts in relation "to others, to culture, and to organizations in which one moves. Identity is elected and it is emergent in relation to power" (p. 242). Hence, some theorists may argue that there is no authentic self because it shifts and changes in the context of where and with whom an individual is.

As a recognition of shifts in identity of individuals, Shield (2008) suggests that identity is fluid, which can change in the context of the social environment, with whom a person is, over a period of time, and how others respond to the individual; therefore, an individual has multiple identities and there is no single identity category for any individual. Hancock (2007) concurs with Shield and thus advocates fluidity. She is "critical of approaches to the relations between multiple inequalities that stabilize the categories. Indeed, only analyses that treat categories as fluid are considered by her to truly merit the term 'intersectional'" (Walby, Armstrong, and Strid, 2012, p. 231). On the other hand, McCall (2005) argues for stabilization of macro categories because fluidity analysis of substantive matters is very difficult. I agree on purely a quantitative research level; it would be difficult to analyze data if one person were to answer one category in one section and another category in another section, creating data inconsistencies.

The intersectionality approach has mainly focused on the oppressed group and not the privileged group. Because the theory has been further developed and has been used more widely in different fields, intersectionality needs to extend beyond examining only

oppressed and discriminated individual or groups of individuals as. When looking at intersectionality as it was originally framed, it suggests that we only look at the intersection of subordination and it has not suggested that we examine those in power who benefit from social identity as well. It is important and we need to shift to examine their intersections as well. We need to understand from where the benefit is coming. In general, those in power are the ones who benefit. Where exactly does the benefit come from? Does it come from ethnicity, or gender or both? How can we make this shift in the balance of power, in a way in which to shift the benefits as well? In the conceptual framework of intersectionality, privilege and discrimination have not been disaggregated because one cannot exist without the other. Power is an integral part of intersectionality and already exists in this framework—where there is domination, there is subordination; where there is advantage, there is disadvantage. In addition to examining those who face injustices and intersectionality, there is a need to examine those who benefit from these injustices, and in some cases, to confront both positions. Hancock (2007) identified and categorized three approaches that might help us examine all intersections without an emphasis of importance:

- *"Unitary Approach: Research examines one category (often gender or race/ethnicity), giving it primacy. The category is conceptualized as "static at the individual or institutional level" and "uniform" or homogenous.*
- *Multiple Approach: Research examines more than one category, for example, race/ ethnicity and gender, but examines them separately and in relationship to one another. Categories are static and uniform, but both the individual and the institution are examined.*
- *Intersectional Approach: Research examines multiple categories equally, questioning their interrelation rather than presuming an order of importance. Categories, rather than being static, presume institutional factors affect individuals and are presumed heterogeneous"* (Hancock, 2007, p. 64).

Nielsen argues against using the Unitary Approach because it would examine "only race/ethnicity as 'difference'" and "would presume 'Whiteness' as normative, and would presume a homogenous 'other' group, creating a marginalizing binary" (Nielsen, 2011, p. 11). Nielsen further suggests that "a multiple study that examined race/ ethnicity and gender almost as if in competition with one another would fail to see how forms of exclusion multiply and could produce inaccurate results by presuming one category was most influential or explanatory" (Nielsen, 2011, p. 11). Therefore, examining the various intersections from either the Intersectional Approach or the Multiple Approach would allow researchers to understand the interrelation of the categories and the relationship between them.

Zack (2005) supports and critiques that while intersectionality has made a significant contribution to many areas, especially, the theory of identity, it needs to address both

privilege and disadvantage. "Privilege, however, does not usually feature in studies of intersectionality" (Bastia, 2014, p. 244). In order for intersectionality to be used as an inclusive framework and tool, it needs to address and confront both sides of the issues, those in the position of dominance and subordination. Intersectionality should be applied to any group, regardless if they are the beneficiary or the disadvantaged. Levine-Rasky (2011) used an example of a White woman and her contradictions of intersectionality of both the privilege she receives in terms of her Whiteness (racism) and the discrimination she faces in terms of her gender (sexism). Intersectionality cannot examine her Whiteness and not examine her gender because these two identities cannot be disaggregated from one person. Cole (2008) suggests that the "social categories need to be examined beyond the characteristics of the individuals and that we should also look at institutional practices and cultures" (p. 443). As Cole suggests, I hope that in looking at the research and data of international schools, there will be a shift in the practice of recruitment of leadership positions to look beyond gender and ethnicity.

In power relations, social identities such as gender and "ethnicity will reinforce each other in some circumstances while they will contradict each other in different circumstances" (Levine-Rasky 2011, p. 244). These interconnecting identities unfold and traverse differently in different situations according to the social context of the organization and as one navigates through different cultural context.

One goal is to apply this theory to other fields and one of the objectives is to "illustrate the potential for achieving greater theoretical, methodological, substantive, and political literacy without demanding greater unity across the growing diversity of fields that constitute the study of intersectionality" (Cho et al., 2013, p.792). In this research, my goal is to use the intersectionality theory to examine how it can be used to explore the intersection of leadership with gender and ethnicity in international schools. The aspirational aspect of intersectionality is not to separate itself from other similar frameworks or theories, but to allow the theory to traverse and span into other disciplines, such as extending it to international education leadership roles. Bastia (2014) further suggests that intersectionality is "sufficiently malleable" to analyze both the privilege and disadvantage, and at the same time, it is able to include a wide spectrum of identities. The flexibility of the theory can offer a different perspective and extend to other fields without compromising its integrity. Research would produce more resources to the studies of intersectionality by casting a wider net to other areas and disciplines (Cho et al., 2013).

Intersectionality faces challenges even though it has made some progress in providing further analysis of various intersections of multiple fields. Bastia (2014) identifies areas

of challenge for intersectionality, such as: methodology, scale, structure and identity, and conceptualization of power.

One of the challenges is the lack of a clear methodology for this theory even though it relies mainly on qualitative research to give voice to oppressed individuals. Another critique is the issue of scale and scope to decide who would be deemed to be intersectional and where the intersections lie. These are ambiguous because there are many identities in intersectionality that cross a wide spectrum of individuals. Shield (2011) emphasizes the experience that individuals face cannot be compartmentalized; therefore, it is important not to disaggregate various identities. One example that Shield provided was a woman (Sotomayor) who "faced discrimination for being Latina, female, immigrant, and coming from low economic status" (p. 11). An individual with such a complex and rich background cannot be segregated and compartmentalized into individual strands of her identities. Doing so would be unjust to her multiple identities.

Additional critiques include the assumption of White men, who benefit from being White and male. This particular assumption should not be excluded, thus, the question of "what about White men?" is often ignored in research (Cho et al., 2013, p. 798). The question is linked to the doubt I had going into this search in, which is whether White men would complete the survey. If they were not "enlightened" and think about the greater good of society, why would they care to highlight the imbalance of gender and ethnicity of leadership positions in virtually all fields. This again revolves back to the critique of power, which is central to understanding intersectionality.

Intersectionality invites individuals, especially scholars, to research beyond their comfort zone. There is an urgency in the need to use intersectionality because it gets researchers to look beyond the individual perspective (Shields, 2008). Indeed, when I began this research, I was mainly interested in looking at ethnicity as I was a minority leader in international schools. I extended it to include gender because I realized that I needed to look beyond being an Asian male and the barriers I have faced because my female counterparts may face even more barriers. Walker (2003) points out that "the attempt to understand intersectionality is, in fact, an effort to see things from the worldview of others and not simply from our own unique standpoints" (p. 991). By extending beyond our individual view, we are promoting positive social change (Shields, 2008).

Syed (2010) questions "Who is included? What is the role of inequality? What are the similarities?" (P. 61). Researchers propose an integration of intersectionality theory and social identity theory to understand the intersecting and converging of social identities

across different groups in order for the research to become more pertinent and raise its importance in different contexts (Hurtado, 2003). In order to understand intersectionality, researchers need to look at the similarities and differences within groups and we cannot limit the research to analyzing similarities and differences between social identity group. By looking at difference between and within groups, it would further shed more light on the meaning of social categories (Cole, 2008).

Samuels and Ross-Sheriff (2008) pose three challenges for those who are interested in engaging with intersectionality:

> *"(a) we must avoid essentializing the added groupings or identities of race, class, sexuality;*
> *(b) we must attend to interlocking privileges as well as oppressions; and*
> *(c) we must attend to changes in context that then shift the meaning of various social identities and statuses"* (p.6).

This then provides a heuristic framework to explore and experiment with the study of intersectionality.

Shields' (2008) question of the match between research methods and research goals, in particular with a quantitative approach: "What would that look like that would not simultaneously oversimplify or disaggregate the very relational, emergent properties of identity that intersectionality theory captures?" (Shields, 2008, p. 306). This is an area I have considered. While I want to explain the intersectional relationship between the categories of ethnicity, gender, and ethnicity and gender with leadership positions, I do not want to simplify the results of the data. The purpose of this research is to explore the data to understand the balance or imbalance of gender, diversity, or lack thereof, of leaders in international schools. Might the result have discrimination issues favoring male candidates and those from European backgrounds? While this research will not look into this issue fully, I hope to make recommendations for future research.

Chapter 4: Methodology

In the literature review of the US data, there exists an underrepresentation of women and non-European ethnicities in leadership positions. The goal of this research is to analyze the intersections of the leadership positions with the following categories because the data does not exist for international schools: gender, ethnicity and gender and ethnicity.

This chapter outlines the stages undertaken to ensure a thorough examination of the goal of this research. The rationale for undertaking this inquiry is explained within each section of the stages. This inquiry has been examined through the use of empirical data gathering, executed through the use of a questionnaire via an online survey and a follow up survey of individuals who have volunteered. Each sub-section outlines how the data has been analyzed.

The aim of the research is to identify the number of men, women and various ethnicities of people in leadership roles in international schools. Therefore, I have developed these questions to gather the data:
- What is the intersectional relationship between leadership positions and gender, leadership positions and ethnicities, leadership positions and gender and ethnicity in international schools?
- To what extent does gender, ethnicity and both gender and ethnicity intersect with international school leadership positions?

The secondary aim of the research is to look at and answer the following question: How diverse is the role of leadership in international schools in terms of gender and ethnicities? Using the data, we can identify the diversity of leaders in international schools.

Following the findings of the number of men, women and various ethnicities of people in leadership roles in international schools, I followed up with an additional survey to determine whether gender and/or ethnicity has helped or hindered these respondents in securing a leadership position in international schools.

I have decided to engage in both a quantitative method with an online survey, followed by a qualitative method with a second survey with open-ended questions. The quantitative method was used to collect numerical data to analyze the number of participants who were men, women, their ethnicity and the region where they currently work. Quantitative research is explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that

are analyzed using mathematically based methods, particularly the statistical data (Aliaga and Gunderson, 2000).

Quantitative research is essentially about collecting numerical data to explain a particular phenomenon, in this case, what is the intersection between gender, ethnicities and leadership roles, which is a particular question that is suited to be answered using quantitative methods (Muijs, 2004). "The quantitative view is described as being 'realist' or sometimes 'positivist', while the worldview underlying qualitative research is viewed as being 'subjectivist'" (Muijs, 2004, p. 3). This means that realists take the view that what research does is uncover an existing reality and it is the job of the researcher to use objective research methods to uncover that truth. The truth of how many men, women who represent different ethnicities in leadership roles in international school is out there. I designed this survey to find out the existing data.

> *"Many researchers, both quantitative and qualitative (me included), take a pragmatist approach to research, using different methods depending on the research question they are trying to answer. In some cases, this will lead them to quantitative research, as, for example, when they need to give a quantitative answer to a question, need to generalise findings to a population, or are looking to test a theory mathematically; in other cases, they will employ qualitative methods. In many cases, a mixed-methods approach combining quantitative and qualitative methods will be the most appropriate"* (Muijs, 2004, p. 5-6).

Quantitative research is good at providing information in breadth, from large statistical data; however, when we want to explore a question in depth, quantitative methods tend to be too shallow. Quantitative research is also confirmatory in nature; I do not think international educators will be surprised by the results of this study. Quantitative research has the comparative advantage of being able to enumerate and predict relationships for large populations - the larger the sample of people researched, the more statistically accurate the results will be (Campbell and Holland, 2005). To understand the phenomenon further, researchers need to go for ethnographic methods, interviews, in-depth case studies and other qualitative methods (Muijs, 2004). Thus, the qualitative method of a second survey asks participants to further expand on their answers to questions related to why they thought that either gender or ethnicity or both have helped or hindered them in obtaining leadership positions in international schools.

The inductive approach of qualitative research begins with various social realities such as gender and ethnicity and seeks to draw conclusions from the collected data from the research (Jennings, 2005). In this case, the data was distilled and disaggregated by identity further by providing qualitative data from the second survey to further explain the trends in the quantitative data. "Intersectionality theory, by virtue of its description

of multidimensional nature of identity makes investigation through qualitative methods seem both natural and necessary" (Shields, 2008, p. 306). The follow up survey questions whether each category of the various identities of the individual in terms of gender, ethnicity and gender with ethnicity helped or hindered candidates in obtaining leadership positions when they were recruited by international schools. The goal of the qualitative data from the follow-up survey is to add depth and personal experiences to the quantitative data. "Research that seeks to examine intersectionality requires methods capable of focusing on the processes of multiple and simultaneous exclusion, rather than methods that examine multiple facets of identity discretely" (Nielsen, 2011, p. 6).

The purpose of analyzing the free responses of the candidates is to look for patterns in them. "The theoretical compatibility and historic links between intersectionality theory and qualitative methods imply that the method and the theory are always already necessary to one another. Intersectionality theory, by virtue of its description of multidimensional nature of identity makes investigation through qualitative methods seem both natural and necessary" (Shields, 2008, p. 306). Thus, the second survey of the qualitative data hopes to corroborate the findings and possibly for enhance the validity between the quantitative data and qualitative data by adding depth and experience to the quantitative (Denscombe, 2003).

The inductive approach of qualitative research begins with various social identities such as gender, ethnicity and position of leadership and seeks to draw conclusions from the collected data from the research (Jennings, 2005). In this case, distilling and disaggregating identity further serves to provide qualitative data to add depth to the trends in quantitative data. "Intersectionality theory, by virtue of its description of multidimensional nature of identity makes investigation through qualitative methods seem both natural and necessary" (Shields, 2008, p. 306). In the qualitative section, I questioned participants about whether each category of their various identities in terms of gender, ethnicity and gender with ethnicity has helped or hindered them in obtaining leadership positions when they have been recruited by international schools. With the qualitative data, I hope that it will add to the depth of the quantitative data. "Research that seeks to examine intersectionality requires methods capable of focusing on the processes of multiple and simultaneous exclusion, rather than methods that examine multiple facets of identity discretely" (Nielsen, 2011, p. 6). The challenge when analyzing the data will be to look at the intersection and fluidity of its categories rather than discreetly.

Shields (2008) shares that researchers in intersectionality:

> *"rely more heavily on qualitative methods because they appear to be more compatible with the theoretical language and intent of intersectionality. Most qualitative researchers have the goal of describing the forms and processes of relations among categories of phenomena and the themes and units of meaning relevant to these relations. This stance makes the qualitative researcher more open to emergent phenomena than the quantitative researcher whose work is driven by hypotheses determined a priori. Moreover, guides to qualitative research (e.g., Silverman 2001; Camic et al. 2003) encourage the investigator to choose research questions that explore constructs that are linked in language or in practice (hyphenated phenomena) in order to reveal the processes that create that linkage and the functions that it serves. This view of the work of research meshes comfortably with prevailing conceptualizations of intersecting identities in a way that conventional quantitative research strategies do not (e.g., Stoppard and McMullen 2003; White 2008). In general, feminist theory that is the most fully developed theoretical orientation to intersectionality has a more comfortable relation to qualitative than quantitative work, particularly when that quantitative work is grounded in experimental method and hypothesis testing"* (Shields, 2008, p. 306).

Shields' caution to not rely heavily on either the quantitative data or qualitative data is a valid one, which I have taken into consideration. The goal is to have the two sets of data complement and provide further depth to each other. This is particularly important as the quantitative research will not be out to test any hypothesis, upon which the quantitative method is grounded.

The purpose of using the mixed method is to provide stronger inferences and present convergent or divergent views. In general, quantitative research mainly looks at the verification of a question or theory; therefore, it is by nature confirmatory (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). With mixed methods, this research can extrapolate data from both methods to complement one another:

> *"Mixed methods research can leverage the complementary strengths and nonoverlapping weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative methods, and offer greater insights on a phenomenon that each of these methods individually cannot offer. For example, interviews, a qualitative data collection approach, can provide depth in a research inquiry by allowing researchers to gain deep insights from rich narratives, and surveys, a quantitative data collection approach, can bring breadth to a study by helping researchers gather data about different aspects of a phenomenon from many participants"* (Venkatesh, Brown, and Bala, 2013, p. 25).

Online Survey

In our current situation with the proliferation of computers at home and in the workplace, collecting data online has many advantages over paper-based data collection, including cost efficiency and more efficient generation of data (Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava, and John, 2004). The factors for using an online survey as a method are global reach, timeliness, and low administration costs (Evans and Mathur, 2005). In the attempt to reach as many leaders in international schools as possible, this is the best method possible. Many also hold jobs with high responsibilities and are very busy; thus, completing an online survey is simple, effective and requires very little time.

Online survey development instruments make it easy to download data directly into personal computers and greatly reduce the potential for data entry mistakes (Alessi and Martin, 2010). Additionally, by requiring participants to answer survey questions, this will likely reduce incomplete surveys when submitted online rather than when they are required to send paper-based responses via the mail (Diaz de Rada and Domínguez, 2015). Furthermore, online data has no errors in data entry because data can be exported and read in other formats.

There are cautions that I needed to consider by conducting the survey using an online instrument. For example, by requiring participants to answer all questions in order to submit the survey, there is perhaps a risk that some meaningless or inaccurate responses are included in the data, and participants might feel "forced" to respond to lead them to abandon the survey altogether (Handscomb, Hall, Shorter and Hoare, 2016). While I feel that the survey does not contain controversial questions, the interpretation of the questions might lead participants into feel forced to answer all questions. Therefore, participants are not required to answer all questions; They could skip questions when they feel they could not answer them. By being flexible and allowing participants to skip questions, most likely more participants would complete the survey.

Gosling et al. (2004) evaluate and discuss evidence for six preconceptions about online data collection studies:

1. The studies reduce diversity of participants (predominantly White men);
2. The studies include a preponderance of socially isolated and depressed participants;
3. The studies increase non-serious responses;
4. The studies' findings are inconsistent with paper-based methods.
5. Anonymity may affect results, such as multiple entries by the same participant); and
6. Presentation format of the survey affects the results.

While Gosling et al. (2004) find mixed reviews for the first preconceptions, this is one of my concerns, the of lack of diversity of participants; however, I would consider my concern to be the opposite of the preconception of number one above; indeed, I fear a reduced number of White men participants. Because I am investigating gender and ethnicity, I fear that White men might not answer the survey. Currently, from my observations and experience, White men dominate the leadership positions in international schools, thus, they are benefiting from their status. Why would they want to answer the survey, and what would they get from answering it? Therefore, I worry that the lack of their participation may skew the total percentages of the different intersections when compared to one another.

Four other misconceptions were found to be myths in Gosling et al.'s research and number five was found to be a fact, which means that multiple completions by the same participant may affect the results. However, with technological advances, online surveys can be setup for single responses only with unique links and allow only one survey per IP address; thereby, reducing the possibility of multiple entries from one person.

This sample of participants is a convenience sample, which is a sample of participants in research selected not for their representativeness but for their accessibility and membership to the listservs which will be used because they contain emails of international school educators. In this convenience sample, the respondents self-selected to participate in the survey. In this case, this convenience sample often cannot be used to make statistical inference about the whole population, because I am solely reaching out and emailing leaders in international schools in some of the regional councils.

One other caution came from Vu and Hoffman (2010):

> *"During an online survey, there is no interviewer to clarify unclear questions and help in retaining the respondents to the end of the survey. Online surveys can also he prone to technical problems that may discourage or prevent respondents from completing the survey. Therefore, online surveys should be designed so as to be at an optimal length (i.e. long enough to collect the required data, but concise enough so that respondents will finish the survey). They should also be checked and double-checked carefully to avoid technical problems as well as any ambiguous or overcomplicated questions for the targeted respondents"* (Vu and Hoffman, 2010, p. 57).

Because I have been in the role of leadership for the past 10 years in international schools, I have received many dissertation surveys over the years. What I learned about myself is that I tend not to answer surveys that are too long and answer surveys that do not require me to ponder in answering the questions. The simpler and more straightforward the questions, the more likely it is for me to respond to it. Thus, I have designed my survey with simple short questions with the hope that I will have more participants in the data set in order to provide the broadest spectrum of responses from around the world.

For the follow up qualitative portion of the research, I had anticipated that not many people would volunteer. Therefore, I had planned to interview a small number of participants who volunteered to followup with more in-depth questions to further expand their answers of whether gender, ethnicity or both helped or hindered them in obtaining a leadership position. Because I had received a larger than expected amount of responses (over 100 people) of volunteers and after receiving guidance from my advisor, I had decided not to interview candidates. With the decision not to interview volunteers, I intended to send out a second survey to a selected group of participants. The orginal plan for the selection process was to include one participant from each cross intersection of the various categories, such as female Asian head of school and male African high school principal. However, upon a closer inspection, there does not exist one volunteer per category of each cross intersection.

Therefore, in order to be consistent in the selection process, I have decided to survey all the volunteers to get a balanced view from both genders and all ethnicities and from those who felt that either gender or ethnicity either helped or hindered them in the recruiting process. While this might not be a case of equal balance between all intersections, this consistent method of asking all volunteers reduces any bias that might occur if I were to select the participants.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval to conduct the study was obtained from the University of Bath and Department of Education. All the participants were given the right to choose whether or not to participate in the online survey. Completion of the survey was considered as an implicit agreement to take part in the study. Furthermore, the identities of participants, such as names or names of schools were not requested. Only aggregate data was reported and participants were assured that their responses would remain confidential.

For the first part of the survey, I did not foresee possible ethical issues that would have come into this research as participants self-selected to participate in the research and self-identify their gender, ethnicity, and leadership position. They were also asked whether they wanted to be interviewed to expand upon their responses about whether they had experienced that gender and/or ethnicity had either helped or hindered them in obtaining a leadership position. However, I changed the method to a second follow up survey due to an unexpected high number of volunteers.

The second survey asks participants to further expand on their experiences when either gender or ethnicity had helped or hindered them in securing a leadership position. While the positive responses may have had a positive emotional response from the participant, I would also imagine that those who had experiences that hindered them because of gender or ethnicity might have negative responses. I might also encounter responses that might reveal sexism and/or racism. Because of these possible outcomes, I ensured that the confidentiality of all participants would be maintained and identities would be protected as I did not ask for names or log IP addresses as Denscombe suggests (2003). Should any of the data led to a participant, I will report it so as to protect the identity of the individual. I will refer to each individual based on their characteristics, such as "female of European descent middle school principal." The coded information will add depth and experience to the quantitative data. Finally, I will accept responsibility in maintaining confidentiality through the course of the research.

While conducting this research, I was very aware and conscientious of my position. The concept of positionality is the practice of a researcher intending to delineate his or her own position in relation to the research while understanding and acknowledging that said the position may influence the study. The influence could come in different forms such as in the data collection or the way in which it is interpreted (Qin, 2016). A researcher such as myself, in the field of educational leadership in international, is positioned by my leadership position, gender, ethnicity, age, and sexual identity, all of which may enable or inhibit certain research method insights in the field (Hastrup,

1992). Positionality began to emerge from critiques of unmarked researchers producing what was supposed to be value-free and impartial studies. However, we understand that the researcher's positionality influences their research, whether it is during the research process, in certain research insights during data analysis and in particular to relations with the participants (England, 2017).

 In this research, I understand that I "cannot conveniently tuck away the personal behind the professional, because fieldwork is personal" (England, 1993, p. 249). This research is personal for me because it began out of personal interest in searching for the current data in the field of international schools.

> *"An insider is a researcher or participant who works for or is a member of the participant community, while an outsider (e.g. an academic researcher) is seen as a non-member. Herr and Anderson describe six positions along a continuum:*
> 1. *Insider (researcher studies own practice)*
> 2. *Insider in collaboration with other insiders*
> 3. *Insider(s) in collaboration with outsider(s)*
> 4. *Reciprocal collaboration (equal insider and outsider teams)*
> 5. *Outsider(s) in collaboration with insider(s) (non-equivalent relationships)*
> 6. *Outsider(s) studies"* (Rowe, 2014 p. 1-2).

My positionality is as of an "insider" looking at others who are the participants similar to myself, some of the participants because they have the same gender and others because shared of ethnicity. My positionality, from the voice of an Asian male leader, shapes this research inquiry, and at the same time, hopes to make transparent the reflexivity that informs the analyses of the data. "Positionality is an important consideration in action research because it not only directly influences how the research is carried out but also determines the prevailing outcomes and results—whose voice(s) will be represented in the final reports or decisions" (Rowe, 2014, p. 5). The hope is to add voices and perspectives of other than white European male (England, 1994).

I hope to share the patterns found in the free responses and the number of those who have expressed sexism or racism. While interpreting the data, I undestand my position as an insider of the research. Thus, I need to consider my positionality in terms of my gender and ethnicity and possible bias as being an Asian male, who holds a leadership position in an international school. I need to stay focus on the data of my research question as there are many ways in looking at the data and I do not need to interpret all cross sections of the data. Participants were also allowed to skip any questions they did not feel comfortable answer. In doing so, participants did not feel forced to answer any one of them. Those of mixed ancestry ethnicities had the choice of selecting more than one ethnicity.

Chapter 5: Method

First Survey

For the research, I used an online survey sent to current school leaders, who work in international schools around the world to gather the information listed below.

Date Sent	Date Closed	Results
5 May 2017	22 May 2017	267 Respondents from first survey

Follow-Up Survey

Date	Action Taken
30 October 2017	- Sent four surveys to 56 emails - Total of 81 Recipients received follow-up surveys (many received more than one survey)
27 November 2017	- Resent four surveys to 56 emails - Total of 81 Recipients received follow-up surveys (many received more than one survey)
22 January 2017	- Resent four surveys to 56 emails - Total of 81 Recipients received follow-up surveys (many received more than one survey)
3 February	- Surveys closed - 30 responses

Surprisingly, I had 101 people who were willing to do followed-up interviews. Of the 101 volunteers, 56 unique email addresses were provided. Because there were so many volunteers, using interview as a method was out of the questions. Therefore, I abandoned the orginal plan to interview and used a follow-up survey instead. In the original plan, I intended on sending out follow-up survey to gather experiences from a cross section of the intersections of gender, different ethnicities and leadership positions. The intention was to collect their experiences to enrich the quantitative data, with equal representations across the numerous intersections. After further diving into the data, I realized that there would have been a lack of representation of across the intersections of the two genders, five ethnicities and eight leadership positions present in the responses. Once again, I changed my method of sending emails to specific participants who met the criteria to have equal representation of the various intersections. To avoid bias selecting participants to complete the follow-up survey, I chose to send the follow-up emails to all of those who volunteered for a follow-up.

I sent out four separate follow-up emails to a total of 81 recipients. Of the 56 emails addresses, some received more than one emails according to if they had indicated

whether gender helped or hindered and/or ethnicity helped or hindered them in obtaining a leadership position in internationals schools.

I sent the email out on three occasions: the end of October 2017, end of November 2017 and end of January 2018. At the end of November, I received a total of 30 responses. While analyzing the data, I attempted one last push to send a third and final reminder at the end of January in order to collect responses from as many participants as possible. I closed the survey at the beginning of February.

The first survey contained nine questions and two questions requesting their participation in a follow up interview, which was changed to a follow up survey.

Survey questions:
- Select your regional council or associations of international schools.
  - AASSA: Association of American Schools in South America
  - CEESA: Central and Eastern European Schools Association
  - EARCOS: East Asia Regional Council of Overseas Schools
  - ECIS: Educational (*formerly European*) Collaborative for International Schools
  - MAIS: Mediterranean Association of International Schools
  - NESA: Near East South Asia Council of Overseas Schools
  - Other
- Gender
  - Female
  - Male
- Ethnicity (Select one or more that you self-identify with most)
  - African descent
  - Asian or Pacific Islander descent
  - European descent
  - Hispanic or Latino descent
  - Middle Eastern/Arab descent
- Leadership Position
  - Head of School
  - Primary or Elementary Principal
  - Kindergarten to Grade 8 Principal
  - Middle School Principal
  - Secondary School Principal
  - High School Principal
  - Director of Teaching and Learning/Curriculum/Studies

- In your experience, has gender helped or hindered you in getting a leadership position?
    - It has helped me to secure a leadership position.
    - It has hindered me to secure a leadership position.
    - It has neither helped me nor hindered me to secure a leadership position.
- Is your perception that gender has helped or hindered you in getting a leadership position?
    - It has helped me to secure a leadership position.
    - It has hindered me to secure a leadership position.
    - It has neither helped me nor hindered me to secure a leadership position.
- From your experience, has ethnicity helped or hindered you in getting a leadership position?
    - It has helped me to secure a leadership position.
    - It has hindered me to secure a leadership position.
    - It has neither helped me nor hindered me to secure a leadership position.
- Is your perception that ethnicity has helped or hindered you in getting a leadership position?
    - It has helped me to secure a leadership position.
    - It has hindered me to secure a leadership position.
    - It has neither helped me nor hindered me to secure a leadership position.
- In your experience, have both gender and ethnicity helped or hindered you in getting a leadership position?
    - They have helped me to secure a leadership position.
    - They have hindered me to secure a leadership position.
    - They have neither helped me nor hindered me to secure a leadership position.
- If you are willing to be followed up for an interview to expand on your answers in questions 5-9, please provide your name.
- At what email address would you like to be to be contacted?

I sent the survey to the ThePTCNet.org listserv, which includes all different types of administrators and leaders of international schools across the world. I searched the websites of all six regional councils to find the names and contact details of the executive directors. I personally and directly emailed each executive director of the following regional offices to ask them to directly send it to their lists. The Executive Director of EARCOS directly sent the survey out to those in his region. The Executive Directors of NESA and ECIS included the survey in their monthly electronic newsletters. The Executive Director from AASA explained that they do not email or include surveys in their newsletters. I did not hear back from the Executive Directors of MAIS or CEESA. I

sent a second reminder on ThePTCNet.org listserv. The survey remained open for almost one month.

Follow up Survey

In order to collect and gather as many perspectives as possible from a wide range of participants, both by gender and by ethnicity, I sent out a follow-up survey to all volunteers asking them to complete the survey with the following categories:

- Gender: Male or Female
- Ethnicity:
    - African Descent
    - Asian or Pacific Islander Descent
    - European Descent
    - Hispanic or Latino Descent
    - Middle Eastern or Arab Descent
- Leadership Position:
    - Head of School / Director
    - Primary or Elementary Principal
    - Kindergarten to Grade 8 Principal
    - Middle School Principal
    - Secondary School Principal
    - High School Principal
    - Director of Teaching and Learning / Curriculum / Studies
- Participants who volunteered received unique links to the survey, based on their answers from previous survey.
    - Please provide a brief and a succinct of your experience of how gender helped you in getting a leadership position.
    - Please provide a brief and a succinct of your experience of how gender hindered you in getting a leadership position.
    - Please provide a brief and a succinct of your experience of how ethnicity helped you in getting a leadership position.
    - Please provide a brief and a succinct of your experience of how ethnicity hindered you in getting a leadership position.

The limitation of this kind of research depended on the number of volunteers who took the survey. This research also was limited to collecting data of individuals, their gender, ethnicity, position and where they worked. My concern stemmed from the lack of participation from White men who might not have taken the survey, which might have skewed the data that showed the percentage of minorities and women higher than the

actual statistics. Because the research already came with a bias that there are more White men in leadership roles, they might have been less likely to participate in the survey. My hope was that there were enlightened individuals out there who were aware of their privileged status and would have liked to contribute and change the status quo.

Before sending out the survey and looking at the data, I suspected that the international data would be similar to current national data from various countries, where the number would be an imbalance in gender representation in leadership positions as well as a lack of ethnic diversity in leadership positions at international schools.

In education, we have not considered the meaning and interpretation of the multiple categories and identities of social group membership when it comes to empirical research. Educational researchers have not incorporated this concept into their work because there are no established guidelines for empirically addressing research questions informed by an intersectional framework (McCall, 2005). I hope that the intersectionality theory can help guide the quantitative study design, analysis, and interpretation of this research (Cole, 2009). Furthermore, Cole (2009) states that "intersectional analysis hinges on the conceptualization of race, gender, and other social categories, rather than the use (or avoidance) of particular methods" (p. 178). The quantitative study design part of this research investigates the discrete categories of gender, ethnicity and leadership positions in international or overseas schools around the world.

While there was a response from 267 leaders from international schools, there was a great deal of data missing about the leaders who work in them. One regional association was unintentionally left out of the study, which is the Association of International Schools in Africa (AISA) as it was not on my radar when I did the research. Additionally, as mentioned earlier, there were 7,017 international schools in 2014 (ICEF Monitor, 2014); therefore, the number of leaders represented in this data was a fraction of those that actually exists.

Chapter 6: Data Analysis

Below I will engage in the data according to results of the survey:

- Table A provides the data of gender.
- Table B disaggregates the data into different positions.
- Table B1 breaks down the number of Heads of School by gender and into European and non-European categories.
- Table C disaggregates the data into different ethnicities.
- Tables D1 and D2 disaggregate the European and non-European participants further by gender.
- Table D3 provides the data of all ethnicities and genders.
- Table E shows the data of each position and the number of ethnicities in each position.
- Tables E1 and E2 provides a further breakdown of each position between Europeans and non-Europeans.
- Table F provides a breakdown by gender for each position.

Findings - Quantitative Data

Participants had the option of skipping any of the questions in the survey. When discussing the results, the number of those who skipped each question will be shown for each question.

Table A: Gender

Gender	Percent	Participants
Female	52.8%	141
Male	47.2%	126
Total of Participants	100%	267

The results in **Table A: Gender** show that there was a total of 267 people who took the survey. The data shows female and male were fairly balanced with slightly more females in leadership positions in international schools. The tables below will further breakdown the data for the different roles.

According to the Institute of Education Sciences and National Center for Educational Statistics in the United States in the 2007-2008 school year, there were a total of 118,610 principals across private and public schools. While the US national data might

only provide the data of principals, it is the closest comparison data that exists. According to the US Department of Education, in 2011-12, there was a total of 114,330 principals of private and publics schools; of those principals, there was a total of 85,530 principals of public schools. In the public schools, there was a total of 43,390 (48 percent) male principals and 46,140 (52 percent) were female principals (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016a, 2016b, 2016c).

In a deeper analysis of the School and Staffing Survey (SASS), Gates, Ringel, Santibanez, Ross and Chung (2003) reported that female principals among all public school showed an increase from 25 percent in 1987–1988 to 44 percent in 1999–2000. Data from the 2011–2012 SASS indicated that female representation among all public school principals stood at 52 percent (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016c).

While the trend showed a significant increase in gender diversification of the principalship, the data did not reflect an equal representation according to the number of female teachers at 76 percent. Therefore, females were disproportionately underrepresented among school principals (Davis, Gooden, and Bowers, 2017). In another example, in the Texas Education Agency in 2014, while women outnumbered by men by a 4:1 ratio among public school educators, women remained underrepresented in the principalship in relation to overall representation among educators. Additionally, women of color were less likely to transition from being a teacher to the principal role. In contrast, the findings suggested that White men had the greatest opportunity when they pursued a principalship (Davis et al., 2017).

The most recent data for gender came from the Education Counts of the New Zealand government in 2017. Of the 2360 principals in the country, about 52 percent were females and 48 percent were males. Compared the the data of international schools, of the 140 principals, 54 percent were females and 46 percent were males.

In public schools in the United States, women have dominated the profession accounting for more than 86 percent of teaching force (Feistritzer, Griffin and Linnajarvi, 2011). Further data about public school principals, the data showed that while 52 percent of principals were female, the distribution was not equivalent in the different divisions. While the percentage looked healthy at 52 percent, it did not equate to the number of female teachers in the profession. It is important to note that while there was overall a significant number at 52 percent of the total, looking at secondary principalships, which are often held by men, women were still underrepresented (Jean-Marie, 2013). In public elementary schools, 64 percent of principals were women; however, in public middle and high schools, the number decreased to only 42 percent in

middle schools and only 30 percent in high schools. The US national data was fairly consistent with international data in my study, with 54 percent were women and 46 percent were male principals. Additionally, the data was comparable from US public schools to the international data - 47 percent was women in middle school and 40 percent in high school. There were more women in elementary school as well, with 65 percent in international schools.

In examining the national data from the US, UK, and New Zealand, the sets of data are fairly consistent across three countries with fairly equal numbers of femlae principals. This data is consistent with the international data in my study. The intersection of gender and principal positions showed that there was an equal representation of both genders in leadership positions in international schools. However, "The conditional main effect of male is significant and positive—a finding that concurs with virtually all studies in the literature review. The odds ratio for males suggests that administratively certified male teachers are 1.20 times more likely than females to become principals, holding all other variables constant" (Davis et al., 2017, p. 230-231).

One argument with the lower number of women in principalship positions is the underrepresentation in principal training programs; thus, creating a pipeline issue to get more women in the field in the long run (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, and Cohen, 2007).

Table B: Leadership Positions

Leadership Position	Percent	Participants
Head of School / Director	28.8%	77
Primary or Elementary Principal	20.6%	55
Kindergarten to Grade 8 Principal	1.1%	3
Middle School Principal	14.2%	38
High School Principal	7.5%	20
Secondary School Principal	9.0%	24
Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning	18.7%	50

Of the 267 people who took the survey, 77 participants reported that they held a Head of School / Director position, 140 participants reported that they held a Principal position and 50 reported that they held a Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning position.

Table B1: Head of School / Director Position

Head of School / Director Position	Percent	Participants
Total Head of School / Director	100%	77
Female Head of School / Director	37.7 %	29
Male Head of School / Director	62.3 %	48
European Head of School / Director	97.4%	75
Non-European Head of School / Director	2.6%	2

The imbalance of gender did not exist when looking at the overall data of leadership in **Table A: Gender**. The imbalance appeared in the next level of leadership in the highest position in schools, which is the superintendent or head of school role in **Table B1: Heads of School/Director Position**, where there was about a 60 percent to 40 percent male to female ratio in international schools.

The Head of School / Director position in international school as well as independent private schools is comparable to the position of Superintendent in the United States in public schools, only on a smaller scale in many international schools. There are some international schools that have over 3000 students in one and some in multiples school, equivalent to a small school district in the United States.

In the structure of an international school, the Head of School / Director position is considered the highest post one can obtain in one's career path. Therefore, I have decided to disaggregate the data further to report on the breakdown of gender and ethnicity of the Head of School / Director position. Of the 77 Head of School / Director position, 29 were female, 48 were male while only two were Non-European descent - one African descent male and one Asian descent male, and 75 were of European descent.

While the total data showed that there were slightly more women in the overall leadership roles, for the top position in international schools, there was an imbalance of gender with a lower number of women holding this position. The intersection of gender and leadership at the highest position in international schools shows that there was a higher intersection of male and head of school position than the intersection of female

and head of school position and an even lower intersection of non-White and head of school position.

As a result of the gender imbalance in my literature review and research, I examined the research of segregation, which is defined as the degree to which men and women work in different occupations (Siltanen, Jarman, and Blackburn, 1995). However, occupations are not exclusively one gender or the other and the majority of workers in certain occupations happens to have more women or more men (Blackburn, Jarman, and Racko, 2016). "Vertical segregation is the direct measure of gender inequality in the distribution of men and women across occupations" (Watts, 2005, p. 482).

Even though "teacher education has been portrayed as a feminised field, as well as a hierarchical and gendered workplace" (Kreitz-Sandberg, 2013, p. 444), there are still fewer women in the highest position of superintendent or head of school. "The more an occupational career is confined to women, the greater the women's chances of reaching high levels. In predominantly female occupations, such as nursing, the senior positions may be disproportionately held by men. However, the fewer the men available for promotion, the more women must fill the promoted positions" (Blackburn and Jarman, 2006, p. 299). Therefore, in a field such as education where there are more female teachers, one would expect there to be more female leaders as well, in particular, at the highest position in the school as head of school. However, the data showed otherwise, just like in the nursing field, thus, creating a vertical gender segregation, which can be described as a pyramid-shaped hierarchy, where the higher a position is, the fewer women there are (Kreitz-Sandberg, 2013). The superintendent data from the United States supported the the head of school data from my research of international schools, which is further by supported what Kreitz-Sandberg saw in her research.

"Gender segregation is measured with respect to the unequal distribution of men and women across occupations with no linking of occupations requiring similar levels of educational attainment" (Watts, 2005, p. 487). Therefore, vertical segregation measures how there are more people of one gender that work in different occupations, thus creating gender inequality in that field. On the other hand, the horizontal segregation measures the rest of the components of segregation, representing difference without inequality - "the segregation entails difference in the occupations of men and women, but does not entail gender inequality" (Blackburn, Jarman, and Racko, 2016, p.240). In looking at data in the US with 76% male superintendent and at my international data with 62% male head of school, the imbalance of more men in positions of heads of school does give a clear picture of male advantage.

The results of the male advantage come from our cultural discourse.

> *"Horizontal and vertical segregation are best understood as principally cultural phenomena, reflecting the influence of two deeply-rooted ideological tenets. The first, gender essentialism, represents women as more competent than men in service, nurturance, and social interaction (e.g. Epstein, 1999; Gerson, 2002), while the second, male primacy, represents men as more status worthy than women and accordingly more appropriate for positions of authority and domination (e.g. Ridgeway, 1997; Bourdieu, 2001)"* (Charles, 2003, p. 269).

The ideology of differences in gender essentialism leads to the ideology of hierarch of male primacy. This dominant cultural belief defines men's traits as more valuable; therefore, men are more worthy and more appropriate to hold positions of power (Charles, 2003). Thus, giving men an advantage in top positions in all the fields. While this is declining as more women gain access to higher levels of education and work experience, the imbalance still exists. "For instance, in Cyprus men account for 97% of directors in large companies. Elsewhere it is not much less extreme: the EU average for large company directors is 89%, while in the USA 85% are men. Even in Norway, which has followed a policy of achieving equal representation, men account for 58%" (Blackburn, et al., 2016, p.239). Management research over the past several decades does not explained how the bigger patterns in the labor force have emerged, how men, especially White men, continue to dominate the best jobs (Stainback and Tomaskovic-Devey, 2012).

Gardiner, Enomoto and Grogan (2000) highlight that the cultural norm tends to be that those who are in positions of authority, which are often White males provide professional guidance and support to others most like themselves, thus, perpetuating White male dominance in top positions (Gardiner et al., 2000). While White males continue to be a minority in the teaching field, and yet they are among the majority in administration (Davis, Gooden and Bowers, 2017), especially at the highest position of superintendent in national public and private schools or head of school in international schools.

One of the barriers for female candidates to the superintendent position is the hiring committee, which is the board because they do not feel comfortable with a female leader (Montz, 2004). "For example, according to several decades of research done by American Association of School Administrators (AASA), nearly 82% of female superintendents indicated school board members did not see them as strong managers, and 76% felt school boards did not view them as capable of handling district finances (Glass et al., 2000)" (Muñoz et. al., 2014, p. 768). Board committees are often the ones recruiting for heads of school positions as well and most are often not educators. This

leads back to gender essentialism to the ideology of hierarchy of male primacy and defines men's traits as more valuable; thus, they are more appropriate to hold positions of power, leading the board to hire men (Charles, 2003).

Grogan (1996) reported that women in education who aspired to be superintendents were viewed as women first, and administrators second. Additionally, women of color stated that their gender was more of an obstacle than their race in their pursuit of the superintendent position. In the Study of the American Superintendent 2015 Mid-Decade Update, the findings showed that women still represented only 25 percent of superintendents, which had not changed since the 2010 Decennial Study.

Table C: Ethnicity

Ethnicity	Percent	Participants
African descent	2.3%	6
Asian or Pacific Islander descent	6.4%	17
European descent	88.7%	235
Hispanic or Latino descent	4.5%	12
Middle Eastern or Arab descent	0.8%	2
Skipped Question	0.8%	2
Total		274
Total of all non-European descents	14%	37

The total number in the breakdown of ethnicities do not equate to the total number of participants because there were six participants who identified with more than one ethnicity: two males with European descent and Asian descent, two females with European descent and Asian descent and two females with European descent and Hispanic or Latino descent. Shield (2008) suggests that identity is fluid, which can change in the context of the social environment, with whom a person is, over a period of time, and how others respond to the individual; therefore, an individual has multiple identities and there is no single identity category for any individual. She suggests a recognition of shifts in identity of individuals, in particular for those who identify with more than one ethnicity. It is important that their ethnic identity is fluid and not fixed.

The total number of people of European descent represented a vast majority in this study with 235 of the 272 participants who answered this question. On the other hand, the total number of people of non-European descents made up of 37 participants, which represented less than 15 percent of the entire cohort of participants.

The intersection of ethnicity and leadership showed that there existed a high intersection between European descent and leadership at almost 89 percent, which was the vast majority. For the other ethnicities, there existed a low intersection of leadership and African descent, Asian descent, Hispanic descent and Middle Eastern descent. Therefore, there was a low percentage when it came to the cross of intersection of leadership and non-European descents with a total of less than 15 percent.

According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES), from the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) administration data showed very little diversity of principalship in the United States in public schools. According to the last three sets of data, White principals represented a total of 84.1 percent in 2003– 2004, 80.9 percent in 2007–2008, and 80.3 percent in 2011–2012 SASS, which showed a slight decrease in about 10 years. On the other hand, according to the same sets of data, the percentage of Black principals represented 9.3 percent in 2003–2004, 10.6 percent in 2007–2008, and 10.1 percent in 2011–2012. The percentage fluctuated within about one percentage point in three periods over about a span of 10 years. Similarly, Hispanic principals began at 4.8 percent in 2003–2004, rose to 6.5 percent in 2007–2008, and 6.8 percent in 2011–2012, which showed a slight increase in about 10 years. (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016a, 2016b, 2016c).

> *"Interestingly, the interactions of Black and Latino with male are significant and positive. This suggests that although being Black or Latino is associated with a lower likelihood of becoming a principal relative to Whites, being Black or Latino and male is associated with a higher likelihood of becoming a principal relative to White females, controlling for all other variables"* (Davis et al., 2017, p. 230-231).

Therefore, the intersection of being Black or Latino and principalship is overall lower than the intersection of White and principalship. However, being male, regardless of ethnicity, has a greater intersection with principalship than female.

Additionally, while the total population of Asian Americans in the U.S. consisted of 5.6 percent, about 17.3 million people, only 2.7 percent of Asians, which consists of Asian, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islanders, American Indians/Alaska Natives, and multiracial groups (Hoeffel, Rastogi, Kim, and Shahib, 2012) accounted for school principals (National Center for Education Statistics, 2014). Ortman and Guarneri

(2009) reported that the Asian American population was projected to grow over 200 percent by the year 2050. "The substantial increase in the Asian American population has not changed the underrepresentation of Asian Americans in the educational leadership" (Liang and Peters-Hawkins, 2017, p. 42).

Additionally, there was even a lower percentage of intersection of leadership and non-European descent when I examined the data at the highest position of head of school at lower than 3 percent in international schools. The data showed a greater imbalance of diversity, with a low number of only two non-European Heads of School / Directors and there was no female of Non-European descent, who held the Head of School / Director position. In the UK, the diversity at the top was almost non-existent because there were very few Asians or Blacks heads. Bush and Moloi (2008) argued that the Local Education Authorities (LEA) had done very little in terms of tracking Black and Minority Ethnic (BME) people and promoting them.

Asians do not carry immunity to the blatant racial violence and mostly time, experience the subtle forms of racism because of the physical appearance, they are seen as the "forever foreigners" (Chou and Feagin, 2014; Tuan, 2001). Therefore, they will face the glass ceiling like other ethnic minorities do (Lee, 2002). This data is consistent with what Stainback and Tomaskovic-Devey (2012) reported when they found that people of White European descent were disproportionately represented in the best jobs, the jobs with the highest incomes, and the jobs with the most training and hold the highest authority.

There are multiple identities that individuals hold and these identities intersect and influence their experiences. For example, as an Asian male school leader, I experience the intersection of these identities I hold differently in each experience, which could be one identity at a time or all of them together.

> *"However, even with this acknowledgement of people's multiple identities and the intersectionality across and between them and leadership (Collins, 1998), when race is considered, gender bias against women remains significant (Reed, 2012) and has been shown to exist within and across many racial boundaries (White males/black women, black men/black women, etc.) (Brooks and Jean-Marie, 2007). In this way, women of color who inhabit, or attempt to inhabit, leadership positions are subject to the "double jeopardy" of potential discrimination, both for their gender and their race (Rosette and Livingston, 2012)"* (Burton and Weiner, 2013, p. 2).

Therefore, gender bias traverses all the multiple identities of women, particularly with women of color facing both their ethnicity and a female, a double barrier limiting their access to leadership positions (Reed, 2012).

DiTomaso (2015) provides a different perspective and view when with regards to why Whites hold more of the top employment positions. She argues that racial inequality exists because Whites are helping other Whites more than racism or discrimination of Whites toward non-Whites. She further adds that because Whites hold the positions of power, have the information and influence, they pass information to their social groups, which tend to be other Whites. "When Whites help other Whites, it produces existing racial inequality" (p. 58). DiTomaso (2013) studied the job histories of 246 Whites from different areas of the United States, she found that 243 of the 246 people in her study obtained 70 percent of their jobs with the help of people they knew.

DiTomaso's argument is consistent with the research of Greenwald and Pettigrew (2014) that favoritism to given ingroups is more likely to take place than exclusion or discrimination of outgroups. White men are disproportionately represented in top positions who are likely to have the authority and influence for promotions and job offers. They also are in the position to decide who gets the opportunities and ultimately, who gets the job (Smith, 2002). When Whites offer opportunities and favors toward their White friends, they feel good about doing so. They would less likely feel a sense of guilt than if they were to discriminate against non-Whites or even think of themselves as racists. They view it as offering friends information to get a job, not discrimination against non-Whites.

Furthermore, racial inequality does not require racism or discrimination for Whites to gain, maintain and benefit from the existing structure. Institutional or structural racism implies that the institutions as they currently exist favor Whites over non-Whites, thus, reproducing the perpetual racial inequality (Lin, 2001). In other words, "structural inequality is one way Whites help other Whites, and embedded or implicit cultural associations are consistent with favoritism toward Whites as much as with disfavor toward nonWhites" (DiTomaso, 2015, p. 61). Other groups are likely to help their own groups as well; however, they are less likely to be in positions of power and authority to have the influence as Whites who are in more powerful and influential positions to help each other (Stainback and Tomaskovic-Devey, 2012).

Therefore, Whites may feel offended when others accuse them of racism because they do not actively engage in excluding non-Whites, rather they see it as helping out their friends who happens to be White also. Their narrative and perspective differ from what

others see. "In other words, the ultimate White privilege is the privilege not to be a racist and to still benefit from racial inequality" (DiTomaso, 2015, p. 65). DiTomaso argues that "acts of favoritism and offering advantage and opportunity to friends, family members, acquaintances, or others like them, even though positive actions, may be the most important determinant of reproducing racial inequality in the post-civil rights period" (DiTomaso, 2015, p. 66).

Whether one views racism as prejudice against non-Whites or discrimination exists because Whites favors other Whites, the racial inequality continues to exist and it is evident in multiple research and data, including in international schools.

Table D1: Gender - European Descent

Gender - European Descent	Percent	Participants
Female	50.2%	118
Male	49.8%	117
Total		235

Table D2: Gender - Non-European Descent

Gender - Non-European Descent	Percent	Participants
Female	67.6%	25
Male	32.4%	12
Total		37

Table D3: Gender and Ethnicity

Ethnicity	Female	Male	Percent	Participants
African descent	4	2	2.3%	6
Asian or Pacific Islander descent	11	6	6.4%	17
European descent	118	117	88.7%	235
Hispanic or Latino descent	9	3	4.5%	12
Middle Eastern or Arab descent	1	1	0.8%	2
Skipped				2

In disaggregating the data further in terms of gender in **Table D1: Gender - European Descent** and **Table D2: Gender - Non-European Descent**, there was almost an exact split of male and female school leaders of European descent. On the other hand, there was about double the number of females to males for leaders of non-European descent school leaders—25 females to 12 males. **Table D3: Gender and Ethnicity** provided a further breakdown of gender within each ethnicity, which also showed that there were more women of African descent, Asian or Pacific Islander descent, Hispanic or Latino descent and equal representation of gender in European descents and Middle Eastern or Arab descent.

The intersection of gender, ethnicity and leadership showed that there was an equal of intersection for people of female and male European descent. On the other hand, there was a double level of intersection of gender and leadership when intersected with ethnicity: African, Asian and Hispanic descent except Middle Eastern descents with one of each gender.

In looking at the research in the UK, Singh (2002) pointed out that only a small number of 6 percent, of Black and Minority Ethnic (BME) men and only 4.6 percent of BME women held leadership positions in England and Wales.

"The limited studies on Asian American women in educational leadership suggest that, besides confronting challenges associated with gender, Asian American women leaders face the sociocultural barriers commonly shared by other minority women, such as racial and sex discrimination, tokenism, lack of role models, and lack of access to networks (Chu, 1980; Fong, 1984; Pacis, 2005). Underrepresentation of Asian American women leaders in the academy and the dearth of qualitative work documenting their stories are noted (Hune, 1998; Ideta and Cooper, 2000). Asian American female administrators experience a "chilly climate" (Hune, 1998), feel isolated and invisible (Turner, 2002), have their abilities questioned, and have to work harder to prove themselves (Hune, 1998). The stereotypes of Asian American women, as submissive, quiet, and retiring, work against those who are in leadership positions and deny leadership potentials for those who aspire to leadership roles (Youngberg, Miyasoto, and Nakanishi, 2001)" (Liang and Peters-Hawkins, 2017, p. 46).*

Intersectionality theory is derived from women of color, in particular, Black women, thus, the majority of the research in educational leadership has been conducted from the experiences of Black women and how the intersection of race and gender have an impact on leadership (Jean-Marie, 2013). There has also been some research on the experiences of Hispanic and Latina women and the intersection with leadership. (Mendez-Morse, 2003). Unfortunately, there does not exist the intersectionality research on the experiences of Asian American women in educational leadership (Liang and Peters-Hawkins, 2017). Nor has there been any research done with the intersection of ethnicity, gender and how they impact leadership in international school settings.

Table E: Leadership Positions

Position	African descent	Asian or Pacific Islander descent	European descent	Hispanic or Latino descent	Middle Eastern / Arab descent	Percent	Partici pants
Head of School / Director	1	1	73	0	0	28.3%	75
Primary or Elementary Principal	2	6	45	4	0	20.8%	55
Kinder-garten to Grade 8 Principal	0	0	3	0	0	1.1%	3
Middle School Principal	1	3	34	2	0	14.3%	38
High School Principal	1	0	17	2	1	7.5%	20
Secondary School Principal	0	4	19	2	0	9.1%	24
Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning	1	3	44	2	1	18.9%	50

Table A shows the breakdown of the gender in the study, which matches what Thearle found in her 1993 study. This data provides a current data set similar to her research. Extending the data further, **Table D3** is significant as it provides data in terms of both gender and ethnicity, which did not exist before. Furthermore, **Table E: Leadership Positions** provides further breakdown and shows the complete data set of all the positions by each ethnicity, which fills in the gap of Thearle's research; this never existed before in the context of international schools. These three tables provide data that has not existed in the last 25 years for international schools.

Table E1: Leadership Positions - European Descent

Leadership Positions - European Descent	Percent	Participants
Head of School / Director	31.1%	73
Primary or Elementary Principal	19.1%	45
Kindergarten to Grade 8 Principal	1.3%	3
Middle School Principal	14.5%	34
High School Principal	7.2%	17
Secondary School Principal	8.1%	19
Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning	18.7%	44

Table E2: Leadership Positions - Non-European Descent

Leadership Positions - Non-European Descent	Percent	Participants
Head of School / Director	5.4%	2
Primary or Elementary Principal	32.4%	12
Kindergarten to Grade 8 Principal	0.0%	0
Middle School Principal	16.2%	6
High School Principal	10.8%	4
Secondary School Principal	16.2%	6
Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning	18.9%	7

Table E1: Leadership Positions - European Descent and **Table E2: Leadership Positions - Non-European Descent** disaggregate the data into tables of the totals European and Non-European participants.

According to the Institute of Education Sciences and National Center for Educational Statistics in the United States in the 2007-2008 school year, there was a total of 118,610 principals across private and public schools. The data was divided up into Hispanic, White, Black and Other, which included non-hispanic American Indian/Alaska Native;

non-Hispanic Asian; non-Hispanic Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander; or non-Hispanic two or more races. There was also a note to indicate that Black includes African American and Hispanic includes Latino (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016a, 2016b, 2016c).

While the US national data might not represent the exact description as in my research, it is the closest comparison that exists. Of 118,610 principals in the US in the 2007-2008 school year, Whites (people of European descents) represented 82 percent and non-Whites (people of non-European descents) represented 18 percent, which was remarkably similar to the data of international schools of having 81 percent principals of European descent and 19 percent of Non-European descent principals. According to the US Department of Education, in 2011-12, there was a total of 114,330 principals of private and publics schools, of those principals, thaas were a total of 85,530 principals of public schools (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016a, 2016b, 2016c).

In my survey, there was a total of 118 principals of European descent (81 percent) and 28 (19 percent) of non-European descent. In order to compare this to the US national data, I have converted the raw international data to a percentage to match and compare to the public schools of the national data. The number of principals in international schools was consistent with the data of the US principals in the public school workforce.

In order to put the number of principals in perspective with number of teachers, I have provided data for comparision. According to the Institute of Education Sciences and National Center for Educational Statistics in the United States in the 2011-2012 school year, there were an estimated 3,850,100 teachers in all private and public schools. Of these teachers, about 83 percent of them were Whites and 17 percent of them were non-Whites. The number is consistent when looking at the numbers in principal roles. In public schools, there were a total of 84 percent of principals were Whites and 16 percent were non-Whites.

According to the Department for Education statistical data for the school workforce in England in 2011, 65 percent of the head teachers, which is equivalent to principals in the US, were female and 98 percent were White. The number represents a positive outlook for women. However, only two percent of the head teachers were non-White (non-European descents), an abysmally low number. The data was slightly lower, moderately reflective of the teacher data as non-White teachers represented only about six percent of their school workforce. Therefore, the two percent of non-White head teachers was not consistent with the number of non-white teachers at six percent.

The national data sets from the US, UK, and New Zealand were fairly consistent with about equal numbers of women who were principals. This data was consistent with the international data in my study.

There was not one single set of data that I found that provided all the data that was comparable to the data I collected from international schools. However, there was similar data that I found useful, which I was able to compare, at best as I could, like for like. The data was consistent in the principal roles with slightly more women in the field than men.

Table F: Female and Male Comparison of Leadership Position

Leadership Position	Female	Male	Percent	Participants
Head of School / Director	29	48	28.8%	77
Primary or Elementary Principal	36	19	20.6%	55
Kindergarten to Grade 8 Principal	2	1	1.1%	3
Middle School Principal	18	20	14.2%	38
High School Principal	8	12	7.5%	20
Secondary School Principal	12	12	9.0%	24
Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning	36	14	18.7%	50

While Thearle (1993) provided the data about the percentage of females in senior leadership positions in her study, the data represented an overall number and percentage of senior leadership positions, not specific ones. **Table F** provides the complete breakdown of all the leadership positions and gender, which is an extension of her work.

As reported earlier, out of 77 Heads of School / Directors, 29 were female and 48 were male who held the positions. For principal positions, 76 were female and 64 were male. The genders were fairly evenly divided with a slightly more males leading high schools when looking at principal positions. The largest imbalance in gender was in the Primary or Elementary Principal category where there were 36 females compared to 19. There were also more females (36) than males (14) in the Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning position.

The intersection of gender and various leadership roles showed that there was a higher intersection of male head of school positions, about equal intersection of middle school and secondary school principals, higher male intersection with high school principals and higher female intersection with elementary school principals and directors of studies.

The American School Superintendent: 2000 Decennial Study contained responses from 2,262 superintendents. Of those participants who reported their gender, 1,953 were male (about 86 percent) and 297 (about 13 percent) were female, with 114 (about 5 percent) respondents identifying themselves as minorities. The 2010 Decennial Study reported that the presence of female superintendents increased substantially in the United States since 1992, where there were only about 13 percent were female in 2000. In 2010, the percentage has increased to about one in four respondents (24 percent). While there was an increase for women in the United States in the past 20 years, the dominance of the male gender was still significant with 76 percent, even in 2010 (Kowalski, McCord, Petersen, Young, and Ellerson, 2011). At the rate of increase of about 10 percent, one might predict that the number will increase to about 35 percent of female superintendents in the United States in 2020. In my 2017 international study, women appeared more successful in obtaining the top position in a school internationally, as 29 of the 77 Heads of Schools were women, making up about 38 percent.

This coule be a result of second generation bias, which stems from implicit bias and perception that women lack the right fit to lead schools. Second generation bias is subtle as it appears to be neutral or non-sexist; thus, it is difficult to recognize and even more difficult to counteract (Ely, Ibarra, and Kolb, 2011). Barriers such as second generation bias can be "powerful but subtle and often invisible barriers for women that arise from cultural assumptions, organizational structures, practices, and patterns of interaction that inadvertently benefit men while putting women at a disadvantage" (Ibarra et al., 2013, p. 60). At the same time, Burton and Weiner (2016) stated that it can be,

> "*detrimental to women as they attempt to navigate areas that are traditionally held by men, including in this context, educational leadership positions. Moreover, though largely absent from the literature, these same biases may impact the messages received in preparation or other training programs meant to grant participants access to such leadership positions (i.e., principal preparation programs)*" (p. 3).

In this education leadership context, women are at a disadvantage in terms of superintendent positions in the US and head of school positions in international schools.

Furthermore, the representation of minorities did not fare well in 2010. *The American School Superintendent: 2010 Decennial Study* reported that only two percent of respondents categorized themselves as African American and only another two percent as Latino from a total of 1800 superintendents who responded. In both 2000 and 2010, the number of minorities represented only 4 percent and 5 percent, respectively, of all of the superintendents in the United States.

As mentioned earlier, the number of female teachers represented 76 percent of the teaching force (Davis et al., 2017) and up to 86 percent in public schools in the United States (Feistritzer et al., 2011). The data showed an overrepresentation of women in the teaching field; however, the data showed only 24 perccent were female superintendents and 76 percent male. The even more startling data showed that 94 percent were Caucasian (Kowalski et al., 2011). The data is troubling when we look at the U.S. Census Bureau (2010) statistics where 50.9 percent of the population was female and over 25 percent identify as of African American, Asian, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander. "In fact, the position of superintendent of schools in the USA is the most male-dominated executive position of any profession" (Muñoz, et. al., 2014, p. 767).

> *"Eagly and Karau (2002) explained that gender roles and leader roles present two incongruent prejudices when the expectations of what are desirable traits for women exclude agency (that is, agentic traits often associated with men and higher status). Thus, both men and women perceive what Eagly and Karau defined as a role incongruity principle – when women are often expected to be communal and subordinate, while men are expected to be agentic and of high status"* (Muñoz, et. al., 2014, p. 766).

The prejudice that women face is real as their interest in the superintendent position exists. In the past decade, the numbers of women in doctoral and master's level educational administration programs have well surpassed their male counterparts by more than 50 percent (Glass et al., 2000). Furthermore, the research by Bjork (2000) and Grogan and Brunner (2005) have shown that very little progress has been made "in the number of women aspiring, applying and assuming superintendent positions, in relation to the number of women enrolled in university educational administration" (Muñoz, et. al., 2014, p. 768). The data shows that women are in educational administration programs and are preparing for the superintendent position; however, they are being passed over for the position.

In comparing the data from the United States and my survey of international schools, the representation of minorities in the United States is almost double (at 5 percent) of

that of their international counterparts (at 2.5 percent). The actual number is only two heads of schools of the the 77 are non-European descent. For the purpose of comparison, I converted the numbers to percentage in order to make the comparison alike. The data raises questions of wheth there exists racism or favorism in this field. DiTomaso argues that

> *"the primary mechanism for reproducing racial inequality in the post-Civil Rights period is a dynamics of bias for Whites, rather than of bias against blacks and other nonWhites...I argue that inequality is reproduced by processes of inclusion and favoritism of Whites toward other Whites, that is, helping people like themselves (i.e., those in the majority or from dominant or advantaged groups), more so than through processes of exclusion or discrimination of Whites toward blacks and other nonWhites (meaning actively denying minority or disadvantaged group members access to opportunities)"* (DiTomaso, 2015, p. 59).

Regardless, the data from the research shows that the superintendent role in public, private, and head of school / director position in international schools favors men, in particular those of European descent.

Findings - Qualitative Data

Helped or Hindered Section

The following section reports the breakdown of gender and ethnicity of participants who indicated whether gender, ethnicity or gender and ethnicity has/have helped or hindered them in securing a leadership position in international schools.

Table G. Female Male Comparison: In your experience, has gender helped or hindered you in getting a leadership position?

Prompt	Female	Male	Percent	Partic-pants
It has helped me to secure a leadership position.	10	27	14.0%	37
It has hindered me to secure a leadership position.	37	9	17.4%	46
It has neither helped me nor hindered me to secure a leadership position.	94	88	68.7%	182
Skipped				2

Nearly 70 percent of the respondents, a vast majority, selected the option: gender "*has neither helped me nor hindered me to secure a leadership position.*" There was a fairly even divide between male and female participants in this area. Because this data

represented the majority, it appeared that gender may be less of an issue in terms of recruitment than I had anticipated before administering this survey.

In comparing the two numbers of those who indicated that gender had helped them (37 - 14 percent) and those who indicated that gender had hindered them (46 - 18 percent), the data showed that the difference is insignificant. Further analysis of the data shows that more males (27 - 10 percent) indicated that gender had helped them to secure a leadership position than females (10 - 4 percent), making a total of 37 participants. On the other hand, there were more females (37 - 14 percent) who indicated that gender had hindered them to secure a leadership position than males (9 - 3 percent), totalling 46 participants. More women self reported that their gender presented an obstacle in securing a leadership role while more men self reported that it helped them in getting a leadership position. While the data represented a small number, one can interpret that males indicated that gender was an advantage and females indicated that their gender was a disadvantage when it is pertained to obtaining a leadership position in international schools.

Table H. Ethnicity Comparison: In your experience, has gender helped or hindered you in getting a leadership position?

Prompt	African descent	Asian or Pacific Islander descent	Europ-ean descent	Hispan-ic or Latino descent	Middle Eastern / Arab descent	Per-cent	Parti-cipants
It has helped me to secure a leadership position.	0	3	34	2	0	14.1%	37
It has hindered me to secure a leadership position.	2	2	40	2	1	17.5%	46
It has neither helped me nor hindered me to secure a leadership position.	4	12	159	8	1	68.4%	180
Skipped							2

In looking at the data in terms gender from the ethnicity perspective, there were still more participants (68 percent) who selected the option: my ethnicity "*has neither helped me nor hindered me to secure a leadership position*". Of those who said that gender had helped them secure a position, 34 were of European descent, 3 were of Asian descent and 2 were of Hispanic descent. On the other hand, 40 people of European descent, 2 of African descent, 2 of Asian descent, 2 of Hispanic descent, and 1 of Middle Eastern descent indicated that gender had hindered them. The data showed that gender was a hindrance in securing a leadership role across different ethnicities.

For people of both European and Non-European descent, the data showed that the number was fairly evenly divided for those who experienced gender helped or hindered them in securing a leadership position. In all ethnicities, except people of Middle Eastern descents, there were more who reported that gender had neither helped or hindered them than those who reported otherwise.

Follow-Up Survey Data Findings

I sent four separate emails to a total of 81 recipients. Of these, there were 56 unique email addresses. Please note that some received more than one emails according to if they indicated whether gender helped or hindered and/or if ethnicity helped or hindered them in obtaining a leadership position in internationals schools.

I received a total of 36 responses. Below is the breakdown of the data and the accounts of their experiences.

Legend of Positions

HoS	Head of School / Director
ESP	Primary or Elementary Principal
K8P	Kindergarten to Grade 8 Principal
MSP	Middle School Principal
HSP	High School Principal
SSP	Secondary School Principal
DoS	Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning

Legend of Ethnicities

African	African descent
Asian	Asian or Pacific Islander descent
European	European descent
Hispanic	Hispanic or Latino descent
Arab	Middle Eastern or Arab descent

In Tables 1 and 2 below, the data shows the breakdown of gender and ethnicity of the respondents from the follow up surveys.

Table I: Who said that GENDER has HELPED them in securing a leadership position

Breakdown of total number of participants who completed the follow up survey by positions and ethnicity.								
	Male	Female		African	Asian	European	Hispanic	Arab	Total
HoS		2				2			2
ESP	1	1			1	1			1
K8P									0
MSP		2				2			2
HSP									0
SSP		1				1			1
DoS									0
Total	1	6		0	1	6	0	0	7

In the data set above in **Table G. Female Male Comparison: In your experience, has gender helped or hindered you in getting a leadership position?,** there were 37 participants who indicated that gender helped them to secure a leadership position. Of the 37 participants, 16 volunteered and provided their emails to be followed up. Of those who received a follow-up survey and only seven participants responded to the follow-up survey to share their experiences. Of the seven respondents, six were women and one was a man. Although this is a table for gender, note that the six of the respondents were leaders of European descent and one of Asian descent.

Three of the women indicated that because of the gender imbalance on their current teams and competitors, being a woman gave them an advantage in the recruitment process.

European descent female secondary school principal:

> *"There are very few Secondary Principals often there is only one or two female candidates that apply. This has resulted in being selected for every job I have applied."*

Two European descent female middle school principals:

> *"At the time there was a school leadership team of of 7 males and 1 female and the female was leaving so the school only interviewed internal female candidates. Five females applied for the position."*

> *"As a former ES Principal (10 years) and current MS Principal (3 years) I feel that my gender has been an advantage in my current position as the Leadership Team (9 people) was made up of 8 men and 1 female. Thus, in the interest of enhancing the existing gender balance, the school was ideally looking for a female candidate to fill the MS Principal position. Given that I had the depth of leadership experience they were seeking and strong references, I feel being female gave me an edge."*

Two of the women reported that there was a significant imbalance in their leadership teams where they represented the only female; thus, their schools maintained the status quo by recruiting another woman. Their gender played in their favor because of the lack of representation on their current teams.

Another indicated that being a woman coupled with being Asian worked in her favor:

> *"Coupled with my education and experiences, I feel that being a female, Asian leader has worked in my favor to secure leadership positions in Asia. There are few Asian women leaders that I have come to know while working in international schools, and I think my profile has added to the diversity of the schools where I have worked."*

One European descent female head of school commented that:

> *"In my past two leadership recruitment processes, my competitors were all male (and caucasian). However, there were jobs I applied to and was not selected with similar applicant pools…One would hope that it has to do with the skills and qualities that I bring to the role instead of some type of perception about the type of leader I am by gender or ethnicity. It may be possible that the schools were looking for a change of 'profile' or image as my predecessors were older White males."*

It should be noted that in the comments above, the women reported there were fewer women in the candidate pools when they were in the recruitment process. The data for Heads of Schools / Directors supported that there were fewer women in the role than men; therefore, women who applied for heads of school positions would likely compete with more men when they were recruited. This would be consistent with the comments made above. However, the rest of the positions indicated a fairly balance in gender, in particular the data showed that there are slightly more female principals than male principals. Therefore, the fact that comments indicated that fewer women were applying for leadership positions are not consistent with the data. This cycles back to my concern

about the skew in the data, that fewer White European descent male participated in the survey than out there.

Generally, the recruitment process for international schools consists of two paths. The first path is that schools hire a recruitment agency to screen viable candidates. Applicants apply to the recruitment agencies directly, who have recruitment agents to screen and interview and then pass on a list of semi-finalists to the schools. The schools' recruitment committee then interviews the semi-finalist list of viable candidates and narrow down a finalist lists of 2-4 candidates to have on campus interviews at the school. The other path is that the schools have a recruitment committee that handles the screening process, interviews the viable candidates, and follows the same process of narrowing down the list to semi-finalists to be interviewed, ending with bringing in 2-4 finalists for an on-campus visit.

There was similar representation of both genders in my survey, for principal positions, 76 females and 64 males who held these positions. The principal positions were fairly evenly divided with a slightly more males leading high schools. The largest imbalance in gender is in the Primary or Elementary Principal category where there are 36 females compared to 19 males who hold these positions. When recruiting, one should see the similar representation according to the position they apply. For example, when I recruited in the autumn of 2017 for a high school principal position, there were four finalist candidates, three men and one woman. When I recruited for a middle school principal position, there were four finalist candidates, two men and two women.

As reported earlier, out of 77 Heads of School / Directors, there were 29 females and 48 males. There were also more females (36) to males (14) in the Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning position. When one is recruiting for Head of School / Director, one can expect to see more men than women; on the other hand, when recruiting for Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning position, one can expect to see more women than men.

Two other comments below refer to the perception of gender:

European descent male elementary principal:
> *"Being a male in early years education. Fit the profile for what is expected in a leader, male, White, middle aged."*

European descent female head of school:
> *"I believe that the 'female' focused traits of empathy, compassion and multitasking have greatly benefited me in my career."*

While this research does not touch on the perception of male, female, and leadership traits, the views do exist, even with only seven comments and two have shared their perceptions of gender. One shared his view on being a male leader and the other shared her view of being a female leader and the benefits of each gender. These comments raise question of gender essentialism, whether character traits belong to one gender or another. While I disagree with the comments, they do exist.

Table J: Who said that GENDER has HINDERED them in securing a leadership position

Breakdown of total number of participants who completed the follow up survey by positions and ethnicities.									
	Male	Female		African	Asian	European	Hispanic	Arab	Total
HoS	2	1				3			3
ESP		3		1		1	1		3
K8P									0
MSP		1				1			1
HSP		3				3			3
SSP		2				1		1	2
DoS	2					2			2
Total	4	10		1	0	11	1	1	14

In the data set, there were 46 participants who indicated that gender hindered them in securing a leadership position. Of the 46 participants, 27 volunteered and provided their emails to be followed up, all of whom received a follow-up survey; 14 participants responded to the follow-up survey. Of the 14 respondents, 10 were women and four were men.

While these are only a few accounts, the direct comments by those who were in charge of recruitment were clear to the women that their gender was a hindrance. These statements indicate a more direct comment about gender bias. On the other hand, there were only a few the comments by women who felt that their gender was helpful because there were fewer women in the candidate pool.

European descent female elementary school principal:

> *"I applied for leadership positions 4 times in the middle school I worked in as a teacher and 4 times the job went to males, 3 times the males had few qualifications."*

Hispanic descent female elementary school principal:

> *"The person chosen for Elementary had no previous experience in that level. He had never been a coordinator or a principal. The General Director felt the few male teachers in Elementary would respond better to a male."*

African descent female elementary school principal:

> *"On several occasions I have been overlooked at bigger international schools for a leadership position as I didn't have the 'right' profile. I have been snubbed at recruitment fair socials and other Directors have spoken to my White husband thinking him to be the principal or director and I the 'trailing' spouse."*

Two European descent female high school principals:

> *"I was a finalist for a high school principal position and I was the only woman in the finalists pool. I was an experienced high school principal. I did not win the search and the school shared that the parents had preferred a more commanding presence. The person who won the search was a White man who is 6 feet 4 and had less experience than I did. I am quite confident and one of my strengths is public speaking."*

> *"I have been told that I missed out on a promotion because the man chosen was a better 'cultural fit' - when I was more experienced and more qualified than him."*

Table G above showed that there were significantly more women (37) who reported that their gender was a hindrance. Of the 37 women, 10 women completed the follow up survey and five women shared their experiences above and some faced direct gender bias in favor of men. Therefore, it is not a surprise that more women shared their unpleasant experiences of sexism. On the other hand, more men (27) reported that their gender was helpful and 9 men reported that their gender was a hindrance and only one shared that he faced sexism.

Others commented about the recruitment agencies and processes:

Female European descent high school principals:

> *"I have first hand experience of working with some of the leading consultants alongside a male friend of mine looking to make a similar career move - he was getting referral after referral, phone call after phone call, help after help from the (mostly) male consultants. I felt like I was picking up the scraps from the table in comparison."*

> *"I spoke with [recruitment agency] about applying for a HOS job in Asia. I was told 'as a woman you will never get a HOS job in Asia - you need to look at South America.' If he had said I would not get a job as a first time head I would have been accepting but he specifically cited my gender as the issue."*

> *"I do think that this [recruitment process] is because they are being hired by other men and this is seen as confidence rather than being cheeky. When consultant / search firms are used to help with a promotion into senior leadership, there is a definite bias towards men again."*

Female European descent head of school:

> *"I worked very hard to 'tick' every box before even applying for a headship - 17 years as a teacher and in that time 10 years as an IBDP Coordinator. My masters was in International Educational leadership from the UK and Doctorate from the States. Was a secondary principal for 6 years and an assistant head of school in both small and large schools. Have lived all over the world for 25 years...Anyway on paper, you can see all boxes ticked so always made it to a long list but often just not to interview except in small schools in Africa or India."*

As previously stated, the recruitment process narrows down the pool of candidates to semi-finalists to be interviewed and then finalists for on campus visits. While this is qualitative data and I do not have the data to confirm this, the women indicated that the recruitment process favored men. One female high school principal commented that she had very few referrals for different jobs while her male friend with similar experience had many more. One female high school principal was told directly and bluntly by the recruitment agency that she would never get a job as a head of school in Asia because of her gender. The other woman who was a head of school experienced the lack of interviews except from smaller schools.

Thus, I wonder about my own recruitment process where I was the only external male candidate along with two female candidates. I received the job offer from the school and accepted the job. I wonder if the two women felt that they were slighted as a result of their gender.

Two European descent male Director of Studies commented on facing gender bias as well:

> *"In applying for a Head of School Position I was told at the initial interview that my application would be considered but that the Board was actually looking for a female to take the Head role."*

> *"I am often the gender minority in my role. Being male this is a new perspective to me. I actually believe it benefits me in being included in conversation to get "the male point of view"."*

On the other hand, one male director of teaching and learning was told by the board that they were looking for a woman. One male commented that he is a minority in the director of studies role, which is a new perspective for him being of the minority gender. His comment is consistent with the data in in **Table F: Female and Male Comparison of Leadership Position** where there are more females (36) to males (14) in the Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning position. Some of the women reported that they were the minority gender in their schools. However, with the data in my survey, there should be equal representation of gender in the leadership roles in international school, yet there are still reports of gender imbalance.

There are few comments regarding perception of gender as well.

Two European female descent high school principals:

> *"However, it was interesting that the perception was that as a medium height woman, I did not a commanding presence or at least the tall man had more. We need to widen our sense of what leadership looks like or women and people of color will always be disadvantaged."*

> *"Men occupy most of the senior leadership positions in international schools (White men, middle aged, make up this majority) and 'like' hires 'like'."*

Middle Eastern descent female secondary school principal:

> *"As a female looking into leadership in the form of the head of a division, I have been encouraged to stick with teaching because I think to much with my heart "because I am a woman". As well, "schools need strong decision makers and level headed leaders", "men fit this role much more than women." I now realize this is not the vision of every school director or leader and I am continuing in leadership, however it is unfortunate that this perspective exists, as I think it impacts females taking the leap into leadership."*

The impact of these experiences has left many women with the perception that men dominate the leadership field in international schools. The data for high school principal showed that there are slightly more men in this category, 12 men or 60 percent to 8 women at 40 percent. The data for secondary principal shows that there was equal representation with 12 men and 12 women. The data shows that there are more men in the role of head of school positions and more women in director of studies positions. According to the data, for high school principals and head of school positions, one might see more men in the candidate pool in the recruitment process.

European descent female secondary school principal commented about mentorship:

> *"International schools need more women leaders to mentor younger women. The networking of the 'old boys club' with regards to recruitment of leaders is embedded in institutions, including the recruitment agencies."*

The suggestion about mentorship has been consistent with the literature suggesting that women need mentors to promote other women to leadership roles. These do not necessarily have to be other women. I feel that men must do our part as well to promote leadership for women and add diversity to the leadership team. This will be further explored in the recommendation section.

Table K: Female Male Comparison: In your experience, has ethnicity helped or hindered you in getting a leadership position?

Prompt	Female	Male	Percent	Partici pants
It has helped me to secure a leadership position.	38	39	29.3%	77
It has hindered me to secure a leadership position.	15	8	8.7%	23
It has neither helped me nor hindered me to secure a leadership position.	87	76	62.0%	163
Skipped				4

When asked whether ethnicity played a role in helping or hindering participants in securing a leadership position, there were about the same number of men and women who indicated that it had helped them. On the other hand, even though the number was low, there were more women who indicated that ethnicity had hindered them in getting a job. However, the majority of participants reported that it had neither helped them nor hindered them to secure a leadership position.

Table K-1: Ethnicity Comparison: In your experience, has ethnicity helped or hindered you in getting a leadership position?

Prompt	African descent	Asian or Pacific Islander descent	Euro pean desce nt	Hispani c or Latino descent	Middle Eastern / Arab descent	Percent	Partici pants
It has helped me to secure a leadership position.	0	3	74	0	0	29.5%	77
It has hindered me to secure a leadership position.	4	6	11	5	0	8.8%	23
It has neither helped me nor hindered me to secure a leadership position.	2	8	146	7	2	61.7%	161
Skipped							4

Of the 77 participants who reported that ethnicity had helped them in securing a leadership role, 74 were of European descent and three were of Asian descent. Conversely, of the 23 participants, who indicated that their ethnicity had hindered them, 4 were of African descents, 6 of Asian descents, 11 of European descents, and 5 of Hispanic descents. While the data represented a small number, it was significant and should be noted that of the 23 people who reported that ethnicity was a hindrance, 15 of those were non-European descents.

146 of 235 leaders of European descent reported that ethnicity neither helped or hindered them to secure a leadership position. Only three non-European leaders indicated that ethnicity helped them to secure a position. Compared to the non-European leaders, 74 of 235 European leaders reported that ethnicity had helped them to secure a job. Only 11 of 235 European leaders reported that it had hindered them in securing a leadership job compared to 15 out of 37 non-European leaders. The total number of non-European leaders in this study was already low and to report that 15 of the 37 participants had experienced that their ethnicity was a hindrance shows that it was not favorable for non-European leaders in the job search. Therefore, the data implies that recruitment is much more favorable for someone who is of a European descent.

The fact that 15 out of 37 participants of non-European descents reported that they had faced hindrance in finding a job, it is consistent with studies "showing discrimination in subtle behaviors in interaction suggest that implicit prejudice is negatively related to comfort in interaction with minority candidates, for instance, which may then affect decisions (e.g. hiring) by subtly affecting opinions toward candidates in interactions relevant to important decisions (e.g. hiring interviews)" (Duster, 2008).

During the summer of 2017, while analyzing the data, I began the recruiting process to look for my next leadership job. There was one in my home country of Vietnam for a head of school position. I interviewed with the recruiter, who thought that I would make a great candidate as a Vietnamese American to lead a school because I knew the country, culture, and language. He said that he would pass my file onto the board chair and have a conversation with her about his perspective and what he thought about all the candidates. He gave me a strong indication that I would make a great candidate for the school. I felt optimistic that I would make it to the next round. Unfortunately, I received an email from him which indicated that the board chair did not want someone with my "background" leading the school. He also noted that it had nothing to do with my experience, which was very strong. It was my background, meaning my ethnicity, which was a barrier to move on to the next step of the recruitment process.

While I was completely disappointed, once again, I was not surprised by the fact that I was passed over for a job due to my ethnicity. The fact that these incidences continue to happen in the current job market is a most frustrating and painful reality for people like me, who are of non-European descent. However, seeing the data that 19 out of 37 non-European leaders stated that ethnicity neither helped or hindered them to secure a leadership position and three Asians/Pacific Islanders said that their ethnicity had helped them in getting a job provided me with some hope. On the other hand, 15 of the 37 people of a non-European ethnicity reported that their ethnicity had hindered them in getting obtaining a leadership position. While the number was a small representative sample, it is still important since it indicates that there still exist a larger portion of candidates who have experienced the same type of discrimination I have.

The American School Superintendent: 2010 Decennial Study showed that minority group respondents were more than twice as likely as their peers in the non-minority group to report that they had encountered discrimination in their pursuit of the superintendency.

According to Critical Race Theory, racism can be analyzed at the individual level such as I have experienced. However, in looking at racism at the individual level, racism is limited in seeing the misbehaviors or poor attitudes of individuals of one group towards another person of another group. Unfortunately, "the focus on explicit acts has ignored the subtle, hidden, and insidious forms of racism that operate at a deeper, more systemic level" (Lopez, 2003, p. 70). The focus needs to shift to the systemic level of institutional racism. Additionally, the goals of Critical Race Theory are to understand the current social situation, examine its current trends, and change it. In doing this research, I am highlighting the systemic injustice that exists in international schools, where those who are European descent dominate leadership roles. Critical Race Theory also challenges people to partake in activism for social change, which I am hoping to do regarding gender and ethnic diversity of leaders in international schools. Therefore, shifting from an individual focus to examining the data at a global level.

Table L: Female Male Comparison: In your experience, has both gender and ethnicity helped or hindered you in getting a leadership position?

Prompt	Female	Male	Percent	Partici pants
It has helped me to secure a leadership position.	18	34	20.1%	52
It has hindered me to secure a leadership position.	27	5	12.5%	32
It has neither helped me nor hindered me to secure a leadership position.	91	84	67.6%	175
Skipped				8

In total, similar to other data above, almost 70 percent of the participants indicated that gender and ethnicity neither helped or hindered them in getting a leadership role. There were 52 people or 20 percent who indicated that both characteristics had helped them. There were more men who reported that both gender and ethnicity had helped them in getting leadership job. On the other hand, 32 people or 12.5 percent reported that both gender and ethnicity hindered them. There were significantly more women, 27 to 5 men who indicated that both gender and ethnicity hindered them.

Table M: Ethnicity Comparison: In your experience, has both gender and ethnicity helped or hindered you in getting a leadership position?

Prompt	African descent	Asian or Pacific Islander descent	European descent	Hispanic or Latino descent	Middle Eastern / Arab descent	Percent	Participants
It has helped me to secure a leadership position.	0	1	49	2	0	20.2%	52
It has hindered me to secure a leadership position.	4	4	21	3	1	12.5%	32
It has neither helped me nor hindered me to secure a leadership position.	2	11	158	7	1	67.3%	173
Skipped							8

In disaggregating the data further into the breakdown of the ethnicities, of the 52 people or 20 percent indicated that both characteristics had helped them, with 49 of them of European descent, 1 of Asian descent and 2 of Hispanic descent. On the other hand, of the 32 people or 12.5 percent who reported that both gender and ethnicity hindered them, 4 were of African descent, 4 of Asian descent, 21 of European descent, 3 of Hispanic descent and 1 of Middle Eastern descent. There were more people of non-European descent that reported that both gender and ethnicity had hindered them in obtaining a leadership position which represented 12 of the 32 people or 38 percent. Conversely, there were more people of European descent who reported that both characteristics had helped them, 49 of the 52 people, or 92 percent.

Table N: Who said that ETHNICITY has HELPED them in securing a leadership position

	Male	Female		African	Asian	European	Hispanic	Arab	Total
		Breakdown of total number of participants who completed the follow up survey by positions and ethnicities.							
HoS	1					1			1
ESP	1	2			1	2			3
K8P									
MSP		1				1			1
HSP	2	1				3			3
SSP									0
DoS		1				1			1
Total	4	5		0	1	8	0	0	9

In the data set, there were 77 participants who indicated that ethnicity helped them to secure a leadership position. Of the 77 participants, 29 volunteered to do a follow-up survey. Of these, only 9 completed it. Of the respondents, one was of Asian descent and the remaining eight were of European descent. The number was consistent with the number of people of European descent that reported that ethnicity had helped them in **Table K-1. Ethnicity Comparison: In your experience, has ethnicity helped or hindered you in getting a leadership position?** Of the 77 participants who reported that ethnicity had helped them in securing a leadership role, 74 were of European descent and three were of Asian descent.

As one Asian female Elementary School Principal commented that being of Asian descent has helped her in her job:

> *Coupled with my education and experiences, I feel that being a female, Asian leader has worked in my favor to secure leadership positions in Asia. Although raised in the United States, I am able to identify with Asian values and cultures. This has enabled me to empathize with the children and families that I work with and build connections. In some of my interactions with parents, I have perceived that they feel more at ease sharing concerns with me as compared to my Caucasian colleagues. I think this has been value added.*

Of the three who were of Asian descent, similar to what the above participant has indicated, I view being Asian American as an asset to international schools with Asian families. I have experienced the value added from the large Asian population in the previous school and my current school, where parents have told me that they appreciate that I am of Asian descent, providing a good role model for their children to recognize

that someone from an Asian background can achieve to be principal of an international school.

Of the 77 participants who reported that ethnicity had helped them in securing a leadership role, 74 were of European descents. The White privilege and unspoken benefits of being of European descent created opportunities for these participants. Other ethnicities did not report equal benefits. On the contrary, they reported that their non-European ethnicities had hindered them in obtaining a leadership position. In general, most White people do not see themselves as raced nor have they received any privileges as a result of their racial identity of Whiteness (Kendall, 2002). They have gotten their positions because of their hard work and talent. "While this is true of many White people, there are some Whites who do see themselves as raced and who understand the systemic privilege accorded to their locatedness" (McMahon, 2007, p. 687).

European male Head of School:

> *"I'm not 100% sure that my ethnicity helped me get a position, but the school was for Chinese nationals, and they definitely seemed to expect a White face to be the head of the school."*

European female High School Principal:

> *"As a White person I am perceived as the preferred ethnicity to be a leader in an international school - it looks and feels better for parents as they are seeking a 'Western' education and on some level that equates with 'White'."*

European male High School Principal:

> *"In previous leadership positions I held in Asia, there definitely seemed to be a desire to have a 'White face' at the top. I think the expectation came from the parent body."*

> *"I am a White, mid-western (American) male. I had not taught two years before I was asked if I was interested in administration. Luckily I waited 15 years before I pursued administration."*

European female Director of Studies:

> *"In my school, most leadership positions are only open to "Western" international teachers. Chinese teachers cannot get most positions of leadership. Therefore, despite the fact that there are many well-qualified Chinese teachers, one reason (not the main reason) that I got my leadership position was because I was Western."*

European male Elementary School Principal:

> *"When people send their child to an international school, they are looking to have their child learn through a 'western style' education system. In order to provide this, leaders and teachers will generally come from places where this type of educational experience is offered/common (places such as Australia, New Zealand, USA, UK, Canada etc). It therefore follows that in hiring teachers and school leaders at these international schools, staff will generally come from these countries and in most cases, this seems to be from the countries previously mentioned, where people of European descent are in greater proportion in the educational systems. As an Australian, I feel that this helped me to gain hiring first as a teacher and later as a school leader in an international setting."*

European female Elementary School Principal:

> *"I can't prove it to be true, but I am certain that being a White, American female made becoming an Elementary Principal at an American International School easier and without hurdles. I realized this after some time working with my Director on recruiting issues as well as how he made decisions regarding ES vs. MS and HS divisions. In our school, we hired only 2 teachers 'of color' and very few that were not American, British, Canadian, Australian or New Zealander."*

European female Middle School Principal:

> *"In my first position, it was more of a language advantage than an ethnicity. However, being bilingual put me out ahead of my male counterpart. Being White in SE Asia has all kinds of unspoken benefits which are a little scary - we cannot get used to thinking this is normal and the way we deserve to be treated."*

Above and below are accounts from those who recognized that their European descent has helped them in securing a job. In the eight accounts from people of European descent, all provided accounts of how their Whiteness had helped them acquire their leadership role. One even recalled being asked to go into administration with less than two years of experience. Another shared that in her school, Chinese teachers could not get leadership positions, even when they were well-qualified. The open responses by these leaders of European descent leaders are consistent with claims that the power and privilege attached to Whiteness is invisible because it is so pervasive in our current society. "It's sort of like asking fish to notice water or birds to discuss air. For those who have privilege . . . it just is – it's normal" (Kendall's, 2002, p. 1).

I acknowledge that these are enlightened individuals who see that race does play a role in recruitment. While they see and benefit from it, I wonder if they would do anything in the future to help recruit non-European leaders to rectify for the imbalance of ethnicities in leaderships in international schools.

One White female Canadian principal reported:

> *"Whiteness is a big advantage in terms of promotion in terms of understanding the culture and knowing the hierarchy and knowing how to navigate it. I see Whiteness has been for me, has gotten me where I am today, hugely. I like to think I'm a talented individual but I think if I'd been a black talented individual I would not be here, at all"* (McMahon, 2007, p. 692).

Individual White people may not intentionally benefit from the systemic privileges attached to their race nor may they be aware of their privilege that comes along with it. However, "the creation of a system in which race plays a central part – one that codifies the superiority of the White race over all others – has been in no way accidental or haphazard" (Kendall, 2002, p. 2).

> *"At its most basic, according to Lawrence (1997), Whiteness is a physical descriptor that includes Western European physical features and limited pigmentation of the skin, and a second layer defines Whiteness as privilege. The third and final layer is "the ideology of Whiteness, [which] refers to beliefs, policies and practices (often unarticulated) that enable Whites to maintain power and control in society" (p. 108). Whiteness, blackness, etc., are socially constructed and the inequities inherent in their construction are reproduced and reinforced within educational institutions"* (Fine, 1997, p. 58).

As McMahon succinctly puts it, "since all Whites benefit from and are implicated in inequitable educational institutions, the onus is on all Whites to work to dismantle them" (McMahon, 2007, p. 689). This would be challenging as they benefit from it. In general, it would be difficult for someone to give up the benefits they receive for the greater good of all others.

Table O: Who said that ETHNICITY has HINDERED them in securing a leadership position

Breakdown of total number of participants who completed the follow up survey by positions and ethnicities.									
	Male	Female		African	Asian	European	Hispanic	Arab	Total
HoS	2					2			2
ESP		2			1		1		2
K8P									0
MSP		1					1		1
HSP									0
SSP									0
DoS	1					1			1
Total	3	3		0	1	3	2	0	6

In the data set, there were 23 participants who indicated that ethnicity hindered them to secure a leadership position. Of the 23 participants, 16 volunteered to do a follow-up survey; of these, only six participants responded.

Female Hispanic Elementary School Principal:

> *"The General Director openly said the School would look better with an American or Canadian in this position. He even said the board felt parents did not pay as much as they did for a school if the principal was going to be Latino."*

Female Hispanic Middle School Principal:

> *"All throughout my career, people have commented on how I don't look Latin, or how they can't detect a hispanic accent, or how they thought I married my European husband for a 'green card' exit out of my country... Nobody has explicitly said that they expect me to be less competent because I am hispanic, but they make comments about my ethnicity while they don't comment on the ethnic background of Anglo-Saxon colleagues."*

Female Asian Elementary School Principal:

> *"Currently the dominant profile of leaders in international schools is male and Caucasian. As an Asian American female with an Japanese first and last name, there have been occasions where the name at the top of my resume put me into a different category than those who are making those decisions. I feel that often there are stereotypes that are associated with not having a Westernized name and I struggle with presenting myself accurately on paper. Once people meet me and speak with me, often people will ask where I was raised or educated. I feel that this is an indication that my name brings forward a preconceived bias that I can not overcome until people speak with me. It has not directly hindered me from obtaining a leadership position but I am very aware of this difference when meeting people, even though we work in an international context. Until leadership teams are more diverse, I feel that this is something that silently works against me at times."*

This Female Asian Elementary School Principal's comment is precise why I have changed my name on my resume to an American name as I have experienced discrimination in the past when I first applied for work in Japan.

Male European descent Head of School:

> *"I did not realise this was just for international school experience. I was referring to my experience in USA public schools were applicants were selected because of a desire to have so many non-caucasian in positions of leadership in the system as an [sic] pro-diversity or affirmative action initiative. I was not opposed to this and I was eventually selected; however, it was the practice in the school system. In our international school as HOS I have selected a non-western or non-USA/Canada leader to add ethnic diversity in our leadership team when the candidates were rated closely.*

Male European descent Director of Studies:

> *"There is deep competition for job I am interested in, I often hear that individuals hiring are 'looking for a White male' to take the leadership position. I often wonder if is a benefit or a hindrance to be in the ethnic majority."*

When looking at the data where both gender and ethnicity had helped or hindered the participants to secure a leadership position, the data was consistent with previous data in terms of both the perspective of gender and ethnicity. As in previous sections, the majority reported that both have neither helped nor hindered them in securing a leadership position. In terms of gender, more males than females reported that their gender and ethnicity had helped them secur a job than their female counterparts. On the other hand, more females than males reported that both gender and ethnicity had hindered them in securing a job than their male counterparts.

Furthermore, most respondents of European descent reported that both gender and ethnicity had helped them secure a job, while only three non-Europeans reported that both have helped them secure a leadership role. In contrast, there were more people of non-European descent who indicated that both gender and ethnicity had hindered them in obtaining a leadership role.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

The goal of this research is to highlight the trend that already exists at the national level and provide data at the international level which did not exist before this study.

According the national data in several countries, in particular from US Department of Education, in 2011-12, there were about the same number of male principals as female principals. The percentage of female principals decreases moving from primary schools to high schools. Therefore, there are fewer males in primary schools than in high schools. While my data set is on a much smaller scale, it is consistent with the national data from the US. A total of 267 people took the survey. The data shows that females and males are fairly evenly divided with slightly more females in leadership positions in international schools. Similar to the data at the national level, particularly in the US, there are more female principals in elementary schools, even numbers in middle schools and secondary schools, while there are more male principals in the high school. The director of studies does not exist at the national level in the data, but the data in international schools shows that there are more women than men in the role.

When examining the highest level of school leadership such as superintendents in the United States or heads of school / directors in international schools, the number of female and male leaders who hold these roles still favor the male gender. There is a gender balance between men and women when looking at principal roles. It is important to note this because aspiring principals would eventually become superintendents. Since there is a gender balance of men and women in the field, one would infer that there would exist a similar trend in the balance of gender in the superintendent role. If one were to extrapolate the data to the highest position in schools, the pattern of gender imbalance should disappear. Unfortunately, it does not. According to The American School Superintendent: 2010 Decennial Study, only 24 percent of superintendents who were women. This number was about half of the percentage of principals, where women represented about 50 percent of the principal workforce. However, while there was an increasing trend of more women in the superintendent role, the data consistently showed that it did not reflect the gender balance of the principals.

In international schools, the trajectory to the head of school position normally comes from the pool of principals and directors of studies. A few bigger schools have the deputy head position; therefore, there might be another role that principals and directors of studies might have to attain before moving into the head of school position. However, in most cases, experienced principals move from their principal or director of studies roles into a head of school position.

In my study in 2017, the pattern is similar to the national data. There exists a balance in gender in the principal roles and even more women in the director of studies. Similarly, if one were to extrapolate the data to predict that there would be a similar trend of gender balance in heads of school / directors in international schools, it would be about 50 percent of both genders. However, the international data shows that only 38 percent of the heads of school were women. While the number looks promising for women, the data is still well below what one might predict according to the data of principals and directors of studies.

The intersection of leadership and gender shows that there are equal opportunities for men and women in principal roles, with more women in elementary schools and more men in high schools. Additionally, based on the data between the national and international data, there are 14 percent more women in the head of school role in international schools than the superintendent role in the United States. One could say that women would fare better in looking for a head of school position in international schools than at the national level in the United States.

According to the Institute of Education Sciences and National Center for Educational Statistics in the United States in the 2007-2008 school year, White principals represented 82 percent of all principals and non-White principals represented only 18 percent. Additionally, according to the US Department of Education in 2011-12, there were a total of 84 percent of principals were White and only 16 percent were non-White. Even after four years, the percentage of non-Whites remained similar in both studies.

In extrapolating the data of the ethnicity of the principals to examine highest position of superintendent in the United States, one would predict that there should exist between 16 to 18 percent of superintendent roles would go to people not of European descent. However, according to The American School Superintendent: 2000 and 2010 Decennial Study reported that the number of minorities represented only four percent in 2000 and five percent in 2010, of the all of superintendents in the United States. This number is significantly lower than the number of minority principals.

In the study, there were a total of 190 principals and director of studies, of those, there were a total of 155 participants, approximately 82 percent, who were of European descents and 35 participants, approximately 18 percent, who were of non-European descents. Similar to the national data, if one were to extend the data to the highest position in international schools, one would predict that there should be about approximately 18 percent of people of non-European descent at that level. Of the 77 head of school positions, only two were of Non-European descent - one was of African

descent and the other was of Asian descent, representing 3 percent of respondents at that level. The number was significantly lower than those in the principal and director of studies positions. Instead of only two people, in extending the data, there should be 13 to 14 heads of schools who are of non-European descent.

In examining the intersection of ethnicity and leadership position, the number of principals at the national and international levels were very similar, with approximately 16 to 18 percents who were of non-European / non-White. My study is consistent with the data from the us. However, at the highest level of superintendent and head of school positions, there were approximately five percent in 2010 in the US. In constrast, there were less than 3 percent of leaders of non-European descent who held the head of school position internationally.

Table D3. Gender and Ethnicity

Ethnicity	Female	Male	Percent	Participants
African descent	4	2	2.3%	6
Asian or Pacific Islander descent	11	6	6.4%	17
European descent	118	117	88.7%	235
Hispanic or Latino descent	9	3	4.5%	12
Middle Eastern or Arab descent	1	1	0.8%	2
Skipped				2

Finally, in looking at the intersection of gender and ethnicity, there is almost an exact divide in gender with participant ofEuropean descent. There are four African descent females versus two males, 11 Asian descent females versus six males, nine Hispanic descent females versus three males and one of each gender of Middle Eastern descent; in total there are 25 females of non-Euorpean descent versus 12 males. The intersection of gender and ethnicity consists of a higher representation of women than men. However, of the 77 Head of School / Director positions, 75 of the participants are of European descent, with a total of 29 females, approximately 39 percent, and 46 male, approximately 61 percent. There are only two at this level of Non-European descent - one African descent male and one Asian descent male.

Because the data shows that there is equal gender representation withinpeople of Europeandescent, one would predict the same representation at the head of school position. However, there are more men in this position than women. Additionally, because there are almost double the number of non-European women in principal and director of studies positions, one would predict that at least there would exist one female non-European head of school; however, there are none.

If we were to extend the learning from the Brown vs. Board of Education case which caused a dramatic drop in the number of African American princpals and "Black prinpals were often denied the opportunity and authority to act on behalf of Black children in the implementation of desegregation" (Tillman, 2004, p. 103). Therefore, African American students had fewer African American role models in educational leadership positions. One could argue the same for students all around the world. In looking at the low number of principals and head of schools of non-European descent at international schools, students in African, Asia, the Middle East and South American do not have role modles they can look up to and aspire to be. The research from Tillmand (2004) and Sanchez et al. (2008) shows that black and Latino principals and school leaders represent effective role models for minority students and the role model figure in students' lives is significant to the development of their identity and future aspirations.

As Liang and Peters-Hawkins (2017) hone in their research on the experiences of Asian American women to challenge the dominant discourse "about who can and should be school leaders and how schools can and should be led for equity, diversity, and social transformation" (p. 63), I, too, hope to challenge the discourse in international schools. Their study and my study hope to add new perspective, personal narrative, intersectionality, and voice to underrepresented ethnic minorities, women and educational leadership.

Chapter 8: Recommendations

The study raised many more questions that need further research in terms of gender, ethnicity and leadership in international schools around the world. Some of the recommendations come from comments raised by the participants which have captured my interest. My hope is that future researchers in this field will expand on this research to add depth to the data.

The data shows that there are equal numbers of both genders in leadership positions. Of the 267 participants who answered the gender question, about 53 percent were female and 47 percent were. In looking at the data as a whole set, there does not seem to be an imbalance of gender in leadership positions.

One suggestion was to allow participants to select their own categories for the purpose of true identity for intersection. While I agree with the suggestion, allowing participants to select categories not predetermined by the researcher would be difficult as it would be too opened ended and comparison of data would be nearly impossible. Therefore, the dissertation focuses on individuals self-identifying their own ethnicity from five pre-selected ethnicities and seven pre-selected leadership positions. Individuals have the liberty of self-identification for both position and ethnicity, especially when one identifies with more than one ethnicity and they do not have to feel locked into one category.

Out of 77 Heads of School / Directors, there are 29 females and 48 males. For principal positions, there are 76 females and 64 males. All the principal positions were fairly evenly divided by gender with slightly more males leading high schools. The largest imbalance in gender was in Primary or Elementary Principal positions where there are 36 females compared to 19 males. There are also more females (36) to males (14) in the Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning position.

If I were to extrapolate the data and extend it to current leadership teams, one would find more men in heads of school positions, slightly more men in high school principal positions, a gender balance in middle school and secondary school principal positions, and more women in the director of studies positions. Overall, there should be approximately a 50 percent to 50 percent representation of both genders on teams. True data does not extend exactly this way and there might be more of one gender on some teams or more another gender on other teams.

However, in the follow up survey, some women reported that they saw fewer of their counterparts on their current teams. In contrast, no men reported this issue in their comments.

Because the data shows that women have a slightly higher representation in the data, this raises many questions of why some women have reported under representation on their teams. The data contains a small cohort of international school leaders; therefore, it may not reflect the real number of male and female leaders.

- Could there be more men in leadership roles and they have chosen not to take the survey?
- Could there be fewer women in leadership roles and they took the survey as it is an area they feel that affects them more than men?
- Could this be the perception of women only?

In terms of diversity, there is a greater imbalance with people of European descents and people of non-European descents, with just under 15 percent of the participants self-reporting as African, Asian, Hispanic / Latino or Middle Eastern descents.

To get the true data of leadership positions would require that all international schools report the gender and ethnicity of their teams. I would recommend that regional councils and associations of international schools such as the following require teams to register and report their data.

- AASSA: Association of American Schools in South America
- CEESA: Central and Eastern European Schools Association
- EARCOS: East Asia Regional Council of Overseas Schools
- ECIS: Educational (*formerly European*) Council of International Schools
- MAIS: Mediterranean Association of International Schools
- NESA: Near East South Asia Council of Overseas Schools
- And other councils and associations

The organizations above do not track the gender of the leaders of the schools that are registered in their conferences. Without tracking the data, one cannot help and promote women or bring ethnic diversity into the various leadership roles. The results could potentially help those looking for leadership positions in regional areas. Should the results show that a certain area is more open or less open to hiring women and minorities, it would provide more data for individuals whether or not to pursue leadership positions in those regions. At the same time, should the data show that one region has an imbalance in gender or ethnic diversity, I hope that the regional offices

would push the agenda further for schools in their region to reflect on their recruiting practices.

As Bush and Moloi (2008) reported, the LEA (Local Education Authorities in the UK) does not track BME (Black and Minority Ethnic) people and promoting them. They reported that there were very few Asian or Black heads; thus, "diversity at the very top is non-existent" (p. 107). This study is consistent with my study in terms of heads of school positions, where there exists a distinct imbalance of European descent men to women and even greater imbalance of leaders of European and non-European descents.

The data of gender and ethnicity from these regional councils and associations of international schools is of the utmost importance. The data may also potentially help national policy makers. I hope to influence policy change at the national and international level. I plan to share the outcomes of my data with directors of regional councils and associations and directors of recruitment agencies as they plan their recruitment strategies.

Additionally, some women also reported that they saw fewer of their counterparts in the recruitment process. While recruiting, one might expect to have more men in the finalist candidate pools for head of school searches, slightly more men in high school, equal representation in middle school and secondary schools and more women in elementary school and director of studies positions. As in the extrapolation above, when there is an equal representation of both genders in the data, there should also be equal representation in the finalist pools of leadership searches in international schools. Because the overall data shows that women have a slightly higher representation in the data, this raises other questions in the recruitment process.

- Could there be an equal number of applicants in both genders and men are being passed on by recruitment agencies, and women are not?
- Could there be more men who apply, therefore more men pass through to the finalist pools?
- Could the recruitment process favor men further in the process in the finalist pools?

To get the real data of the number of men and women who apply to leadership positions, I would recommend that recruitment agencies such as the following to require school leadership teams to collect and publish their data for potential candidates:

- Search Associates
- International School Services
- Council of International Schools
- Carney Sandoe and Associates

In general, "there is too much networking, nepotism, canvassing…and it is difficult for us to penetrate the networks our White colleagues have created in there" (Bush and Moloi, 2008, p. 107). Additionally, Ortiz (2000) notes that "the great majority of cases, however, show that succession is controlled by school board members and former superintendents holding search committee membership. Most of these individuals are White males" (p. 565). It is important to listen to the narrative of women and non-European individuals as their experiences are real and their counter-story are just as important to read.

DiTomaso (2015) points out that

> *"the charges that affirmative action constituted reverse discrimination against Whites and that minorities were violating the principles of 'color-blind' selection procedures ignored the history of White advantage in which color was very much part of the selection process, but to the benefit of White employees. A similar argument is provided by Katznelson (2005) in his analysis of 'when affirmative action was White'. The emphasis on "bias against' minorities and women, rather than the "bias for" Whites and men is especially noteworthy, given that in contrast to programs like diversity training and associated programs like mentoring and networking, affirmative action is one of the diversity programs that is effective in changing behavioral outcomes, specifically, in increasing the proportion of women and minorities in managerial jobs (Kalev et al., 2006). As long as bias for the normative ingroup is invisible and hidden from view, inequality within companies will be reproduced without anyone being liable for discriminatory behavior or for charges of racism as we usually think about those concepts"* (DiTomaso, 2015, p. 68).

Bush and Moloi (2008) reported that 43 percent of their research Black and Minority Ethnics (BME) participants encountered negative experiences and almost 54 percent asserted that being BME contributed to their problems. "These authors conclude that several candidates report racist experiences during the selection process: a significant number of leaders cite ethnicity as a factor in unsuccessful applications and several are concerned about unrepresentative selection panels ("a sea of White faces")" (p. 72). The same can be concluded with women when they go through the process with mostly men, in particular European descent men in the selection panel.

As I was recruiting for a new job this past school year, I was a finalist in two searches, one for a high school principal position and one for a middle school principal position. I also participated in one for my own school where I was leaving. One of my previous schools provided the data for me. The schools generously allowed me to share the data below:

High School 1
- Finalist Pool: Three men, one woman, three people of European descents and one Asian male. Final result: European descent male

In High School 1, at the time of recruitment, the composition of the leadership team consisted of a European male head of school, European male high school principal, European female middle school principal, European male elementary school principal and European male director of teaching and learning (studies).

High School 2
- Finalist Pool: One man, two women, all three of European descents. Final result: European descent female

In the High School 2, at the time of recruitment, the composition of the leadership team consisted of a European male head of school, European male high school principal, European male middle school principal, European male elementary school principal and European female director of teaching and learning (studies).

Middle School 1
- Finalist Pool: Two men, two women, three of European descent and one Asian male. Final result: Asian descent male

In the Middle School 1, at the time of recruitment, the composition of the leadership team consisted of a European male head of school, European male high school principal, European female middle school principal, European male elementary school principal and mixed European/Asian female director of teaching and learning (studies).

Middle School 2
- Finalist Pool: Two men, one woman, all three of European descent. Final result: European descent female

In the Middle School 2, at the time of recruitment, the composition of the leadership team consisted of a European male head of school, European female high school principal, Asian male middle school principal, European female elementary school principal and European male director of teaching and learning (studies).

In all four schools, I was the only non-European candidate in the searches and the only non-European in all of the leadership positions. There was one mixed European/Asian female director of teaching and learning (studies). The lack of diversity in the leadership positions was noticeable and confirmed what I have seen for the past 10 years in my administrative career.

In my study, about 89 percent of the participants were of European descents and 14 percent were of non-European descents. The total percentage is greater than 100 percent because there were some participants who selected more than one ethnicity. There was a total of 37 non-European leaders and out of those 37 participants, only two men hold the head of school position. Therefore, in additional to gender, I would also recommend the regional councils and associations of international schools and recruitment agencies to collect information on the ethnicity of school leaders and applicants as well.

> *"The under-representation of BME (Black and Minority Ethnic) teachers and leaders is also likely to be an ongoing problem in England and elsewhere unless clear and decisive action is taken to address the issue. Black children seeing few, if any, BME teachers, are unlikely to aspire to educational careers. Similarly, Black teachers who see all-White senior leadership teams are likely to conclude that leadership and management are the preserve of the majority group"* (Bush and Moloi, 2008, p. 115).

While being a finalist at the two different schools, I did not overtly experience racism; however, one piece of feedback that came from one school said that I was "too passive and too much like the host culture [an Asian country]" and that they were looking for someone who was more assertive. Unfortunately, Asians are often stereotyped as lacking characteristics such as assertiveness and charisma that are deemed essential for being effective leaders (Koch, 2011). I can only comment for myself that I have never seen myself as the passive type and very much see myself as more assertive. The fact that the person saw my Asian features and stereotyped me into a passive role was a surprise because it was a description that was new to me.

Research suggests that individuals cannot dispose themselves of the stereotypes they hold because they are part of the efficiency of thinking. Research also indicates that stereotyping is automatic as it is the first response and thought and that it often takes place sub-consciously (Bargh and Chartrand, 1999). Therefore, what that one individual

thought of me was the automatic response and stereotype of an Asian male who is more passive in the person's mind. "Although there are ways to influence how stereotypes affect our thinking, we cannot simply rid ourselves of stereotypes. To change such automatic responses, we must intentionally and purposefully alter the way we think about other people, for example, through such processes as decategorization or recategorization of group differences" (DiTomaso, 2015, p. 67).

As an Asian male who haas been working in Asia for the past five years and where the school consists of students largely of Asian descent, Asian students are seeing very few minorities in teaching and even fewer in leadership roles. Therefore, Asian teachers may have the same conclusion that the leadership positions are reserved for people of European descent.

The selection process that includes a diverse committee represented by the school is important. More importantly, at the top level, decision makers, such as the head of school and the board, need to make a commitment to change and provide opportunities to women and non-European candidates. Training for such a commitment and work is essential because "panels tend to appoint in their own likeness so it is unsurprising that all-White panels tend to appoint White candidates. All such panels should have sufficient representation from BME groups, particularly those present in the school community" (Bush and Moloi, 2007, p. 78). Discrimination begins at the recruitment and selection processes; therefore, schools need to developing and implement transparent processes to include gender and diversity in order for candidates to have equal access to appointments and promotions (Bush and Moloi, 2008).

The findings in the research of Davis et al. (2017)

> *"indicate that pathways to the principalship are neither race nor gender neutral. Hence, school organizations must be more cognizant of their personnel decisions. The same sorts of multicultural education and racial awareness training presented to students in many preparation programs ought to be experienced by those responsible for the selection and assignment of school leaders. We further recommend the monitoring of recruitment, selection, and assignment processes over time. Examining the demographics of those currently in the principalship may be revealing, but we must not lose sight of that fact that there is a point when it is too late to examine and address why disproportionality is present"* (Davis et. al, 2017, p. 234).

The role of school leadership might not be gender or ethnicity neutral. There exists "extensive evidence to show that such widely shared cultural associations favor Whites over blacks or men over women (and so on), these data are usually interpreted as support for bias 'against' nonWhites and others rather than as bias 'for' Whites (and

men)" (DiTomaso, 2015). This is evident in literature in the research. While there exists some gender imbalance in the primary to middle to high school principals, with more women in the primary principal roles and more men in the high school principal roles. As a result, there is overall balance of all principal roles. Then there is also a lopsidedness with head of school positions favoring men. There is a greater imbalance in the role of director of studies, favoring women and even a greater imbalance in terms of ethnicities, favoring European descents. The data might reveal what has existed. What's more important now is to address the disproportionality of these roles.

Additionally, one of the recommendations that came from one of the participants was to add another intersection of sexual orientation to the survey. As a gay man who has been working in international schools for almost 20 years, I see the value in the recommendation.

On a personal level, due to fear of rejection because of my sexual orientation, in my previous recruitment process, I searched for a leadership position and once I acquired the position, my partner found his way to our destination on his own. I landed a job as the Middle School Principal at an international school in Chennai, India. Because India did not recognize (still does not) same sex marriage, we found a way for him to come to India on his own visa. After one year working at a different school, he got a job in my school as well. Fortunately, my school was very open and accepting of our relationship.

During the fall of 2017, I was recruiting for the first time with my partner as a teaching couple. The legal status of being gay in different countries ranges from illegal to fully accepted including marriage. However, for most countries, it is somewhere in between. While it may be legal in many countries, same sex marriages are not recognized in the majority of countries; therefore, acquiring a spousal visa for him would nearly be impossible unless he secured a position as well.

During the process, we registered with two recruitment agencies and we registered as a teaching couple. Fortunately, we had full support from both agencies and the recruiters with whom we worked. I submitted my candidacy to a few schools. However, before moving forward in the process in every school, I also inquired about the acceptance of us as a couple in the school community with our recruiters. They also followed up with a conversation with the recruitment teams at the schools. Two schools said that their school community was too "conservative" for our marriage status. While they felt that they could not see me as a viable candidate due to solely my sexual orientation, they thought I would be a viable candidate with my experience. Because I would be a viable candidate, in two schools, the recruiters passed my profile to the both schools. The

recruiters both commented to me that schools need to be pushed to think about this issue more as there are more and more gay couples recruiting, especially in leadership roles. Unless homosexuality is illegal in a country, candidates should be considered for their experience and not their sexual orientation, such as one should not reject a candidate due to gender or ethnicity.

In another school, they reached out to one of my colleagues for an informal reference. When they found out that I was married to a man, the head of school hesitated and said that he would have to think about it because the position was a high profile position and very visible to the community. Unfortunately, I did not make it pass to the next stage that would allow me to present myself as a candidate for these schools. The recommendation from one of my participants for further research is valid and current. Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender (LGBT) people have faced and will continue to face challenges and have less access to developmental programs and promotion than heterosexual counterparts (Bierema, 2002). Lindley (2006) argued that "beyond the direct negative consequences of discrimination, LGBT individuals must devote considerable energy to issues not faced by heterosexuals, such as how to manage their sexual identity at work and how to react to societal messages regarding what are and are not "acceptable" occupations for lesbians or gay men" (p. 152). Discrimination that LGBT people face in the workplace is pervasive, with estimates approximately between 25 to 66 percent noted in the career development literature (Alderson, 2003).

I would recommend that further investigation is done in this field in international schools as gay men and women and trans people face rejection before the process can even begin in many of the schools.

In the Human Resources and Development (HRD) field, researchers and practitioners can help highlight this area for managers who might be well-intended and fair-minded and yet lack the skill set to deal with LGBT candidates and their employees when issues arise (Gedro, 2009). Some skills and interventions suggested by Gedro (2009) include "examining one's own biases, becoming lesbian/gay affirmative, learning a model of gay/lesbian identity development, becoming familiar with the culture, supplying reading about 'out' people, talking openly about employment discrimination, and helping clients overcome internalized negative stereotypes" (Gedro, 2009, p. 57). By initiating to develop skills in these areas, managers would raise their own awareness when they recruit and would know how to deal with LGBT employees better.

One other recommendation came from another participant regarding developing a mentorship program, which is consistent with the literature that educators need

mentors to promote other women and minorities to leadership roles. The importance of mentors and sponsors in recognizing and grooming aspiring educational administrators should not be underestimated and unfortunately, the lack of mentorship also holds true and can certainly stand in the way of getting a leadership position (Shakeshaft, 1987). Mentorship was found to be particularly important for the development of leadership in women (Peters, 2010). Alston (2000) suggests mentors play an important role in identifying of potential and aspiring leaders, and then cultivate the abilities of the mentees through intentional encouragement and formal mentoring in order to provide opportunities for these future leaders. Research indicates that the lack of support, encouragement and involvement by critical figures such as mentors has created barriers for women and underrepresented groups from attaining a leadership position (Coursen, Mazzarella, Jeffress, and Hadderman, 1989).

While doing this research, I worked with an African American woman in my school who was smart, a skilled teacher, and was very well respected by her peers. I recognized the potential leadership she possessed and encouraged her to take on leadership roles. In one year, she took on the head of department role and lead a recruitment committee that impressed everyone, including the head of school. She even registered to take two leadership courses over the summer on her way to administration. Bush, Glover, Sood, and Tangie (2005) suggested that developing confidence in mentees depends on appropriate support that they might need. They cited various experiences of some of their participants, including one Asian woman who stated, "For one year, I had a fantastic head of department. She became my mentor. Even after she left she continued to develop me ... She encouraged me to apply for posts I would never consider" (p. 19–20). In Liang and Peters-Hawkins' (2017) research, they provided two women's example who stated that their mentors had provided them many "opportunities through which not only did they realize they had what it takes to be a leader but also put their skills in practice and tested for improvement" (p. 55). Similarly, she said that she had thought about leadership before, but she was never encouraged and had never been mentored to pursue leadership positions. All she needed from me was a little encouragement and she did the rest. Unfortunately, mentoring opportunities remain limited for minority women.

Unfortunately, the opposite also holds true, that the absence of a mentor can stand in the way of promotion. Coursen et al. (1989) note that when older administrators choose their prospective mentees to groom to be the future leaders, they aim to replicate themselves, meaning that White men will seek to mentor other White men. DiTomaso (2015) agrees that in most cases, White men in the leadership positions are likely to pass along opportunities to other White men. Therefore, this might presumably be the reason why White men have retained and maintained their advantages and positions in the

labor market. DiTomaso goes further to argue that "women and minority employees are likely to have mentors who give them advice, while White men are likely to have sponsors who provide them with opportunities" (DiTomaso, 2015, p. 70). This is a different perspective in terms of opportunities rather than just advice. Thus, African American women may face a "double bind" barrier of both race and gender bias as they seek mentors from among a network that does not consist of too many like them, both African American and female (Doughty, 1980). As my mentee who is an African American, as Shakeshaft (1987) suggests, she would "[suffer] doubly in the area of sponsorship because White men tend to promote other White men because school administrators are predominantly White and male" (Allen, Jacobson, and Lomotey, 1995, p. 410).

Bush and Moloi (2008) point to the need for positive role models, and mentors who not only provide advice and opportunities for growth, but it is important that mentors recognize the cultural and contextual issues involved for their mentee. Only two (out of the 11) women in Liang and Peters-Hawkins' (2017) study had other women of color administrators as their mentors. However, they also suggested that it was necessary to have women of color to be mentors because of the limited number and finding one would be challenging.

> *"Nevertheless, the women who had women of color mentors noted the greater trust in these relationships because of shared experiences of being a minority woman in school leadership. For instance, Amanda spoke about her female Mexican American mentor: She has been a great mentor to really talk about all the things: race, gender, things that mill you. . . She is the one that I can have conversations that I cannot have with the other mentors. There is this baseline of an understanding that we face things, challenges and perceptions that other people do not have and an understanding of privileges, privileges that I do not have and privileges that I do have"* (Liang and Peters-Hawkins, 2017, p. 55)

Much like what I have found as one of the few Asian male school leaders, Rapaido (2011) found that Asian American women administrators (in Northern California) feel invisible; therefore, isolated as they lack access to a network to others like them. According to Liang and Peters-Hawkins (2017), "the women in their study found themselves 'extremely noticeable' because they were 'the only' Asian American female administrators in their respective school districts" (p. 59).

Muñoz et al. (2014) stated that there is sufficient evidence and research to encourage for women to obtain mentors as a part of their development or become a mentor to help the advancement of other women. Berta (2005) concurs that mentors are absolutely necessary to advance in one's career development because mentors provide support and encouragement, in particular, building a mentees' confidence. However, generally, they

may not be in the position or have the ability to promote. Berta (2005) suggests that individuals need to find sponsors because they are in the position to promote. The difference and distinction between the two roles is important as mentors provide advice, support and encouragement while sponsors provide opportunities. While I do not fully agree with the distinction because mentors can also point mentees in the right direction, write an email of support for the mentee's candidacy or even call to refer them, I do believe that finding someone to give one an opportunity is absolutely essential.

Further to add to this research, Glass et al. (2000) found that one of the most significant barriers that women face in aspiring to superintendency role is the lack of female role models and mentors to support them to ascend into the role. "Mentors are crucial because they often can recommend female candidates, and serve as validators of the female candidates among existing superintendents and school boards" (Muñoz et. al., 2014, p. 769). Bulls' (1987) study of "the career paths of nine African American women superintendents and their strategies for success confirms the importance of mentors. Bulls also suggests that African American women administrators need broad networks of support and work experience at the central office level before they can attain superintendency positions" (Lomotey, 1993, p. 412). These do not necessarily have to be other women. I feel that we men must do our part as well to promote leadership for women and add diversity to the leadership team. Some of the comments of the African American women superintendent included the following: "I didn't think that minority children had the representation they should have. I didn't think there were enough role models of African American women" (Lomotey, 1993, p. 415).

While this research does not touch on the perception of male, female, and leadership traits, the views do exist. Although, there were only seven comments and two shared their perceptions of gender in the Appendix 1. As an Asian man, I had a strong negative reaction to comments made by the male of European that being a White middle-aged male equates to what is expected to represent leaders. Comments such as these is exactly what I want to challenge. At the same time, the comment by one European female implies that men cannot have focused traits of empathy and compassion. Perception cannot be taken away from people; however, these types of perception perpetuate narrow views of what is expected of each gender and what each gender can and cannot do.

Finally, when using the Intersectionality framework, one needs to consider class and educational backgrounds of participants. One can imply that all education leaders have an undergraduate college education in order to obtain a leadership position. Most would like have a master's degree, advanced certificate or higher. Crossing referencing this with class would further add depth to the research as well. It would be interesting to

look at the class level and educational background of the international school leaders. This area of research might provide rich data of the participants, whether there exists any diversity in terms of the class of these leaders growing up. Would most international school leaders be from the middle and upper class? How many would be from the lower or disadvantaged class?

As a former refugee from Viet Nam, who is from the lowest class and who attended public primary, secondary and university growing up, I think I would be an outlier or exception to the dominant discourse of international school leaders.

Chapter 9: Significance and Contributions to the Research

Since about 14 percent of people leadership roles are Non-European, one would think that there would be an equal number of Non-European leaders who hold the Head of School / Director position in international schools. If one were to extend the data to all positions and if the data were consistent, there should be about 11 Non-European Heads of School / Directors in my study. The data from **Table B1: Head of School / Director Position** shows that there are only two Non-Europeans who hold this position, significantly lower than 11. The data of the head of school position confirmed what I had expected, which was that there be more men than women in the role. The imbalance of gender in Head of School / Director positions, favoring males and a greater imbalance between ethnicities, favoring people of European descent raises big questions about the hiring practices of international schools, in particular about the board of directors who are responsible for hiring Head of School / Director positions.

The balance of gender surprised me because I had anticipated an imbalance of men to women. I did not expect that there would be so many women in leadership positions— around 50 percent in the overall. The data left me wondering if there were men out there who did not take the survey because it would not benefit them. In one of the survey results, one self-identified European male voluntarily wrote that he faced discrimination and did not get the job because of his gender and ethnicity. I wonder if other males did not take the survey as they might view the survey data would not benefit them and would even harm their chances of obtaining a job due to the perception of imbalance in gender. Davis et al. (2017) found in their research of principalships that

> *"are suggestive of systemic, gendered, and racial biases, action must be taken to ensure that aspiring leaders at all intersections of race and gender are afforded equitable opportunity to bring their abilities to the principalship, thus influencing the public school leadership ranks to be all the more responsive to that of increasingly diverse student bodies. However, we need to know what causes and perpetuates these inequities, and that can only be done by first acknowledging them and their importance"* (Davis et. al, 2017, p. 231).

Similar to Davis et al. (2017), I wonder about the inequities and imbalance in gender at the head of school level and the diversity in all leadership positions in international schools. I believe that having more diverse ethnic diversity will help educators be more responsive to the diverse population that exists at international schools.

As I refer back to Feagin and Elias' (2012) critique, they state that the strongest, perhaps the most powerful points in Omi and Winant's (1994) theory is the underestimation of the key role of White social players in supporting and maintaining the structures of racism. Because the White players are the ones supporting and maintaining the

imbalance in diversity in leadership, they are the ones ultimately responsible for dismantling it and balancing out the inequality that currently exists.

I would like to share my findings with the different regional international or oversea schools' offices. When they are provided with this data, I wonder how or if it would inform any of their decision making pertaining to collecting data about the gender and ethnicity data of leaders in international schools in their region. "Not enough attention in the management and organization literatures has been given to the ways that inequality, including that in organizations, needs to be legitimated, and therefore, why favoritism, preference, or advantage are more likely dynamics than discrimination and racism in the maintenance of inequality over the long term" (DiTomaso, 2015, p. 59). I hope that the regional offices would be more aware and critical of the inequality and imbalance that exists. Therefore, I also wonder whether it would change the practices of international schools.

As the research highlights these results, I hope to empower those individuals and groups with this information to raise their own awareness and recognize their biases in order to make choices and to transform the current landscape of inequality in gender in the head of school position and add more ethnic diversity to leadership positions in international schools. My hope is that the results of the intersectionality of these categories promotes positive social change and recruitment practices in international schools as I was inspired by the activism tenet of the Critical Race Theory.

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Appendix 1: Follow-Up Survey: Gender Helped in Obtaining a Leadership Position in International Schools

Gender	Ethnicity	Position	Open-Ended Response
Male	European descent	Primary or Elementary Principal	Being a male in early years education. Fit the profile for what is expected in a leader, male, white, middle aged.
Female	European descent	Secondary School Principal	There are very few Secondary Principals often there is only one or two female candidates that apply. This has resulted in being selected for every job I have applied.
Male	Asian or Pacific Islander descent	Primary or Elementary Principal	Coupled with my education and experiences, I feel that being a female, Asian leader has worked in my favor to secure leadership positions in Asia. There are few Asian women leaders that I have come to know while working in international schools, and I think my profile has added to the diversity of the schools where I have worked.
Female	European descent	Middle School Principal	At the time there was a school leadership team of of 7 males and 1 female and the female was leaving so the school only interviewed internal female candidates. Five females applied for the position.
Female	European descent	Middle School Principal	As a former ES Principal (10 years) and current MS Principal (3 years) I feel that my gender has been an advantage in my current position as the Leadership Team (9 people) was made up of 8 men and 1 female. Thus, in the interest of enhancing the existing gender balance, the school was ideally looking for a female candidate to fill the MS Principal position. Given that I had the depth of leadership experience they were seeking and strong references, I feel being female gave me an edge.
Female	European descent	Head of School / Director	In my past two leadership recruitment processes, my competitors were all male (and caucasion). However, there were jobs I applied to and was not selected with similar applicant pools. I don't see how this survey could identify the reasons for selection above other candidates. One would hope that it has to do with the skills and qualities that I bring to the role instead of some type of perception about the type of leader I am by gender or ethnicity. It may be possible that the schools were looking for a change of 'profile' or image as my predecessors were older white males. It always seems a bit of a mystery as to

| | | | why, as a candidate, you are selected or rejected for various roles. Perhaps asking the recruiting teams would give a different perspective. |
| Female | European descent | Head of School / Director | I believe that the "female" focused traits of empathy, compassion and multitasking have greatly benefitted me in my career. |

Appendix 2: Follow-Up Survey: Gender Hindered in Obtaining a Leadership Position in International Schools

Gender	Ethnicity	Position	Open-Ended Response
Male	European descent	Head of School / Director	I do not know if I have been hindered or not in consideration for positions; however, i have chosen a "more at risk" choice or " between two equal choices to add more diversity to our Administrative team in two different international schools. All candidates were qualified but in choosing between candidates a diversity need on the team was considered and a female candidate was chosen over a male candidate. I don't know if this qualifies by your definition of gender bias.
Female	European descent	Primary or Elementary Principal	I applied for leadership positions 4 times in the middle school I worked in as a teacher and 4 times the job went to males, 3 times the males had few qualifications but had worked with the hiring manager in other settings (other schools).
Female	Hispanic or Latino descent	Primary or Elementary Principal	The person chosen for Elementary had no previous experience in that level. He had never been a coordinator or a principal. The General Director felt the few male teachers in Elementary would respond better to a male.
Female	European descent	Head of School / Director	I worked very hard to 'tick' every box before even applying for a headship - 17 years as a teacher and in that time 10 years as an IBDP Coordinator. My masters was in International Educational leadership from the UK and Doctorate from the States. Was a secondary principal for 6 years and an assistant head of school in both small and large schools. Have lived all over the world for 25 years. my children have never lived in the UK. Anyway on paper, you can see all boxes ticked so always made it to a long list but often just not to interview except in small schools in Africa or India -- to be honest Alan, am over it as nothing I

			can do about it. Don't think small and blond helps - Ended up in a small school in India on lower pay than most (the bigger issue) but now have grown the school, have a decent package and will be here at least 6, this being year 5.....Good luck with your work and remember the only good dissertation is a done dissertation Dr. Phan -!!!
Female	African descent	Primary or Elementary Principal	On several occasions I have been overlooked at bigger international schools for a leadership position as I didnt have the "right" profile. I have been snubbed at recruitment fair socials and other Directors have spoken to my white husband thinking him to be the principal or direstor and I the "trailing" spouse.
Female	European descent	High School Principal	I was a finalist for a high school principal position and I was the only woman in the finalists pool. I was an experienced high school principal. I did not win the search and the school shared that the parents had preferred a more commanding presence. The person who won the search was a white man who is 6 feet 4 and had less experience than I did. I am quite confident and one of my strengths is public speaking. However, it was interesting that the perception was that as a medium height woman, I did not a commanding presence or at least the tall man had more. We need to widen our sense of what leadership looks like or women and people of color will always be disadvantaged.
Female	European descent	Middle School Principal	I believe that one of the big aspects of gender that hinder women is the time they have to take off for maternity. This is a personal choice, but it means that when women can start leadership careers, they are so much older than their male counterparts. I feel that gender hinders women in current leadership positions, because it is such a male-dominated field, that women are often not taken as seriously as men. Due to motherhood or other life experiences, women see issues differently than men and as a result their opinions are often characterized as highly emotional. Therefore, it is more difficult for women's ideas to gain traction, whereas it is much easier for men to promote their ideas.
Female	European descent	High School Principal	I spoke with Search Assoc. about applying for a HOS job in Asia. I was told "as a woman you will

			never get a HOS job in Asia - you need to look at South America." If he had said I would not get a job as a first time head I would have been accepting but he specifically cited my gender as the issue.
Male	European descent	Head of School / Director	I did not realise this was just for international school experience. I was referring to my experience in USA public schools were applicants were selected because of a desire to have so many females in positions of leadership in the system. i was not opposed to this and I was eventually selected; however, it was the practice in the school system. In our international school as HOS I have selected a female leader to add gender balance in our leadership team when they candidates were rated closely.
Male	European descent	Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning	In applying for a Head of School Position I was told at the initial interview that my application would be considered but that the Board was actually looking for a female to take the Head role.
Female	European descent	Secondary School Principal	International schools need more women leaders to mentor younger women. The networking of the 'old boys club' with regards to recruitment of leaders is embedded in institutions, including the recruitment agencies.
Male	European descent	Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning	I am often the gender minority in my role. Being male this is a new perspective to me. I actually believe it benefits me in being included in conversation to get "the male point of view".
Female	European descent	High School Principal	Men occupy most of the senior leadership positions in international schools (white men, middle aged, make up this majority) and 'like' hires 'like'. I do not to talk about sport and so do not fit in with the social conversations. There are also women who have been in leadership positions before and these men have had a bad experience with them - either professionally or personally - so all women are judged against these earlier leaders. This does not happen to the men who they have had bad experiences with - future men are not judged against these men. I know that some of the men in senior positions feel threatened by women in leadership. I have been told that I missed out on a promotion because the man chosen was a better 'cultural fit' - when I was more experienced and more

			qualified than him. Women also carry the heavier load at home with domestic chores (if they are married and/or have children) so this is a self-imposed barrier to their promotion. I have considered waiting until my own children finish school before seeking a promotion so that I am not stretched too thinly. I have waited until I have the required qualifications and experience before I have applied for promotions - but I know plenty of men who have just 'gone for it' and secured promotions even when they do not tick all of the boxes on the job description - I do think that this is because they are being hired by other men and this is seen as confidence rather than being cheeky. When consultant / search firms are used to help with a promotion into senior leadership, there is a definite bias towards men again. I have first hand experience of working with some of the leading consultants alongside a male friend of mine looking to make a similar career move - he was getting referral after referral, phone call after phone call, help after help from the (mostly) male consultants. I felt like I was picking up the scraps from the table in comparison. Another problem is that good men, like my friend in the earlier example, did not identify his experience as different to mine and so was unaware of the gender bias. He is a man who sees competence before gender in the workplace but not when he is directly benefiting from that bias. I have done my own research on this topic and have published an article that you may find helpful with your research: March 2016: Emerald Insight, Education and Training, Volume 58, Issue 3: pp. 328 - 338
Female	Middle Eastern/ Arab descent	Secondary School Principal	My initial interest in leadership was in becoming an Athletic Director, which I was strongly encouraged to not follow up on as the majority of ADs are male. Included in this was the reasoning that most schools wanted an AD which had a lot of knowledge of the "big" sports like basketball/soccer, which I did not have direct experience with these sports, though I had experience in others. As a female looking into leadership in the form of the head of a division, I have been encouraged to stick with teaching because I think to much with my heart "because I am a woman". As well, "schools need strong decision makers and level headed leaders", "men fit this role much more than women." I now

			realize this is not the vision of every school director or leader and I am continuing in leadership, however it is unfortunate that this perspective exists, as I think it impacts females taking the leap into leadership.

Appendix 3: Follow-Up Survey: Ethnicity Helped in Obtaining a Leadership Position in International Schools

Gender	Ethnicity	Position	Open-Ended Response
Male	European descent	High School Principal	I am a white, mid-western (American) male. I had not taught two years before I was asked if I was interested in administration. Luckily I waited 15 years before I pursued administration.
Male	European descent	High School Principal	In previous leadership positions I held in Asia, there definitely seemed to be a desire to have a "white face" at the top. I think the expectation came from the parent body.
Male	European descent	Primary or Elementary Principal	When people send their child to an international school, they are looking to have their child learn through a 'western style' education system. In order to provide this, leaders and teachers will generally come from places where this type of educational experience is offered/common (places such as Australia, New Zealand, USA, UK, Canada etc). It therefore follows that in hiring teachers and school leaders at these international schools, staff will generally come from these countries and in most cases, this seems to be from the countries previously mentioned, where people of European descent are in greater proportion in the educational systems. As an Australian, I feel that this helped me to gain hiring first as a teacher and later as a school leader i an international setting.
Female	European descent	Primary or Elementary Principal	I can't prove it to be true, but I am certain that being a white, American female made becoming an Elementary Principal at and American International School easier and without hurdles. I realized this after some time working with my Director on recruiting issues as well as how he made decisions regarding ES vs. MS and HS divisions. In our school, we hired only 2 teachers 'of color' and very few that were not American, British, Canadian, Australian or New Zealander.

Female	Asian or Pacific Islander descent	Primary or Elementary Principal	Coupled with my education and experiences, I feel that being a female, Asian leader has worked in my favor to secure leadership positions in Asia. Although raised in the United States, I am able to identify with Asian values and cultures. This has enabled me to empathize with the children and families that I work with and build connections. In some of my interactions with parents, I have perceived that they feel more at ease sharing concerns with me as compared to my Caucasian colleagues. I think this has been value added.
Female	European descent	Middle School Principal	In my first position, it was more of a language advantage than an ethnicity. However, being bilingual put me out ahead of my male counterpart. Being white in SE Asia has all kinds of unspoken benefits which are a little scary - we cannot get used to thinking this is normal and the way we deserve to be treated.
Female	European descent	Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning	In my school, most leadership positions are only open to "Western" international teachers. Chinese teachers cannot get most positions of leadership. Therefore, despite the fact that there are many well-qualified Chinese teachers, one reason (not the main reason) that I got my leadership position was because I was Western.
Female	European descent	High School Principal	As a white person I am perceived as the preferred ethnicity to be a leader in an international school - it looks and feels better for parents as they are seeking a 'Western' education and on some level that equates with 'White'.
Male	European descent	Head of School / Director	I'm not 100% sure that my ethnicity helped me get a position, but the school was for Chinese nationals, and they definitely seemed to expect a white face to be the head of the school.

Appendix 4: Follow-Up Survey: Ethnicity Hindered in Obtaining a Leadership Position in International Schools

Gender	Ethnicity	Position	Open-Ended Response
Male	European descent	Head of School / Director	I do not know if I have been hindered or not in consideration for positions; however, i have chosen a "more at risk" choice or " between two equal choices" a non-European or non-Caucasian choice to add more diversity to our Administrative team in two different

			international schools. All candidates were qualified but in choosing between candidates a diversity need on the team was considered. I don't know if this qualifies by your definition of ethnicity bias.
Female	Hispanic or Latino descent	Primary or Elementary Principal	The General Director openly said the School would look better with an American or Canadian in this position. He even said the board felt parents did not pay as much as they did for a school if the principal was going to be Latino.
Female	Hispanic or Latino descent	Middle School Principal	All throughout my career, people have commented on how I don't look Latin, or how they can't detect a hispanic accent, or how they thought I married my European husband for a "green card" exit out of my country... Nobody has explicitly said that they expect me to be less competent because I am hispanic, but they make comments about my ethnicity while they don't comment on the ethnic background of Anglo-Saxon colleagues.
Female	Asian or Pacific Islander descent	Primary or Elementary Principal	Currently the dominant profile of leaders in international schools is male and Caucasian. As an Asian American female with an Japanese first and last name, there have been occasions where the name at the top of my resume put me into a different category than those who are making those decisions. I feel that often there are stereotypes that are associated with not having a Westernized name and I struggle with presenting myself accurately on paper. Once people meet me and speak with me, often people will ask where I was raised or educated. I feel that this is an indication that my name brings forward a preconceived bias that I can not overcome until people speak with me. It has not directly hindered me from obtaining a leadership position but I am very aware of this difference when meeting people, even though we work in an international context. Until leadership teams are more diverse, I feel that this is something that silently works against me at times.
Male	European descent	Head of School / Director	I did not realise this was just for international school experience. I was referring to my experience in USA public schools were applicants were selected because of a desire to have so many non-caucasian in positions of

			leadership in the system as an pro-diversity or affirmative action initiative. i was not opposed to this and I was eventually selected; however, it was the practice in the school system. In our international school as HOS I have selected a non-western or non-USA/Canada leader to add ethnic diversity in our leadership team when the candidates were rated closely.
Male	European descent	Director of Studies / Curriculum / Learning	There is deep competition for job I am interested in, I often hear that individuals hiring are "looking for a white male" to take the leadership position. I often wonder if is a benefit or a hinderance to be in the ethnic majority.