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A Text Analysis of Meaning in Research on Gender, Language, and Leadership

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Walden University

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Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Samantha F. Weissrock

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Walden University
2022

Abstract

A Text Analysis of Meaning in Research on Gender, Language, and Leadership

by

Samantha F. Weissrock

MA, Walden University, 2017

BS, Indiana University, 2012

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Industrial-Organizational Psychology

Walden University

February 2022

Abstract

Focusing on gender and leadership research, the purpose of the study was to examine discursive messages used in research text regarding gendered leadership to explore the phenomenon of word usage and language structure. The study employed critical discourse analysis as the framework and methodology, a specific cross discipline approach to discourse analysis primarily concerned with language's innate ability to change and take on new meaning over time. Leveraging texts available in scholarly, peer-reviewed publications dedicated to the intersection of gender and leadership in juxtaposition to the final issue of the same publication have previously focused on intersection of women in leadership, themes of power, performance, and gender. The research question about what discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research texts was examined at a microlevel, mesolevel, and macrolevel. The microlevel found that gender, performance, and power varied based on the research question applied to the text. The mesolevel found that power was demonstrated through quantitative research design, that required the consumer to trust the interpretation of findings or possess knowledge to interpret findings. Westernization emerged as a macrolevel theme, that suggested the need to take on western ideologies of success. The research question and findings of the study are important with implications for positive social change by highlighting subtle yet powerful messages that reinforce perceptions of inequality between men and women at work. The findings can compel researchers to structure studies that move beyond women-focused to reframe studies of male/female relations, expand conversations to encompass both sexes, and move gendered leadership research towards a more unified approach.

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Dedication

To my son, Zack, and daughter, Zarayah, remember to always think for yourselves.

To my father, Bill Seymour, and brother, Bill Seymour, Jr., two of the finest men I have ever known.

Finally, this paper is dedicated to all who question, seek, and ultimately find meaning. The mind is a powerful thing; make sure to nourish it well.

Acknowledgments

Critical discourse analysis is a complex approach to language, and its application is relatively uncommon in Industrial-Organizational Psychology. However, conducting this study was extremely important to me. I want to acknowledge my committee members Marlon Sukal, Ph.D., James Herndon, Ph.D., and Jimmy Brown, Ph.D. Thank you for your willingness and support to go along on this journey with me. Dr.Sukal, thank you for challenging me to stay the course despite the obstacles that came along the way.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Focusing on gender and leadership research, this paper addressed a gap in the literature, that has seldom considered the role of language used in research as an influence on the perception of gender within leadership. In this study, I examined the usage of text through the application of qualitative discourse analysis. Discourse analysis has addressed authorship, gender, and leadership issues separately but has rarely brought the topics together.

This research was significant in many ways. First, it helped identify the language used in gendered leadership research, that may have shaped and influenced beliefs about each sex (see Fairclough, 2016). Second, the study helped fill a gap in understanding through investigating gendered leadership research as potentially reinforcing perceptions of gender inequality between female and male leaders through the language selection used in the text (see Gee, 2017). Next, this study was significant to help gendered leadership research find equal footing for both sexes (see Baxter, 2015) by discussing how focus on perceived inequalities is based on biological sex, yet using the term gender may have contributed to perceptions of inequality and inability of female leadership.

Finally, with current media emphasis placed on the fluidity of gender (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018a), it is crucial that the research field of gendered leadership uncouple the use of gender as female and include men equally into studies of language, leadership, and gender. Concepts of gender in the United States and other first-world countries have moved beyond bifurcated and binary representations of boy/girl and

male/female. As both sexes presence continues to grow, workplaces demand less prescriptive expectations of men as leaders and women as caregivers. So too, the methods for studying gendered leadership must become balanced (Subasic et al., 2018). The study contributes to positive social change by encouraging gendered leadership researchers to consider language selection outside of female-oriented feminist theory. Application of theories beyond a female focus reframe male/female relations studies, expand conversations to encompass both sexes, and move gendered leadership forward to a more balanced approach. Furthermore, analyzing text selection in research studies has the potential to increase awareness of the interaction of the researcher and research within other fields of sociology and psychology (Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017).

In Chapter 1, I introduce the qualitative study that employed critical discourse analysis to investigate language selection in research on gender in leadership, also known as gendered leadership. The chapter begins with background information, noting the foundational aspects of the phenomenon feminist approaches have applied to concepts of leadership and how word usage and language structure can be employed as an actor or active participant to shape the perception of the adequacy of female leadership ability or that of males as better leaders (see Latu & Mast, 2016; Martin, 2015; Szymanska & Rubin, 2018). Following the background discussion, I outline the problem statement, purpose statement, and nature of the study. Following the nature of the study, the chapter addresses the research question and theoretical framework. Pertinent keywords are defined for contextual standardization, and any assumptions, delimitations, and

limitations are discussed. Finally, the chapter addresses the study's significance before summarizing the chapter and moving forward with relevant literature in Chapter 2.

Background

At its core, the United States was built on social change. Social change begins with a desire or call to reshape a group for all to rise to a better state. Nowhere can such a call be seen more powerfully than the Declaration of Independence. The power and eloquence of each word, to this day, remains the blueprint of the American identity. The ideas conveyed within its text have become ingrained into the DNA of Americans as profoundly as the document's opening preamble declares: "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness" (U.S., 1772). The authors intentionally selected each word to invoke an emotional response in the reader and incite the desire for social change. Since that time, words have been used to generate passion, change, and move the American nation towards common goals. In 1963, the words written in *The Feminine Mystic* by Friedan (1963) started a female revolution within the United States. Friedan's message served as a call to arms for what became known as the second wave feminist movement and changed the country forever.

Since the onset of the 1960s second-wave feminist movement, advances by women in the context of work have resulted in an unprecedented number of women working outside the home, progressing in chosen careers, entering the upper echelons of corporations, and stepping into leadership positions (Lord et al., 2017). As a result of the

growing presence of women at work, a large body of research on women in the workplace has emerged. Feminist researchers have sought to advance women into leadership roles with various studies and conceptual models explaining women's ability to lead and theories explaining women's failure to thrive (Coats, 2016). It has been said that research about leadership has been conducted by men, for men, and focuses on male attributes (Northouse, 2016). On the other hand, it has been asserted that gender research has been conducted by women, for women, and to identify women's issues (Morgenroth & Ryan 2018a). Feminist research and media appropriated the word gender to argue for female advancement issues and, until recently, the terms female and gender became synonymous and were used interchangeably (Eagly, 2018) while the term men became conceptualized as genderless and categorized as a person or people (Coats, 2016). According to the United States Department of Labor (Toossi & Morisi, 2018), women composed nearly 50% of the United States workforce in 2015, a percentage that is expected to climb to 77.6% by 2024, creating an argument that women can no longer rely on minority status as a factor to advancement limitations. Therefore, the tone of leadership and gender research fields should work to find a middle ground.

Research can reinforce or create cognitive beliefs about success or suppression, ultimately creating a perception in the researcher's mind and the reader to potentially create a self-fulfilling prophecy (Fairclough, 2016; Gee, 2017). Ravitch and Carl (2016) asserted that all research possesses bias due to the researcher's interests, assumptions, and beliefs that manifest in an interest in a given phenomenon. Sociolinguists have acknowledged the role of the author as a participant in shaping fictional works and media

stories to take the reader on a journey to the desired outcome (Gee, 2014a, 2014b); however, little research had been conducted to examine the possible impact of text used in nonfiction gender research. Therefore, the literature gap appeared to be an analysis of the language used in gender leadership research as a direct or indirect impact on the researcher's and the reader's perception of female and male leaders.

Problem Statement

A problem existed in the lack of analysis on the language used in gender leadership research as a direct or indirect impact on the researcher's and the reader's perception of female and male leaders. The problem arose when, in response to the need for a more balanced or inclusionary conversation regarding the influence of the biological sex of leaders, an area of research examining the interplay of gender, language, and leadership emerged (Baxter, 2015; Powell & Butterfield, 2015). The field of gender, language, and leadership research is a subdiscipline of sociolinguistics. Sociolinguistics studies the relationship between society and language or, more specifically, the context in how language is used (Holmes et al., 2016). As a subdiscipline of sociolinguistics, gender, language, and leadership questions how concepts of gender shape workplace conversations by examining how individuals use verbal and nonverbal language choices that impact their ability to influence and lead others (Baxter, 2007, 2011, 2014, 2015, 2017). A problem with the field of gender, language and leadership has been the reliance upon the framework of gendered sociolinguistics. Gendered sociolinguistics was developed during the second wave feminist movement and has been criticized for its framework grounded in feminist theory (Eagly, 2018).

It is not uncommon for individuals, including self-identifying feminists, to assume that feminist theory sought equality between men and women; however, such an assumption is misguided. Feminist theory is not a single entity but rather a collection of theories that place women at the center. Feminist theory and research heavily favor women and use the terms female and gender interchangeably (Cox, 2019). In the gendered sociolinguistics framework and, by extension, the sociolinguistic gender, language and leadership framework, sexism and marginalization are depicted as one directional, meaning that each is reserved for men against women with little to no consideration for male marginalization (Cox, 2019; Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018a). Finally, gender, language and leadership research typically focused on verbal workplace conversations (Baxter 2015, 2017).

The initial concept for the study was to analyze the text selection used in research in the field of gender, language and leadership. However, the field was quite narrow, and only a few researchers emerged having approached the phenomenon specifically. The research problem became better defined after considerable research in gender, language and leadership separately and combined. More than 15 years before the writing of this study, Bucholtz (2005), a leading authority in gendered sociolinguistics, noted that contemporary linguists tended to focus on spoken word rather than written text, and a shift to the examination of the written word would have significant consequences to understand concepts of gender in discourse.

As subject matter experts, sociolinguistic researchers step into a position of authority with the ability to shape perceptions of equality, inequality, competence,

dominance, and oppression (Karakowsky et al., 2017). Research can reinforce or create cognitive beliefs about success or suppression, that ultimately creates a perception in the researcher's mind and the reader to potentially create a self-fulfilling prophecy (Fairclough, 2016; Gee, 2017). Ravitch and Carl (2016) asserted that all research possesses bias due to the researcher's interests, assumptions, and beliefs that manifest in an interest in a given phenomenon. Sociolinguists have acknowledged the role of the author as a participant in shaping fictional works and media stories to take the reader on a journey to the desired outcome (Gee, 2014a, 2014b, 2017). However, little research appeared to have been conducted on the possible impact of text used in nonfiction gender studies (Baxter, 2007, 2011, 2014, 2015, 2017). Therefore, a problem existed in the lack of analysis on the language used in gender leadership research as a direct or indirect impact on the researcher's and the reader's perception of female and male leaders.

Purpose Statement

Focusing on the paradigm of gender and leadership research, I examined the role of language used in research as an influence on the writer and reader through the application of qualitative discourse analysis to address issues of authorship, gender, and leadership collectively. The purpose of this study was to explore the discursive messages used in research text regarding gendered leadership or gender in leadership and the phenomenon of word usage and language structure applied to research text. Text (words) can be employed as an actor or active participant in implicitly or explicitly shaping the reader's perception of the adequacy of female leadership ability or that of males as better leaders (Latu & Mast, 2016; Martin, 2015; Szymanska & Rubin, 2018). Leveraging text

available in a scholarly, peer-reviewed publication dedicated to the intersection of gender and leadership in juxtaposition to the final issue of the same publication previously dedicated to the intersection of women in leadership and later rebranded as gender oriented, the text was analyzed to identify discursive themes that influenced the perception of power, performance, and gender. The discursive ideas investigated were as follows

- *Power*: Instances of the capacity to steer or influence others.
- *Performance*: Descriptions of how men and women performed their leadership roles.
- *Gender*: Ways women and men were represented as leaders.

A review for themes of power, performance, and gender were selected to understand when text selection created or reinforced a perception of leadership ability between men and women leaders.

Research Question

The following research question guided this study to explore the phenomenon of the gendered leadership research as an actor and active participant in the written messages communicated through the selection of word usage and the possible creation of themes of power, performance, and gender:

Research question (RQ): What discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research text?

Theoretical Framework

The framework for the study was situated in critical discourse analysis theory and drew on components of poststructuralist feminist theory and leadership theory. Discourse analysis is the process of examining the relationship between the written or spoken word and the word's meaning (Gee, 2017) and can be applied to a wide variety of studies (Amoussou & Allagbe, 2018). Discourse analysis strives to understand the relationship between word(s) and meaning; however, when applied to research, discourse analysis becomes generic (McMullen, 2021). Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a specific, cross-discipline approach to discourse analysis primarily concerned with the innate nature of language's ability to change and take on new meaning over time with a focus on one or more social problems (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999). Amoussou and Allagbe (2018) defined CDA as

an interdisciplinary analytical viewpoint that looks into the relationship between power and discourse, and particularly it investigates the way in which authority, dominance and social inequality are constructed, sustained, reproduced and resisted in the discourse of written text and spoken words. (p. 13)

CDA's theoretical proposition suggests language acts as an everchanging agent for the production and reproduction of ideology (Fairclough, 2016) and serves as a theoretical framework and methodology that must be applied in tandem (Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017; Wodak & Meyer, 2016). Jørgensen and Phillips (2002) explained the overlap of theory and method:

Confusingly, the label “critical discourse analysis” is used in two different ways: Norman Fairclough (1995a, 1995b) uses it both to describe the approach he has developed *and* as the label for a broader movement within discourse analysis of which several approaches, including his own, are a part. (p. 60)

Wodak and Meyer (2016) stated, “Critical Discourse Studies, as in all social research, theory, methods, and analysis are closely interrelated, and decisions about one affect the other” (p. 14). CDA’s theoretical underpinning, that lends to its uniqueness, is the eight points defined to qualify as CDA research (Amousson & Allagbe, 2018):

- CDA addresses a problem or issue that is oriented to social problems such as sexism, racism, or social inequality.
- CDA must approach a topic from an interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary view, with special focus on discourse and society.
- CDA is positioned as the primary foci and does not perform as a subdiscipline of discourse analysis; instead, CDS is an explicit critical approach, position, or stance to study talk or text.
- CDA’s focus is on relations of power, dominance, and inequality and how each is reproduced or resisted by social group members.
- CDA seeks to understand the underlying ideologies that shape reproduction or resistance within a social group.
- CDA directly points out strategies of manipulation, manufacturing, and legitimization of discursive power, dominance, and inequality through the

examination of implicit, hidden, or omitted information to influence the consumer of text or speech.

- CDA's concern for implicit, hidden, or omitted information positions research as critical or in opposition to those who abuse their power.
- CDA seeks solidarity or unification of groups by providing alternative perspectives and possible solutions to address and resolve the social wrong through counter-ideologies.

A CDA framework was appropriate to this study due to its approach of language as a primary driver for the production and reproduction of ideologies to such an extent that language reinforces beliefs until beliefs become dogmatic and taken without question (Fairclough, 2016). Furthermore, CDA has frequently been applied to the examination of fiction and nonfiction gendered text in conjunction with and drawing upon the conceptual models of feminist theory and poststructuralism (Baxter, 2017; Fairclough, 2016). Finally, CDA strives to assist the oppressed and underrepresented.

As discussed, from a theoretical framework perspective, CDA examines text for power, dominance, and inequality, that can be applied to a wide number of topics, making it necessary to draw upon aspects of other theories to investigate instances of linguistic strategies to manipulate, legitimize, or assert social wrongs. Gendered studies using CDA as a framework have reassigned the term gender to be synonymous with female and have omitted men as an active component of gender (Coats, 2016). Therefore, a component of the conceptual model was the application of poststructural feminist theory with an emphasis on poststructuralism. Poststructuralism suggests that knowledge

and meaning are not fixed or concrete. Instead, knowledge and meaning are built on prior or historical knowledge (Hansson et al., 2019). More directly stated, everything we think or think we know is based on previous experience(s). Poststructuralism aims to reject the feminist argument of male power by stressing that knowledge is attained through social interaction, thereby making power shared throughout a given social group (Baxter, 2017). Men cannot hold power over women without consent and vice versa. Through the inclusion of poststructuralism, CDA's emphasis on change was fully utilized, and poststructuralist feminism moved beyond the assertion of discrimination and oppression by men.

Finally, leadership theory has celebrated a long history of research. Leadership has been conceptualized from varying perspectives and attempts to explain effective leadership provides numerous approaches (Northouse, 2016). Leadership theory seeks to understand a particular aspect of the ability to influence others and is traditionally classified in four categories: traits, behavior and motivation, contingency, and integrative leadership theories (Lussier & Achua, 2015). More recently, leadership research has begun to acknowledge the positive relationship between feminine attributes and transformational behavior, ensuring future studies will continue to support the qualities of an effective leader identified by skill rather than biological sex (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018a).

Each theory's central theme discussed above acknowledges change (Baxter, 2017; Fairclough, 2016; Powell & Butterfield, 2015). Alone, each theory addresses aspects of social change that are needed in gendered leadership research. Collectively, CDA,

drawing on poststructural feminist theory and leadership theory, created a robust framework to significantly contribute to the advancement of language applied to gender and leadership research to a more holistic conversation. Based on the literature reviewed and evidence to support implicit or explicit bias that manifested in research (Gee, 2017; Lee et al., 2020; Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017) alongside the prevalence of female-feminist in the field of gendered leadership research, I hypothesized that I would find instances that generated messages asserting that women were at a leadership disadvantage through the cross contamination of the terms of gender and direct or indirect female relationship.

Nature of the Study

The nature of this study was qualitative. My goal was to analyze the text of gendered leadership research for ways discursive messages have shaped the social understanding regarding gendered leadership and have potentially contributed to the leadership gender gap.

The study was conducted as a CDA of existing literature on gender and leadership to uncover themes that may have contributed to the perception of masculine or feminine leadership's goodness of fit. Qualitative research design, specifically CDA, is consistent with understanding the effects of stylized text in written discourse (Fairclough, 2016; Wodak & Meyer, 2016) and helped me to identify instances when stylized text was used as a linguistic strategy to position gender in discourse (Baxter, 2014, 2015, 2017).

In this study, I examined the discursive messages used in research text regarding gendered leadership and explored the phenomenon of word usage and language structure applied to research text. Text (words) can be employed as an actor or active participant,

implicitly or explicitly shaping the reader's perception (Gee, 2017; Wodak & Meyer, 2016) of the female leadership ability or males as better leaders.

CDA served as both a theoretical framework and methodology, meaning the study's nature demanded both be executed in tandem (see Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017; Wodak & Meyer, 2016). CDA was performed by asking questions that looked beyond reading text at face value to look past obvious information in a transcript to the many factors involved in creating and consuming the text itself (see Gill, 2009; Fairclough, 2016). The methodological steps involved in the study consisted of four stages and subsequent steps. First, a social wrong was identified that could be approached in a transdisciplinary way, focusing on dialectical relations between semiotics. Next, appropriate text meeting the criteria of gender, leadership, and language were analyzed. Third, consideration was made whether social order needed the social wrong. Finally, possible ways past the obstacles were identified (see Fairclough, 2016). Appropriate instruments were created to capture, categorize, and synthesize the data, culminating in microlevel, mesolevel, and macrolevel comparison of themes of power, performance, and gender.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are for key terms and phrases used in the study and are offered to encourage shared meaning:

Critical discourse analysis (CDA): A specific, cross discipline approach to discourse analysis, primarily concerned with the innate nature of language's ability to change and take on new meaning over time, with a focus on one or more social problems

and with an emphasis on the relationship between power and discourse to investigate the way in which authority, dominance, and social inequality are constructed, sustained, reproduced, and resisted (Amoussou & Allagbe 2018; Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999). CDA's theoretical proposition suggests that language acts as an everchanging agent for the production and reproduction of ideology (Fairclough, 2016) and serves as a theoretical framework and methodology that must be applied in tandem (Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017; Wodak & Meyer, 2016).

Discourse: A collection of conversations over time to create a lasting meaning (Gee, 2017).

Discourse analysis: The process of examining the relationship between the written or spoken word and the word's meaning. The relationship between words and meaning ultimately shapes, sustains, or changes specific social patterns (Gee, 2017; Hansson et al., 2019).

Feminist theory: Encompasses a set of ideas and scholarship in various disciplines due to the feminist movement and focuses on women's issues and women's liberation from positions of disadvantage within various social, political, and economic systems (Cox, 2019).

Gender: Refers to the social differences between women and men. While often used synonymously with sex, in feminist theory, gender is considered a social construction and is distinguished from biological sex (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018b).

Language: Represents a collection of agreed upon symbols, both verbal and nonverbal, in which members of a group share concepts, ideas, opinions, and emotions (Gee, 2017).

Leadership: A process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2016).

Performance: How and how well leadership roles are enacted (Northouse, 2016).

Poststructuralism: A philosophical movement that suggests that knowledge and meaning are not fixed or concrete; instead, knowledge and understanding are built on prior or historical knowing (Hansson et al., 2019).

Power: The capacity or ability to steer and affect others' beliefs, attitudes, or course of action through a social contract between leaders and followers. Power may be wielded by followers as equally as leaders and can be legitimate, cohesive, reward based by possessing desirable information, expert, or referent (Northouse, 2016).

Sex: The physical differences between men and women, such as reproductive systems, that are considered biological facts (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018a).

Assumptions, Delimitations, and Limitations

Assumptions

The following assumptions were applied to the text regarding gender and leadership: (a) Participants and authors analyzed within the text possessed bifurcated gender as male or female, (b) male and female participants were equally qualified in leadership roles, (c) researchers adequately disclosed conflicts of interest, (d) researchers construct vetted research studies, and (e) researchers took active steps to mitigate

personal bias. The assumptions about the text and research analyzed were essential due to the need to assume that men and women possessed equal positions and opportunities to enact their leadership. Assumptions regarding the structure of studies and objectivity of the text were essential to draw equal conclusions across studies about the data's qualities that were analyzed.

Delimitations

Given women's advances in obtaining leadership positions within many organizations, yet despite the ongoing evidence and prevailing perception that women continue to lag behind their male counterparts, the question begged consideration to identify contributing factors that promoted and sustained the ideology. The research problem I identified was the lack of analysis on the language used in gendered leadership research as a direct or indirect impact on the researcher's and the reader's perception of female and male leaders. The decision to focus on how gender, language and leadership manifests in research meant that other facets of experience that shape reality were excluded. Due to the multiple ways text could be approached and the need for a manageable number of data analyzed, delimitations were made, and factors such as race, socioeconomic status, gender expression, sexual orientation, the nation of origin, and organizational culture were excluded.

The specific focus of understanding the direct or indirect impact of text in research was made due to my interest in how word selection could generate or sustain ideologies. As an industrial-organizational psychologist, data scientist, heterosexual, White, female, and leader of people within a Fortune 500 company, I noticed messages

regarding inequality were prevalent alongside efforts to encourage equality. More clearly stated, initiatives to promote women in leadership often included direct research that supported evidence of female disadvantage despite many advancements having been made (Eagly, 2018). The interest in messages received and interpreted by women encouraged me to question where inequality messages originated. A natural shift from female-focused to gender-focused occurred when literature provided strong evidence of the blurring of the term gender to be synonymous with female (Coats, 2016), and early unsubstantiated research intentionally and incorrectly positioned women as inferior to men (Lakoff, 1975).

Although I considered other study constructs, textual analysis as a contributor to female workplace inequality's ideology remained the best framework. A quantitative approach to the text was possible; for example, by computer assisted methods (Stubbs, 2018), but the approach was discarded due to the limitations of purely counting the variables' frequency. Simply put, a quantitative focus Focus on what and how many would not have provided the level of intimacy with the text afforded by a qualitative research approach (see Gee, 2017). Content analysis was considered as a mixed method approach but was determined to be subpar due to the methodological approach of predetermined search words or phrases, that would have significantly limited my insights gained through repetitive reading of text (see McBee-Black & Ha-Brookshire, 2020). On the other hand, qualitative research wants to understand how a particular phenomenon affects the people involved, either individually or as a group (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Qualitative research included a level of rigor and awareness of text as a consumer and producer of data.

Furthermore, a qualitative approach leaned hermeneutically as an iterative approach to understand the experiential aspects of everyday life.

The theoretical and methodological approaches to this study leveraged CDA. Although other approaches were considered, CDA was the most appropriate due to the multiple ways and perspectives text could be examined, that created the opportunity for a broader understanding of a social phenomenon such as gender in leadership research and allowed for a more robust understanding of shared experience (see Fairclough, 2016). CDA is framework and method (van Dijk, 2018); therefore, Chapter 3 provides an in-depth review of the various theoretically married methodological approaches considered and justifies the specifics of the study design.

To reiterate and conclude, I considered one of a countless combinations of attributes that could have been applied to the examination of text for meaning (see Fairclough, 2016), that made the study highly transferable to other focuses of interest, which provided limitations, but also provided a wide berth of perspectives to be explored.

Limitations

In essence, the study's scope was limited to normative, bifurcated aspects of gender, and consideration regarding race, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, and gender identity were delimited as factors within the study. Instead, I focused on how aspects of the generalized concepts of gender were used in research and ways that squarely placed maleness or femaleness as a factor in leadership within leadership text. Consistent with the assertion that gender research has been conducted by women, for women, and about women (Bucholtz, 2005; Coats, 2016), the most significant limitation

to this study was the small number of researchers who publish within the field of gendered leadership. Compounding the limited number of researchers available in the field appears to be predominately feminist females writing on women's workplace issues (i.e., Baxter, 2007, 2011, 2014, 2015, 2017).

The limitations noted above could have presented risks to the study. First, the limited number of researchers in the gendered leadership field created risk and anticipation of redundancy or themes in the research scope. As researchers, it is not uncommon and understandable that careers are shaped through specialization in a given topic, which creates a potential for similar studies in type, design, and theoretical models to be conducted over time or reanalysis by a different yet complementary perspective (Eagly, 2018). For example, Baxter's (2007, 2011, 2014, 2015, 2017) published work focused on the intersection of women, leadership, and language usage. Contrastingly, Hurst working with others (Hurst et al., 2016; Hurst et al., 2017, 2018a, 2018b) appeared to have analyzed a data set on gender and leadership from multiple angles and produced four individual, yet interrelated, studies.

The second limitation and, by extension, the risk was researchers in the field appeared to be predominantly female-feminists. In all areas of academia and research, informal networks manifest as researchers seek out others with similar ontological and epistemological views or findings that align with and support their research (Lee et al., 2020; Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017). Furthermore, selecting a research paradigm and correlating ontology, epistemology, methodology, and methods are driven by the researcher's personal beliefs about the nature of reality. In discourse analysis, it is

essential to consider what is not said as much as what is said (Fairclough, 2016) through the examination of the selection of words, variables, and research paradigm selected by the researcher(s) (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). Given the field of gender leadership, research appeared to consist of female-feminist, and primarily created a risk for research bias and potentially added to the lack of research on male leaders.

From a study design perspective, the research was limited to binary concepts of gender. Therefore, the study excluded other factors that could have been considered, such as race, gender identity, or gender reassignment, that might have added to the research's discourse identities and voices (see Gee, 2014a, 2014b, 2017). For example, a transsexual, female researcher whose academic career and research focuses on hegemonic masculinity and gender, would bring a deep understanding of masculinity as having lived a portion of her life as a man. Using transsexuality as an example, restricting the study to a binary focus on gender alongside performance and power demonstrated the opportunity for transferability to future studies, considering other attributes that add to experience and knowledge. However, the current study limited the understanding of those very attributes as a factor, meaning had research from a transsexual researcher appeared in the texts included in the formal study, the discourse identity would have been lost.

As noted, the field of gender and leadership research appears limited, and familiarity with the authors' prior research work could have presented itself. However, the study design employed rigorous protocols and systematic analysis that mitigated bias through methodological triangulation and building tasks discussed in depth in Chapter 3. A brief description of methodological triangulation and building tasks means to look at

data from multiple perspectives through the application of multiple, predefined questions to provoke thought and generate data. Triangulation and building tasks are traditional strategies used by critical discourse analysts (Fairclough, 2016; Gee, 2016; van Dijk, 2016).

Significance

This research was significant in many ways. First, it helped identify the language used in gendered leadership research that could shape and influence beliefs about each sex (see Gabriel et al., 2018; Hansson et al., 2019; Liben & Bigler; 2015). Second, the study helped fill a gap in understanding as I investigated gendered leadership research as potentially reinforcing perceptions of gender inequality between female and male leaders through the language selection used in the text (see Gee, 2017). Next, this study was significant to help advance gendered leadership research find equal footing for both sexes (see Baxter, 2015) through a discussion of how focus on perceived inequalities based on biological sex, yet using the term gender, may have contributed to perceptions of inequality and inadequacy of female leaders.

Finally, with media emphasis placed on the fluidity of gender (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018a), it is crucial that the area of gendered leadership uncouple the use of gender as solely female and include men in the study of language, leadership, and gender. Concepts of gender in the United States and other first world countries have moved beyond bifurcated and binary representations of boy/girl and male/female. As both sexes presence continues to grow, the workplace demands less prescriptive expectations of men as leaders and women as caregivers. So must the methods for studying gendered

leadership become balanced (Subasic et al., 2018). The results of this study helped contribute to positive social change by highlighting the need of researchers in gendered leadership to consider applying frameworks and models outside of female-oriented feminist theory. Applying theories beyond women-focused feminist theory could reframe studies of male/female relations, expand conversations to encompass both sexes, and move gendered leadership towards a more unified approach. Furthermore, analyzing text selection in research studies has the potential to increase awareness of the interaction of the researcher and research within other studies in the fields of sociology and psychology.

Summary

The preceding pages addressed the second wave feminist movement's impact in creating opportunities for women to enter the workplace and take up careers. As a result, researchers have sought to understand women's unique challenges in the workplace. The sociolinguistic subdiscipline of gender, language and leadership emerged to provide a greater understanding of how female language usage has shaped females' ability to lead or reach leadership roles. However, feminist theory reassigned the term gender to be synonymous with females, causing discussions surrounding gendered leadership to focus on the needs of women and excluded men. The initial concept for the study was to analyze the text selection used in research in the field of gender, language and leadership. However, the field was relatively narrow, and only a few researchers emerged, having approached the phenomenon specifically. After considerable research in gender, language and leadership separately and combined, the research problem became better defined. The need to focus on the written word and the importance of understanding gender was

identified more than 15 years ago (Bucholtz, 2005). Therefore, a gap in the literature was identified as an examination of the language used in gender and leadership research as a direct or indirect influence on the researcher's and reader's perception of female and male leaders. The RQ was shaped into the following: What discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research text? The study was outlined as qualitative using CDA. The study's significance was provided, the development of the study's RQ was reviewed, and the assumptions, delimitations, and limitations of the study were discussed.

Chapter 2 begins with an overview of feminism and feminist theory as a crucial influence on the literature and research on gender and leadership. The chapter continues with a literature review on theories regarding gender, language and leadership individually. Then a review of literature on the intersectionality of gender, language and leadership is conducted. The chapter concludes with a review of CDA as a theoretical framework appropriate for identifying underlying themes or messages in research text within gendered leadership studies.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

In Chapter 1, I identified a problem in the lack of analysis on the language used in gender leadership research as a direct or indirect impact of the researcher's and the reader's perception of female and male leaders within the context of work. The purpose of the study was to address the need to examine discursive messages used in research text regarding gendered leadership and to explore the phenomenon of word usage and language structure applied to research text. The need to focus on the written word to understand gender was identified more than 15 years ago (Bucholtz, 2005). Yet, there was little found on the phenomenon of stylized text and discursive messages in research (Gee, 2014a, 2014b). The negative impact of cognitive internalization of messaging has perpetuated perceptions of inequality in both sexes (Eagly, 2018; Karakowsky et al., 2017). Therefore, the following RQ was explored: What discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research text?

Chapter 2 begins with a review of the literature research strategy employed for gathering scholarly works for this project. The section then addresses feminism and feminist theory as an influence on the emerging literature and research on gender, language and leadership. Next, I review the literature on theories regarding gender, language and leadership individually and follow with a review of literature on the intersectionality of gender, language and leadership. The chapter concludes with a review of CDA as a theoretical framework appropriate for identifying underlying themes or messages in research text in gender and leadership studies.

Literature Search Strategy

A comprehensive review of the literature was conducted to address critical components of the study's primary RQ: What discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research text? A systematic strategy was formulated and rigorously followed based on the RQ, that contained aspects of gender, language and leadership. In order to thoroughly address the components, it was necessary I understand existing literature independently and, where possible, synthesize gaps across concepts. The systematic review of literature allowed me to include work from various authors and allowed for a more robust understanding of the phenomenon under scrutiny, identification of gaps in the literature, and creation of the RQ to explore research on the topic (see Grewal et al., 2016). Additionally, a literature review was an important exercise that supported the assertion of a gap in the literature as it allowed me to identify relevant research and advance understanding of the phenomenon (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2016; Onwuegbuzie & Weinbaum, 2017).

There are multiple approaches to an effective literature review. For example, a protocol driven review manually searches journals and electronic databases (Grewal et al. 2016). Snowballing is the process of reviewing references used by researchers in the field in question to identify additional works. A researcher may have personal knowledge, contacts, or experience with the topic, that can be leveraged. Finally, a researcher may stumble over a viable paper while searching. J.W. Creswell and J. D. Creswell (2018) provided step-by-step guidance and encouraged researchers to (a) identify keywords; (b) search multiple databases; (c) use a thesaurus to identify terms to search; (d) locate an

article similar to the topic for terms used to describe it; (d) search databases that provide full text articles; start with broad syntheses of the literature, such as overviews and summaries of the literature; (e) work backward from the most recent article; (f) find a book on the topic; (g) look for conference papers; and (h) contact authors.

As with other researchers, I came to the topic at hand due to interest (see Eagly, 2018) and possessed prior knowledge of the influence of language to shape perceptions of the reader and writer (see Gee, 2017). Therefore, two notable strategies were avoided to remain as subjective as possible. First, I chose to set aside personal and professional research and authorship conducted in prior works. Except for Baxter (2011, 2014, 2015, 2017) and Tannen (1990,1994), whose works spurred my initial interest and desire to investigate the relationship between language, gender, and leadership, research was conducted fresh and without assumptions of potential findings. Second, snowballing was avoided. While snowballing or chasing citations could have been helpful, I avoided the process to prevent unintentional bias due to social networks that manifest within research communities investigating similar phenomena using similar conventions (see Lee et al., 2020; Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017). Consideration was made in the research strategy of the negative aspects of informal networks. Researchers may align, seek out, and cite other researchers whose research, concepts, interests, or results mirror their own within academic disciplines. Such network citation trends significantly influence which advancements and research topics are further explored, extended, or published (Williams, 2018). Lee et al. (2020) found that nine of the top 10 most cited leadership journals remained consistent from 2008 through 2017. Therefore, they found articles retrieved

from the following journals proved to be the most often cited: The Leadership Quarterly, Journal of Applied Psychology, Academy of Management Journal; Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Academy of Management Review, Journal of Management, Journal of Organizational Behavior, Administrative Science Quarterly, Organizational Behavior, and Human Decision Processes, and Psychology Bulletin. Upon closer examination, they found thematic trends prevalent in the top 10 cited journals: transformational leadership, LMX theory, implicit leadership theories, charismatic leadership, and complexity leadership. However, the intersection of gender and leadership was found elsewhere. Although literature may have been published across journals, specialized research on gender and language targeted researchers interested in a specific field such as Sex Roles, Gender in Management and Journal of Sociolinguistics.

In consideration of the effects of social networks and following guidance from J. W. Creswell and J. D. Creswell (2018), the primary research strategy employed for this study was protocol driven with hand searches that used multiple electronic library databases and search engines including Google Scholar, Walden University's Thoreau, PsychINFO, SocINDEX, SAGE Premier, Emerald Insight, Elsevier, Research Gate, and Social Science Citation Index (SSCI). Preliminary search keywords included *gender*, *language*, *leadership*, *discourse*, and *sociolinguistics* to cast a wide net. Emphasis on locating literature published between 2015 and 2020 was applied to meet expectations for a majority of publications cited within the 5 years before the literature review. However, as a crucial component of the study, I investigated historical reliance's influence (see Reisigl & Wodak, 2016) as a key metric for current research, and original or founding

articles were read for the origin of source, meaning, intent, and context, and were cited in the literature review where appropriate. The strategy helped me understand the possible meaning that may have been lost, repurposed, or weakened due to repetitive or threaded citations. For example, the concept of gender fluidity is a popular topic in mainstream media. Butler's (1990) seminal work *Gender Trouble: Feminism and the Subversion of Identity* is considered the requisite literature for gender fluid discussions and entry of the term into academia. A Google Scholar (2020) search of citations of the term *gender fluidity* between 2015 and 2020 resulted in 23,100 citations. However, in the introduction to the reprint of her work, Butler noted that her research has been misinterpreted and the importance overemphasized as she was a graduate student writing her thesis paper and chose a topic that allowed her to explore the questioning of her sexuality (as cited in Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018b).

As the literature search continued, it became necessary to create a more granular or targeted focus. Combinations of keywords were applied using search criteria using AND or NOT, such as *gender AND leadership* or *gender NOT female*. Filters were applied to retrieve only peer-reviewed, full text, scholarly journals available in English. Keywords were broadened to include *CDA, critical discourse analysis, men, women, sex, gender, workplace, and organization*. Alerts were set for immediate notification of new research published. Despite the methodological search, each area of interest possessed large bodies of work that could approach each topic from multiple aspects, causing articles to be discarded due to lack of fit for the study. For example, keywords *gender AND workplace* returned Bhuyan's (2018) peer-reviewed, full text, English research the

Politics of the Workplace: Gender and Ethnic Identities at Work – A Study of Select American Novels, that analysed the writing of four novels “to examine whether the sociological theories regarding workplace politics find a parallel representation in [fictional] literature” (p. 73).

Finally, due to the sheer size and years of study in gender, leadership, and language (see Baxter, 2017; Northouse, 2016; Wodak & Meyer, 2016), emphasis was placed on western cultures due to cultural considerations that shaped the use and meaning of language within the workplace, advancement of feminist ideologies, and available literature.

All told, over 240 articles were retrieved and audited for potential inclusion in the review. An additional 18 book chapters and 39 books were reviewed, notated, and considered for inclusion: 163 of the texts audited are referenced, 115 are within 5 years of the study’s start in 2018. As a foundation of the study included messages being carried forward through repeated citation and informal networks, discussed later in this chapter, reference to approximately 50 seminal or historically significant works are noted. The following section reviews the existing literature on CDA gender, language and leadership were grouped by theme and ends with a collective review of available literature on the intersection of gender, language and leadership.

Literature Review

CDA

Discourse analysis is the process by which the relationship between the written or spoken word and the word’s meaning or implications is considered (Hansson et al.,

2019). Discourse analysis takes an interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary approach to explore different social domains and can be applied to a wide variety of studies (Fairclough, 2016; Wodak & Meyer, 2016). Although there is no single agreed definition of terms or approaches, all contain key features (Fairclough, 2016):

- A critical stance towards taken-for-granted knowledge and skepticism towards observation of the world yields its true nature.
- A recognition that the ways people understand the world is based upon historical and cultural information specific and relative to the world.
- A conviction that the world is socially constructed and understood, not by the world's true nature, rather than social processes.
- A commitment to exploring how knowledge is linked to people, phenomena, or problems by actions or practices.

In the context of discourse analysis, discourse refers to all forms of speech and text that take place (Wodak & Meyer, 2016); as such, discourse analysts are interested in text and how the text is organized. How and what is communicated between individuals is made by choice from many possibilities depending on the situation, creating a need for interpretive context. For example, how I speak about the interplay of biological sex and leadership will vary according to the audience. How I write on the same topic and the word selection I choose will be dependent upon the anticipated reader's familiarity with the material and the need to create more or less of a persuasive argument (see Gee, 2017). On a more practical level, if asked, "How was your day?" your response will vary if I am in the role of your intimate partner, your best friend, or your boss. Discourse analysts use

interpretive context to consider the more subtle aspects of the text, critically review what is reported and, notably, what is omitted within the given context (Fairclough, 2016).

CDA is a theoretical framework and methodology that investigates the social world's construction through discourse and is situated in critical theory. CDA as theory and method are profoundly intertwined, and one cannot be conducted without the other. Jørgensen and Phillips (2002) explained the overlap of theory and method:

Confusingly, the label “critical discourse analysis” is used in two different ways: Norman Fairclough (1995a, 1995b) uses it both to describe the approach he has developed *and* as the label for a broader movement within discourse analysis of which several approaches, including his own, are a part. (p. 60)

Wodak and Meyer (2016) stated, “Critical Discourse Studies, as in all social research, theory, methods, and analysis are closely interrelated, and decisions about one affect the other” (p. 14). The interconnectedness of theory and methodology demonstrates that each can be thought of as circular, iterative, and intertwined. The theory required the selection of concepts and relations and assumptions that led to the research's organization and assisted in the development of procedures and instrumentation that informed the analysis.

An additional reason for the overlap of theory and methodology could be attributed to the relative newness of the formalization of CDA and followed by the preeminent discursive analysts' collaboration (Wodak & Meyer, 2016). As recently as 1991, a group of discourse researchers met in Amsterdam to establish a cohort of

discourse analysts. Although the analysts' interests focused on different topics, they agreed upon the application of their craft (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002).

The combination of the recent emergence of the field alongside the contemporary, networked cohort of analysts has had positive and negative impacts on the study of discourse. From a negative perspective, the field has had a relatively small number of linguistic experts available for reference. However, due to the group's collaborative nature, CDA has been applied to a plethora of topics with consensus by experts across fields as to the approach and steps of analysis to identify power relationships and social wrongs through the systematic investigation of discursive text. For example, *discourse historical approach* (Reisigl & Wodak, 2016) focused on a triangulation of discourse, text, and context to produce ideologies. A *sociocognitive approach* (van Dijk, 2016) was concerned with the relationship between discourse and social structures. Fairclough's (2016) *dialectical relational theory* suggested that social wrongs can be addressed by analyzing their causation and assertion that language changes over time. *Discourses and dispositives* (Jager & Maier, 2016) theorized that knowledge contained in linguistically conducted practices such as verbal and written speech and nonverbal linguistics naturally materializes or produces an outcome. Van Leeuwen (2016) took the discourse approach as the *recontextualization of social practice* by theorizing the repetition of social actions modes, styles, semiotic outcomes, and actions in one area are reperformed in other social actions through recontextualized fashion. *Corpus linguistics* analyzed word or phrase usage and repetition to identify themes. CDA theory can also be applied to visual and multimodal texts (Jancsary et al., 2016) and social media (Khosravnik & Unger, 2016).

CDA is predominantly shaped by its emphasis on the innate nature of language's ability to change over time and take on new meaning alongside examination of instances of power, dominance, and inequality (Amoussou & Allagbe, 2018). CDA stresses the intertextuality of words as possessing historical connotations, that are drawn on to make sense in the current space (Hodges, 2018). The general philosophical assumptions and underpinnings of CDA are as follows (Fairclough, 2016; Hansson et al., 2019):

- Knowledge of the world is only accessible through categories, so the understanding and representations of the world are products of the ways of categorizing the world.
- Discourse is a form of social interaction playing a part in producing the social world (including knowledge, identities, and social relations) and maintaining specific social patterns.
- Knowledge is created through social interaction in which people construct common truths and compete with what is true and false.

Different social understandings of the world lead to various social actions, and therefore, the social construction of knowledge and truth has social consequences. CDA seeks to understand ways that social power can enact, reproduce, or abuse through the use of language (van Dijk, et al., 2018). CDA draws upon the Marxist view of capitalism that characterizes a society through ideology, that creates imaginary relations between people and social formation (Hansson et al., 2019). However, research must align with CDA's theoretical underpinnings that lend to its uniqueness in the eight-points defined to qualify as CDA research (Amousson & Allagbe, 2018):

- CDA addresses a problem or issue that is oriented to social problems such as sexism, racism, or social inequality.
- CDA must approach a topic from an interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary with special focus on discourse and society.
- CDA is positioned as the primary foci and does not perform as a subdiscipline of discourse analysis; instead CDS is an explicit critical approach, position, or stance to study talk or text.
- CDA focus is on relations of power, dominance and inequality and how each are reproduced or resisted by social group members.
- CDA seeks to understand the underlying ideologies that shape reproduction or resistance within a social group.
- CDA directly points out strategies of manipulation, manufacturing, and legitimization of discursive power, dominance and inequality through the examination of implicit, hidden or omitted information to influence the consumer of text or speech.
- CDA's concern for implicit, hidden or omitted information positions research as critical or in opposition to those who abuse their power.
- CDA seeks solidarity or unification of groups by providing alternative perspectives and possible solutions to address and resolve the social wrong through counter-ideologies.

As discussed, CDA also served as a methodological approach that will be discussed in Chapter 3. In short, CDA was performed by asking questions that look

beyond reading text at face value. Analysts are committed to looking past obvious information in a transcript to the many factors involved in creating and consuming the text itself (Gill, 2009). From a methodological perspective, CDA consists of four stages and subsequent steps (Fairclough, 2016, pp. 92-94):

- Stage 1: Focus upon a social wrong from the semiotic aspect.
 - Step 1: Select a research topic that relates or points to a wrong that can be approached in a transdisciplinary way with a particular focus on dialectical relations between semiotics and other moments.
 - Step 2: Construct objects of research for initially identified research topics by theorizing them in a transdisciplinary way.
- Stage 2: Identify obstacles to addressing the social wrong.
 - Step 1: Analyze dialectical relations between discourse and other social elements, between orders of discourse and other elements of social practice; and between text and other elements of events.
 - Step 2: Select texts, and focuses, and categories for their analysis, in light of and appropriate to the constitution of the object of research.
 - Step 3: Carry out an analysis of the text, both interdiscursive and linguistic semiotic analysis.
- Stage 3: Consider whether the social order needs the social wrong.
- Stage 4: Identify possible ways past the obstacles.

To conclude, CDA, as a theoretical framework, is transdisciplinary. CDA was used as the skeleton on which to build to shed light on themes that may reinforce

perceptions through the sequencing of topics, word selection, sentence structure, or omission of data. Therefore, CDA's theoretical approach required it to be used in conjunction with one or more theories, such as this project's emphasis on repetitive invisible themes found in leadership, gender and language that link to social ideologies that may have manifested in the workplace and position women as less capable leaders (Hansson et al., 2019; Martin, 2015; Latu & Mast, 2016; Szymanska & Rubin, 2018).

Feminism and Feminist Theory

Feminism, feminist movements, and feminine concerns are complex and tangled web. A literature review on the feminist component of this study was no small task when contemplating which themes warrant inclusion or exclusion. For example, sexual assault and victim shaming remain real and significant challenges for many women and men; however, relevance to the study at hand was nominal. Therefore, consideration of which threads to incorporate and where feminism and feminist activism diverge remained under scrutiny throughout the study's development.

In antiquity, protofeminism referred to the earliest forms of feminism and was suspected to have emerged in Greece. The primary argument of protofeminism was to assert that women were equally as intelligent as men and should have equal opportunities for education (Caffery, 2018). Similarly, Wollstonecraft, the mother of modern day feminism, criticized societies' treatment of women in her 1792 book, *The Vindication of the Rights of Women*, with a heavy emphasis on females' educational rights (Wollstonecraft & Brody, 2020). In modern times, feminism and feminist theory are typically conceptualized in waves. Marsha Lear first applied the narrative in her 1968

New York Times article, *The Second Feminist Wave*. There are three, arguably four, feminist waves that have developed within the United States. Briefly stated, the first wave focused on women's right to vote; the second wave aimed to achieve equal pay and autonomy of the female body; the third wave sought inclusivity for minorities such as queer and color; and the fourth wave transitioned feminist activism and theory to social media (Evans & Chamberlain, 2015).

Regardless of the number of waves that feminism has enjoyed, the application of a wave narrative presents a complex dichotomy. In one sense, the constraint of a specified era brings a perceived political slant and irrevocably entwines the wave with the politics of the timeframe that sustains it. In another sense, the wave hopes for its own and future waves extinction (Chamberlain, 2016). The focus of feminism on the past is needed to sustain its future which creates a disconnect from the present. The literature reviewed by Evans and Chamberlain (2015) suggested there are additional flaws with the concept of waves in they create generational barriers, exclude women of color, favor Western feminists, cause confusion when waves are combined, and create dissonance when women are faced with no option that fits their experience. Furthermore, while feminism is a transnational social movement that has been widely studied by academia and heavily politicized, the emergence of feminist movement waves varies by country, including a disparity of waves between first world countries such as Europe and the US (Dean & Aune, 2015).

Temporal waves metaphors of feminist theory and feminism can be approached from concepts of thinking and doing. Feminist theory and scholarship heavily rely on

activism and vice versa, but both create limitations when applying waves as a part of the narrative. First, each wave is temporal and generationally divided. Second, each wave has attempted to fix the former wave's problems while members of the prior wave castigate errors, discount advancements, and hold onto grudges. Finally, the older generation feels they possess more wisdom while the younger feel they are more relevant to current issues (Chamberlain, 2016).

Nonetheless, feminist theory formalized the feminist movement into a semi-structured theoretical philosophy. However, feminist theory is not a single theory; instead, it refers to a set of theories that are concerned with explaining the relative position of women in society by placing women at the center of the concern and can be applied in tandem with complementary theories such as political, race, and organizational psychology. As often asserted by feminists and feminist theorists, personal is political (Calder-Dawe & Gavey, 2019; Chamberlain, 2016), as shown to be the case in a review of each temporal wave.

First Wave Feminist Movement

The *first wave feminist movement* categorically lumps any efforts for gender equality between the mid-1800s and the 1960s and includes many changes in the political and social landscape of the United States (Caffery, 2018). The first wave feminism movement included the women's suffrage movement, that called for the right of women to vote, own property, and have educational opportunities (Cameron, 2015). In the United States, the wave boasted highly recognized women such as Susan B. Anthony, Sojourner Truth, Ida B. Wells, and Margaret Fuller. While these women were significant and

crucial to the United States' development, an in-depth review of literature into antiquity was outside this project's scope.

Second Wave Feminist Movement

The most widely known effort for female equality stemmed from the women's liberation movement, later coined the *second wave feminist movement* (Caffery, 2018). The *women's liberation movement* was spurred by Betty Friedan's book *The Feminine Mystic* (Friedan, 1963) and the feminist and journalist Gloria Steinman (Bloch, 2019; Eagly, 2018). Although the women's liberation movement's demands were multifaceted, the call for women's ability to enter the workforce made the movement and resulting theories deeply intertwined with gender, language and leadership concepts. The women's liberation movement or second wave feminist movement (SWFM) has been criticized as a platform for bored, educated, wealthy White women to lament their unhappy, unfulfilling lives as wives and mothers (hooks, 1987). Citing the desire to enter the workforce and the inability to do so, the movement failed to consider that many lower-class, single, or minority women were already employed and required to provide economically for their families. It was not until minority activists such as bell hooks (who took on the lowercase capitalization of her name in honor of her grandmother) raised the concept of race, sex, and class as interrelated aspects of sexism (hooks, 2015) that other aspects of womanhood were considered. Prejudice arose during the SWFM when radical feminists called for men's subrogation, and middle class White women dismissed Black and Latino women from conversations and rallies. However, hooks noted the sentiment was not one sided as Black women railed against association with a group who could not

relate to their struggle as Black and female. The movement splintered into, at times, hostile groups at odds with each other making a negative aspect of the movement the prejudice that was given to and received by women from other women (hooks, 1987). Internal friction and fragmentation resulted in many women agreeing equality was needed but felt the movement was too radical for them to call themselves feminist.

The primary assumption of SWFM feminist theories was women's victimization by men and implied the men were White, heterosexual, and free (hooks, 2015). The initial catalyst to spur the movement was not heavily researched, documented, planned, or even implemented. According to Eichler (1985), modern feminist approaches developed during the 1960s as a by-product of the women's liberation movement when women came forward as a self-proclaimed oppressed group and demanded equality for women in all areas of social, political, economic, cultural, and sexual matters. Feminist theorists and female academics began to look closely at theories in many areas to understand how strongly the theories supported or increased patriarchy. Within a decade and a half, four themes in feminist approaches emerged (a) focus on women; (b) focus on sex roles (including gender roles, gender relations); (c) development of feminist approach; and (d) focus on epistemological concerns. Feminism and feminist theory have been interwoven with many aspects of research, including politics, employment, leadership, and gender, to name only a few (Chamberlain, 2016), and significant research continues to be conducted from a multitude of perspectives, including gender equality and gender leadership (Baxter, 2015, 2017; Powell & Butterfield, 2015). Feminist and feminist theories have encountered a longstanding problem and issue in agreeing on "who

are we fighting” and remain at odds with internal bickering (Evans & Chamberlain, 2015). Feminist research has been argued to be made by women, for women, and on behalf of women (Coats, 2016), making arguments against themselves on a topic that is unclearly defined. Feminists across theories have not and cannot agree on a definition of “woman” due to arguments that the concept of “woman” is a social construct. Kristeva (as cited by Alcoff, 1997, p. 418) explains, “A woman cannot be; it is something which does not even belong in the order of being. It follows that a feminist practice can only be negative, at odds with what already exists so that we may say ‘that’s not it’ and ‘that’s still not it’.”. Evans and Chamberlain (2015) agreed and noted feminism inherently evokes political problems with the assumption that all women possess a common identity.

From an academic perspective, early SFWM feminist scholars relied upon Marxism as an existing framework for feminist theory (Beetz & Schwab, 2018). Marxism and feminism were akin as methods and calls to action in that both have sought to understand and change the world. However, feminist scholars using Marxism were, at times, criticized due to Marxism’s male-dominated orientation (Eichler, 1987). Marxism and feminism have held a longstanding love-hate relationship as each is equally theoretical and saturated in politics. Marxism theorized that class was the fundamental organizing principle of capitalism. Early feminism theories built on the concept of capitalism but argued that sex was also a factor as women were a part of yet separate from the men within their class (Cox, 2019). For example, a woman may be the wife of an upper-class male; however, she is still only the wife and not afforded the same

privileges as her male counterpart. Marxist and non-Marxist approaches to feminist theory placed family as the key component to female oppression, whether that be a component of domestic labor, human reproduction, socialization, hegemonic ideology, or the family related to a woman's role as wife and mother. Unfortunately, feminism theory and other research fields have fallen prey to the effects of reductionism by failing to look at a woman as a whole and complex being; instead, feminist theories have created a thinly sliced view of varying aspects of a woman (Flax, 1982)

Because views of feminist theory were so often approached from a personal perspective and there lacked a unified female experience, second wave feminist scholars developed a wide variety of theoretical approaches. A *structural feminist* approach united women through a common wound suggesting all women are oppressed by men (Eichler, 1985). Structural approaches such as *Marxist feminists* argued gender difference is rooted in social or economic disparities between men and women with no fundamental difference between the sexes. *Radical feminists* are another structural approach in which members believed that women experience common oppression, that provided women with a privileged position to expose the subordination of women, that women are better served by separate, women only organizations, and have gone so far as to write stories of utopian worlds in which men were entirely removed from society (Mellor, 1982). Marxists and radical feminists found common ground in the argument that women see the world differently from men; women are more intuitive than men and are in touch with the world. The common thread between structural approaches is that women are multifaceted, multivoiced, and possess fractured identities, suggesting that men are not.

Structuralist approaches have been argued to be “the construction of theory of women, by women, and for women” (p. 718), making women separate from men. Structural approaches have also been criticized for portraying a superior White account that ignores the influence of race, class, and socioeconomics. In many ways, feminists have been argued to be their own worst enemy because acknowledging being a woman is a necessary component of feminist theory (Alcoff, 1997). By noting the differences in a female’s life, feminists created separateness or otherness that may not have been intended.

Through the self-classification of women as a component of marginalization, feminists face a problem in acknowledging their role in marginalization or admit they are a victim powerless against men as the superior sex. As Alcoff (1997) noted, feminists must self-reflect on a society built on the control of women where all evidence of what it means to be a woman is built on misogyny and sexism. Alcoff further suggested men have defined women, yet, men are not subject to defined script and have the luxury of free will. A counterargument to Alcoff can be made that a woman’s role has been constructed by other women such as Emily Post for proper manners and socialites for fashion. *Cultural feminists* have defined women based on previous social constructs that were purely determined and enforced by men who have different views, interests, fear, and potential hatred for women (Mellor, 1982). Cultural feminists believe men attempt to dominate women due to male jealousy or hatred attributed to the male inability to give birth. Cultural feminists consider themselves separate from radical feminism due to cultural feminists’ belief of their theory as fully formed.

In contrast, radical feminists continue to struggle to define their approach's goals beyond separation from men (Mellor, 1982). On the other hand, cultural feminism has been criticized for creating an overly generalized definition of a woman. Regardless of the internal strife between feminism, attitudes about feminism are improving. Doyle (1976) conducted a reexamination of Kirkpatrick's scale initially developed in 1936 to measure attitudes towards feminism. Doyle administered Kirkpatrick's 180-item self-reporting scale to 75 female and 75 male university students and found a substantial shift towards profeminism in attitude occurred nearly equally between men and women alike. Due to the fractured and often negative view of feminism and the changes in attitudes towards feminism, soon thereafter, the SWFM gave way to the third wave movement intending to heal wounds inflicted from the fracturing of the SWFM.

Third Wave Feminist Movement

The third wave feminist movement (TWFM) sought to distance itself from the SWFM feminist, which was perceived as white, middle class, and exclusionary (Aune & Holyoak, 2018). Academia influenced the understanding and perception of TWFM; however, much of the research conducted on the wave was published in academic journals that were not available to the public creating a skewed and blurred view of a successful demarcation between the respective wave (Evans & Chamberlain, 2015). The TWFM argued that emphasis needed to be made on the intersectionality of gender, ethnicity, class, sexuality, and disability (Calder-Dawe & Gavey, 2017; Dean & Aune, 2015); however, the wave had been criticized as still exclusionary of color, lesbians,

bisexuals, working class, disabilities and transgender women and men. (Evans & Chamberlain, 2015).

Often referred to as the TWFM of feminism, *poststructural feminist* approaches agree with structuralist approaches that gender is constructed, fragmented, and complex but departs by adding that gender and sexuality go beyond the duality of boy and girl in that gender is performed or enacted based on an individual's interpretation of their gender (Robnett et al., 2018). Much like the SWFM, the TWFM has been criticized for its disregard for the history of the feminist movement and favoring white, well-educated young women (Evans & Chamberlain, 2016). However, poststructural feminists distance themselves from structural theories by arguing that power is shared, optimistically removing the concept of victimization exclusively by men yet still experience uniquely female challenges (Baxter, 2017). In the poststructural approach, the fight is against social ideologies regarding the female's ability to achieve. The intersectionality of the female experience became focal and, at times, self-destructive with the proliferation of foul language, hyper-femininity, and lipstick lesbians (Caffery, 2018).

Nevertheless, structural and poststructural feminist theories can be difficult to accept because of their positioning, which suggests that separateness, otherness, and social construction of gender are attributed only to women and that men are not subject to the pressures of the social construction of gender. Some feminist theorists have turned to poststructuralist discourse theory (Hansson et al., 2019). Poststructuralist discourse theorists such as Foucault and Derrida argue that gender enactment is not undetermined

rather overdetermined by social constructs, and the construct known as the woman is a fiction that must be dismantled.

In addition to poststructural feminism, liberal feminism developed during the TWFM era. Liberal feminists agree that men and women are essentially the same, and each sex is subject to stereotyping and prejudice requiring the removal of gender distinctions. A prime example of *liberal feminism*, and most relevant to this paper, argues to remove barriers that prevent women from competing for leadership roles in the context of work should include empowering men to move into more nurturing positions as a caregiver within the home through the redistribution of gender norms, roles, and expectations (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018a). Poststructural and liberal feminist theories appear to be among the more applied theories to workplace studies (Baxter, 2007, 2011, 2014, 2015, 2017; Baxter & Al-A'ali, 2014).

Fourth Wave Feminist Movement

There is debate whether the fourth wave of feminism (FWFM), that gained attention in the 2010s and is noted by its use of social media, warrants consideration as a wave. While critics question if a new wave is needed or if the introduction of technology is sufficient to consider a new movement, proponents make a compelling argument. Technology, social media specifically, has changed and accelerated communication between feminists and provides an opportunity for a feminist to engage when they cannot physically attend events (Chamberlain, 2016; Evans & Chamberlain, 2015). Arguments in favor of a new wave suggest feminism is losing momentum and interest among the younger generations of women due to their inability to identify with issues that have been

resolved or advanced by feminists of the FWSM, SWFM, and TWFM. A fresh wave, fully demarcated from prior waves with themes and objectives that are relevant today, would spark current youth and upcoming generations' interest. (Evans & Chamberlain, 2015) especially in light of current feminist efforts, which have shifted towards gender over sex with the emergence and inclusion of LGBTQA. the internet and social media

Conclusion

Waves are discussed by their differences rather than similarities (Chamberlain, 2016). Due to waves' temporal nature, members must choose an era they best identify with, that creates a separate identity and causes conflict as well as friction. For example, SWFM proponents view TWFM members as wave materialistic, while FWFM identifiers view the earlier waves as exclusionary. The only agreement between the various movements is that each views the others as self-centered while they are altruistic. Until feminists cease clinging to a wave metaphor that manifests in a specific wave narrative, a cohesive identity will not be attained (Evans & Chamberlain, 2015)

Feminist and feminist research has been typically approached from negativity rather than embracing female advances (Winegard et al., 2015). However, Alice Eagly (2018, pp. 879-880) provided compelling data based on peer-reviewed research supporting the female progress towards equality:

- Women occupy the presidency of 30% of U.S. colleges and universities.
- Women are 28% of the CEOs when all U.S. organizations are considered, and 45% of the CEOs of nonprofit organizations.

- A meta-analysis of studies on the emergence of leaders from leaderless groups showed a steady decline in the tendency of men to emerge more than women.
- Research on sexual harassment in the U.S. federal workforce found a marked decrease in everyday harassment between 1994 and 2016 (e.g., sexual teasing, suggestive looks).
- In academic science, observational data from actual hiring at 89 U.S. research-intensive institutions for recent cohorts indicated that women who applied for positions had a better chance of being interviewed and receiving offers than did male job candidates.
- Experimental simulations of academic hiring found a strong favoring of women over equally qualified men in STEM.
- Female and male professors in recent U.S. cohorts in psychology departments have progressed at similar rates from assistant to associate to full professor after securing a tenure track position.
- In recent years, high potential female job candidates have enjoyed a wage premium over men because of their diversity value within U.S. businesses.

A final note on feminism and feminist theory before moving forward with a literature review on language, gender, and leadership is to reassert feminist research and media appropriated the word gender to argue for female advancement (Eagly, 2018). Until recently and still, predominately, the terms female and gender have been used interchangeably while men became conceptualized as genderless and used interchangeably with person (Coats, 2016). Although feminism self-reports the inclusion

of all, considerable research and support for feminism and feminist research are directed towards women, as evidenced in the preceding pages. There remains little research, support, or framework to acknowledge men or men as gendered. Men's studies and issues are typically discounted, as evidenced by the American Psychological Association, founded in 1892, for the first time in its 129-year history, acknowledged males and announced guidelines for counseling men and boys in 2019 (Pappas, 2019).

Language

Language provides the ability to connect with another to create a common goal or meaning and sets humankind apart from all other animals on this planet. *Language* is composed of agreed upon symbols, both verbal and nonverbal, shared concepts, ideas, opinions, emotions, and what it means to be human (Ochs, 2012; Fairclough, 2016; Gee, 2016). As such, it cannot be sufficiently stressed that language is purely symbolic and subjective. For example, every word written within this paper's confines is a symbolic representation of a concept established in the tongue of an American native to American English and written to an audience of fellow, highly educated academic individuals. Understanding the text written within this paper is dependent upon the reader possessing a commonly shared meaning of the symbols of letters, words, sentence structure, and some prior subjective exposure to content or ability to translate and transform abstract concepts based upon previous abstract thinking (Hurst et al., 2018b; Smith, 2018).

Since humans learn over time, it is quite understandable to rely on the general knowingness of language as representational without consciously thinking of abstract symbolism's complexity to concrete thought. A word, composed of symbolic

representation we know of as letters, is a concept that will not typically visually relate to the intended object's structure or function. Our understanding level is built on prior experience, and it is the prior experience that allows meaning to manifest (Fairclough, 2016; Smith, 2018). Philosophers and theologians discuss language's symbolic nature in challenging and abstract ways, such as etymology or esoterically, that are not relatable to the typical person. A more relevant example of the symbolic nature of language is a small child learning to speak. A toddler sees a cow and says "moo," a duck and says "quack," a pig and says "oink," and so on. Much like Old MacDonald's farm, the child refers to every animal as the sound it makes. A more auditory-visual aligned word for cow would be "moo" because the noise generated more closely aligns with the mental image than the seemingly random word "cow," that we have come to know in the English language. In French, the same creature is known as "la vache"; "die Kuh" in German; and baqara or بقرة in Arabic. Ultimately, the association we make with the phonetic sounds of "cow," "vache," "Kuh," or "baqara" marry to our mental image of a creature that generates the sound "moo." Each word represents the same creature but is vocalized differently and is received differently by individuals who either do or do not speak the same language. Subjectivity comes into play as a visual representation of conceptual meaning that must be shared by participants (Ochs, 2012; Fairclough, 2016; Gee, 2017). For example, an American may view the cow as a potential dinner, where a Hindu may see it as a sacred creature, and a Muslim may not recognize the English alphabet's structural shapes.

Discourse is the level of language in which symbols through sound are strung together into words and syntax (Wodak & Meyer, 2016) into a collection of

conversations that, over time, create meaning (Gee, 2017). Discourse continues over time until each participant forms a mental impression that becomes ingrained within their mind based on their interpretation of the exchanges. In theory, each person within the group will have the same mental image, but that is not necessarily the case because of the influence of other instances of discourse from previous interactions with other people. Every conversation has the power to shape our minds, how we think, influence how others think, and create a level of belief in ourselves (Karawoksky et al., 2017). Much like the image of a cow is a cow, what we hear and see in the world around us becomes our truth through repetitive exposure.

Sociolinguist and feminist Robin Lakoff first suggested an individual's biological sex as a factor in using language within a short publication titled *Language and a Woman's Place* (Lakoff, 1975). Lakoff outlined what became known as *woman's register*, which describes a communication style that is communal. Arguably the groundbreaking foundation of gendered sociolinguistic theory, Lakoff's work has been heavily criticized due to the positioning the female manner of speech as inferior to that of men and that male styles of expression are that which are ideal in Western cultures (Hall & Bucholtz, 1995). Additional criticism has been made based on Lakoff's lack of scientific research to form the theoretical framework. Lakoff acknowledged data was obtained from introspections of her use of language, those around her, and media. Finally, contemporary researchers noted Lakoff's writing style took on an air of hyperbole that was, at times, overly defensive rather than scientific and "embarrassingly self-indulgent" (Showalter, 1975). Lakoff unwittingly set the stage for future research to

position female speech and thereby position women as the lesser sex. Nonetheless, Lakoff's observations of the female use of language and the terminology she outlined within the 1975 publication remain an intricate part of gender sociolinguistics and gender leadership research.

Lakoff's successors took steps to create a more scientific approach to collecting and analyzing linguistic data (Baxter, 2007; Bucholtz, 2005; Butler, 1990; Cameron, 2015; Coats, 2016; Holmes, 1995). Linguist and professor Deborah Tannen (1990) brought the concept of gendered sociolinguistics to the mainstream's attention, laypersons by writing numerous accessibly written books, including *You Just Don't Understand*, to bring light to male/female communication strategies. Tannen included the phenomenon of gendered discourse in the workplace in *Talking from 9 to 5* (Tannen, 1994). More recently, feminist and sociolinguist Judith Baxter applied poststructural feminist discourse analysis to women's communication styles in leadership positions, fully bringing a feminist perspective to understanding women's language while leading in organizations (Baxter, 2014, 2015, 2017; Baxter & Al-A'ali, 2014).

Gender

To fully appreciate the intersection of gender, language and leadership, it is essential to understand the differences between sex and gender. *Sex* is physical differences between men and women, such as reproductive systems, that are considered biological facts (Cox, 2019). *Sex* is deemed to be binary or bifurcated as male or female, with the rare exception of hermaphrodites, that possess both male and female reproductive organs (Roughgarden, 2017). Through evolutionary biology, other

observable differences between males and females include physical stature in that men are typically larger than women and women possess physical structures required for gestation and nourishment of offspring (Cameron, 2015). Interestingly, it has been suggested that due to evolutionary biology and the need to reproduce, identifying and placement into male or female sex categories is the first and foremost effort expended by the brain when encountering others (Liben & Bigler, 2015).

Gender is considerably more complicated as a combination of nature and nurture. In addition to cognitive (Bem, 1981) and neurological variations (Cameron, 2015; Plumlee et al., 2016), Cameron (2015) argues *gender* is the social, cultural, psychological constructs that are imposed on each biological sex that suggests gender is binary alongside sex. Adding to the complexity of gender are the numerous approaches applied to gender studies. Gender can be applied to social roles, social norms, gender identity, and gender roles, to name only a few. Each vantage point will add to the overall concept of gender, but such a multifaceted approach creates disconnected views and meanings of maleness and femaleness. *Gender norms* are cultural ideas about how men and women are supposed to act (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018b). *Gender roles* are the learned behavior about how to be a woman or man (Karakowsky et al., 2017). Taken together, the concepts of gender norms and gender roles oversimplify gender. *Gender identity* is the personal and individualistic sense of one's gender and how it correlates to biological sex within a given context, situation, or community (Szymanska & Rubin, 2018). The combination of perception of biological sex and how sex overlays with concepts of gender categories are the foundation of a person's *social identity* (Lortie et al., 2017).

Cameron (2015) suggests that gender refers to psychosociocultural constructs imposed on the normative biological binaries of maleness and femaleness, making gender a learned system of knowledge that is varied, fluid, attitudinal, and based on an individual's interpretation of cultural meaning. More simply and popularly received by the public, some researchers argue that gender is how children are taught to behave as boy or girl within a given culture, making gender identity shaped by social categories and expectations or traits of men and women, typically referred to as masculinity or femininity (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018a). According to McDowell (2015), how one sees oneself as a man or woman in gender identity is not something one is born into; it is what one does.

Gender has been said to be fluid, but the concept of gender as a spectrum is more accurate. Judith Butler (1990) published her seminal work on gender as performative and introduced the concept of gender as performed. The *performative theory* postulates that gender is fluid (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018b). The term fluidity was applied to mean how gender is perceived and applied changes as an individual grows older (Butler, 1990). Infants are unaware of their maleness or femaleness yet play with gender-specific toys within a few years. Small children will hold hands and hug one another only to one day find the other sex is repulsive. At the onset of puberty, hormones begin to produce pronounced physical, mental, and psychological differences in the young male or female (Cameron, 2015). Changes in gender enactment continue throughout life. For example, female career development will emphasize varying aspects of work based on her gender identity in different life phases. At the same time, the hard-nosed, career-driven male may

one day soften into a loveable grandfather. To that end, Butler was not suggesting the fluidity of gender as an idea that we can change our gender preference or gender identity at will. Gender is wired in the brain as strongly as any other aspect of a person's personality (Jenkins & Finneman, 2018); it is the perceptions of how to enact gender that changes over a lifetime (Butler, 1990).

Much like Butler, Sandra Bem, U. S. psychologist, has contributed considerably to the body of knowledge regarding gender (Starr & Zurbriggen, 2017). Bem's (1981) seminal work adds to the discussion of gender by asserting that in every culture, the distinction between male and female serves as an organizing method and that assignment to one sex or another allocates adults to a role based on biological sex, including culturally anticipated behavior. Bem's *gender schema theory* states the phenomenon of sex-typing arises from a cognitive need, rather than social need, to classify concepts as a form of processing information, and those concepts are translated into current meaning based on historical knowledge (Bem, 1981; Liben & Bigler, 2015). *Schemas* are cognitive networks of associations that organize and guide an individual's perception and serve as a standard to compare their adequacy against the prescribed prototype (Bem, 1981), meaning the human brain requires cognitive processing and structure. Due to cognitive processing, we are always aware of the sex of those we interact. As a result, cognitively, we bring to every interaction our familiarity with societal gender stereotypes and the gendered norms to which women and men are expected to conform (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018a; 2018b).

Advances in brain sciences help to understand the differences between male and female brain construction. Leading experts on gender science Michael Gurian and Barbara Annis (2008, pp. 9-10) note the male and female intelligence is equivalent but different in many ways:

- How and what men versus women remember,
- how males versus females process words,
- how each sex experiences the world,
- how and what women buy compared to their male counterparts,
- differences in the limbic system and workings of emotional processing, and
- percentage of white and grey matter in the brain

The difference in male/female brain structuring (Cameron, 2015; Plumlee et al., 2016) is another instance in which the fluidity or spectrum of gender is present in each person. Reiterating gender and sex are different concepts; there is a limitation to the English language in discussing male versus female brains. Mavisakalyan (2015) argues that languages possess gender systems that require linkage with other sentence elements. Languages fall into one of three categories (a) highly gendered, those with gender distinction in the first, second, and third person pronoun; (b) mildly gendered, a distinct third person only pronoun; and (c) gender neutral, those with no gender pronoun. The impact of gender intensity on the individuals living in and speaking each language is directly impacted cognitively. Furthermore, gender identity is developed at an earlier age in speakers of gender-intensive language compared to speakers of other languages.

Early research labeled agentic traits as masculine since the traits were typically identified with men and relational traits as feminine as usually associated with women (Gabriel et al., 2018). The delineation of traits created a binary and bifurcated conceptual model that does not allow for variation. However, every individual possesses a varying degree of agentic and communal traits, that places each person on a spectrum of gender. A man whose tendencies are all “masculine” would possess no compassion, and a woman who is all “feminine” would possess absolutely no ability to make decisions. The culture in which individuals are raised will impact each of us to some degree, but gender is also a part of our DNA (Cameron, 2015; Plumlee et al., 2016). The wiring of gender in humanity’s DNA explains why women are more nurturing and men are more agentic across every country regardless of cultural differences. In summary, gender is a complex, multifaceted phenomenon integrating aspects of cultural, psychological, neurological, cognitive, and social influences to create an individual interpretation of identity, which will be enacted differently throughout life.

Leadership Theories

Leadership has been conceptualized from varying perspectives and attempts to explain effective leadership provide numerous approaches (Gardner et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2020; Lord et al., 2017; 2020; Vasilescu, 2019). Leadership theory seeks to understand a particular aspect of leadership and is traditionally classified into trait theories, behavior and motivation theories, contingency theories, and integrative leadership theories (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Lord et al. (2017) agree and note that before World War 1, studies focused on traits theory but gained psychologists’ interest with a

surge of leadership research conducted in applied psychology beginning with the end of World War II in 1947.

Before embarking on a review of the many facets of leadership theory, it should be noted that since leadership theory entered academic consideration in 1900, a unified definition of leadership has yet to be agreed upon (Ghasabeh et al., 2015; Vasilescu, 2019). The inability of leadership scholars to create a unified theory can be attributed to leadership being conceptualized in many ways. Some theorists place the leader at the center of leadership theory. In contrast, others suggest leadership is based on power sharing between the leader and follower, placing the follower in charge of the leader's ability to lead effectively (Siangchokyoo et al., 2020). The reciprocal view of leadership demonstrates that without followers, leadership is unnecessary and leadership is a multilevel event taking place at an individual, team, organization, and across groups (Carter et al., 2020; Epitropaki et al., 2020). Regardless, a working definition of leadership is necessary. For this study, the definition of *leadership* is accepted as “a process whereby an individual influences a group or individual to achieve a common goal” with an emphasis on influence (Northouse, 2016, p. 6).

Leadership theories appear to branch in many different ways; however, upon closer examination, each builds upon the other and creates a more holistic view of workplace relationships, dependencies, and discourse. Early work in trait, behavioral, and motivation theories by Alford, McClelland, McGregor, and several universities laid a solid foundation and developed a lexicon for discussing the universality of leadership (Lussier & Achua, 2015), and applied psychology saw higher numbers of research studies

focusing on leadership (Lord et al., 2017). Tools were established to measure personality, leadership ability, and technique (see Blake & Mouton, 1964; Goldberg, 1990; Stodgill, 1974). Trait theory attempted to identify particular attributes possessed by all exceptional leaders. Behavioral and motivational theory considered the action, behavior, and motivation of the leader and the follower. While perspectives remained separate, each complemented and supported. Zaccaro et al. (2018) call the need for an integrated review of theories due to the many aspects of leadership that should be considered holistically to identify the ability to lead effectively. By the 1960s, researchers such as Fiedler introduced contingency theory (Hussain & Hassan, 2015). Later, Weber and Burns introduced style theory that employs a distinctive way of leading (Vasilscu, 2019) to classify charismatic and transformational leadership. In the following pages, predominant and emerging leadership approaches and theories will be reviewed.

Trait Approach

The predominately accepted leadership model before the 1940s; *trait theory* asserts the ability to lead as an intrinsic or innate quality possessed from birth, greater importance than skill, and research attempts to identify particular attributes possessed by all exceptional leaders (Gottfredson & Reina, 2020). The earliest systematic study of leadership argued that leaders were born rather than made and suggested leaders could be identified through innate qualities and characteristics possessed by the famous military, political, and social leaders (Ghasabeh et al., 2015; Spector, 2016). Leadership research during the 1840s believed “great” individuals only possessed leadership qualities; thereby, the term great man theory was coined. The great man theory concept was

popularized by Thomas Carlyle, who gave a series of lectures, later put into print, on the role of heroes in shaping history (Spector, 2016). While there were a few notable exceptions, such as Joan of Arc and Catherine the Great, the great man theory's key theme was that each leader was considered extraordinary or exceptional and sent by God in male form. By today's standards, Carlyle's great man theory is often regarded as offensive due to the apparent belief that God only sent men to lead (Mouton, 2019; Spector, 2016); however, the lectures were written during the Victorian era and culturally appropriate to the day. Great man theory remained unchallenged until the 1860s when Herbert Spencer argued the qualities possessed by and associated with great male leaders were purely a product of the times and circumstances of leadership (Northouse, 2016), yet remained intact as the primary leadership theory until the 1930s when researchers questioned the universal application of the theory. Although seemingly antiquated, the great man theory is still prevalent in current leadership research reviews (see Ghasabeh et al., 2015; Hussain & Hassan, 2015; Lord et al., 2017; Mouton, 2019; Shafique & Beh, 2017).

Leadership researchers became interested in which personality traits influenced those deemed to be the best leaders (Lord et al., 2017). In 1948 Stogdill analyzed 124 trait studies conducted between 1904 and 1947 (Ghasabeh et al., 2015). Stogdill found that leaders differ from others by possessing eight traits: intelligence, alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, and sociability; however, he also found a situational component to leadership (Hussain & Hassan, 2015). Stogdill heavily stressed the situational element, and an individual may step forward as a leader in one

instance but not another (Northouse, 2016). Mann (1959) conducted a similar study that examined over 1,400 findings from leadership in small group settings. While Mann's results mostly agreed with Stogdill regarding leadership as traits-oriented, less emphasis was placed on situational and determined intelligence, masculinity, adjustment, dominance, extraversion, and conservatism were the primary traits of influential leaders. Stogdill (1974) conducted secondary research, that analyzed 163 new studies and compared findings to the 1947 results. Stogdill was able to validate his findings from the original study and renamed or expanded upon characteristics. However, in the 1974 study, Stogdill placed less stress on the situational components. In 1984, Lord and associates re-evaluated Mann's 1959 study using meta-analysis. They found that intelligence, masculinity, and dominance were related to how followers perceived their leaders, making intelligence, masculinity, and dominance the key traits to leadership (Ghasabeh et al., 2015). Soon after, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) conducted a qualitative synthesis of the earlier research outlined in this section and found that leaders possess: drive, motivation, integrity, confidence, cognitive ability, and task knowledge, arguing that leadership traits can be learned, innate, or both.

More recently and potentially influenced by other emerging leadership theories, Zaccaro et al. (2018) suggest there are foundational leadership traits: cognitive abilities, extraversion, conscientiousness, emotional stability, openness, agreeableness, motivation, social intelligence, self-monitoring, emotional intelligence, and problem solving. Zaccaro and associates assert that influential leaders possess high cognitive, social, and emotional intelligence and suggest genetic factors. Adding to Zaccaro's and team's research,

Baczyńska and Rowiński (2015) suggest individual leadership differences can predict leader effectiveness.

The traits possessed by great leaders have received considerable attention since the earliest studies of the 1840s (Hussain & Hassan. 2015), and while there is no universal agreement on all the traits possessed by the best leaders, the primary traits found across all studies include intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability (Ghasabeh et al., 2015; Northouse, 2016). However, no conversation on leadership or leadership traits can be had without including Goldberg's (1990) big-five theory. Developed from early linguist research, the *big-five theory* states there are basic dimensions of personality:

- *Neuroticism* is the tendency to be depressed, anxious, insecure, vulnerable, and hostile.
- *Extraversion* is the tendency to be sociable and assertive and to have positive energy.
- *Openness* is the tendency to be informed, creative, insightful, and curious.
- *Agreeableness* is the tendency to be accepting, conforming, trusting, and nurturing.
- *Conscientiousness* is the tendency to be thorough, organized, controlled, dependable, and decisive.

Although the big-five theory can be applied from a multitude of perspectives, the well-validated personality inventory remains a mainstay in leadership research. For example, Connelly et al. (2016) conducted large-sample validation of a set of scales of an

existing 360-degree personality measure, the LMAP 360 (leadership multi-rater assessment of personality). They clustered data into underlying themes aligned to the big-five theory and found LMAP research scales correlated strongly with corresponding scales from other inventories.

Skills Approach

As with trait theory, skills theory approaches leadership from the individual leader perspective (Baczyńska & Rowiński, 2015). Where the skills theory differs from trait theory is the shift to emphasis of innate, largely fixed attributes to skills that can be learned or grown over time. Arguably the father of skills theory was Robert Katz, who published his seminal article *Skills of an effective administrator* in the *Harvard Business Review*. Katz (1955) suggested three basic skills assigned to influential leaders or labeled according to Katz as effective administrators. Katz defined *technical skill* as the knowledge or proficiency in a particular type of work, such as accounting. *Human skill* is the knowledge and ability to work with people. Finally, *conceptual skill* is to work with ideas and concepts. A more simplistic translation is the best leaders have a well-rounded skill set that includes the ability to understand the overall product (technology), work with people, and creatively think in terms of ideas over tangibles. For example, strategic thinking to meet organizational goals requires thinking beyond traditional answers to a given problem. Katz asserted the importance of each skill varies according to the position of the leader within the organization. Top management requires a greater emphasis on human and conceptual skills, but technical skills are less critical. Frontline leaders or

supervisors require higher technical and human skills but require less conceptual ability, whereas middle management must be well versed in all three skills.

Skills theory remained little changed until the 1990s when Mumford and his associates were funded by the U. S. Army and Department of Defense to develop a comprehensive leadership theory (Northouse, 2016). Mumford and team were provided access to over 1,800 Army officers at varying levels of leadership. Over many years, the researchers collected and examined data to explain what factors create effective leadership. According to Mumford et al. (2000), the components are competencies, individual attributes, leadership outcomes, career experiences, and environmental influences. What is essential about the Mumford team's skills model is the stress on the leader's ability, that is shaped by cognitive, environmental, personality, and experiential conditions. Mumford continued skill research continued into the twenty-first century through collaboration with other researchers to understand how skills are acquired over the life of a leader's career and how skills are transferred or reapplied as the leader moves from junior positions of authority to senior positions (Day et al., 2014).

Behavioral and Motivation Approaches

Behavioral approaches to leadership aim to understand successful leadership through what leaders do and how they act and include the leaders' actions toward their followers in various environments (Northouse, 2016, Lord et al., 2017). Behavioral approaches emphasize people versus production, identify the need for both people and production leaders, and create opportunities for co-leadership (Lussier & Achua, 2015).

Behavioral theories began to emerge in the latter part of the 1940s through the efforts of three distinct research and well known groups who, for the first time, suggested that leadership is not based on a trait. The Ohio State University research team analyzed how individuals acted when they were leading groups or an organization through the perspective of followers (Stodgill, 1974). Followers completed a lengthy questionnaire describing different aspects of leadership behavior. Data from the questionnaire were gathered for six years from a wide variety of organizational settings. Led by Stodgill, the Ohio State team found responses clustered into two general leadership behaviors (a) *initiating structure* or task-oriented and (b) *consideration*, that is relationship oriented. In a separate study, the University of Michigan's approach to leadership behavior took a different approach as Likert and team (1961) focused attention on the impact of the leader's performance in small groups. Although applying different terminology, Michigan identified two orientations that are remarkably similar to the Ohio State findings. The University of Michigan coined the terms *production oriented*, closely aligning with initiating structure or task-oriented and *employee oriented*, similar to consideration or relationship oriented. The notable difference between the two universities was their original view of the interdependence of the two behaviors. In the opinion of the Ohio State researchers, the behaviors were independent of one another. Initially, the University of Michigan viewed the behaviors to be on a continuum; however, later agreed with the Ohio State assertion of the separateness of the behaviors. The benefit of independence of the behaviors is the ability to adjust each without losing the emphasis on the other. Finally, *the managerial grid* of the early 1960s, that has been

trademarked as *the leadership grid*, is possibly the most well known and widely used behavioral theory. Developed by Blake and Mouton (1964), concern for production or task-oriented behavior and concern for people or relationship oriented behavior is placed on a grid to demonstrate how leaders help organizations reach their goals. The two former studies list the behaviors from a low to high or two tiered model; the grid adds a third or middle tier that provides an option for middle ground. While each study and model that emerged added positively to leadership theory overall, each contributed to the perception that to be a great, effective leader, one must rank high in all tasks and relationships.

Other well-recognized theories focused on behavior and motivation include *McClelland's achievement motivation theory* (McClelland, 1961) that aimed to explain and predict behavior and performance based on an individual's need for achievement, power, or affiliation, and *McGregor's theory X and theory Y* that attempted to explain and predict leadership behavior based on leaders' attitudes about followers (Lussier & Achua, 2015; McGregor, 2006). However, the motivation theory most relevant to the study was the Pygmalion effect.

The Pygmalion effect suggests leaders' attitudes toward followers' expectations, and their treatment of followers explains and predicts the followers' behavior and motivation (Good et al., 2018). Developed by Rosenthal (1995), the *Pygmalion effect* suggests a high expectation established for an individual will cause the individual to rise to the occasion and perform at a higher level. The Pygmalion effect is often used interchangeably with self-fulfilling prophecy. However, the Pygmalion effect refers to a

specific type of self-fulfilling prophecy (Belasen & Belasen, 2017). Raising the manager's expectations of worker's performance increases employee performance by creating a favorable climate, input, output, and feedback. First suggested by Merton in 1948, a *self-fulfilling prophecy* (Karakowsky et al., 2017) manifests when a vision or prophecy impacts an individual's beliefs at such a deep level the person rises to the occasion to achieve the foretold vision or prophecy. Similar to path-goal theory, the Pygmalion effect is rooted in *Vroom's expectancy theory*, which is an individual's belief or perception of their ability to achieve the desired outcome (Duan et al., 2017). There is a level of interpersonal expectancy innate to leader-follower relationships, and the Pygmalion-at-work model suggests a complementary nature of self-fulfilling prophecy in that a manager's high (or low) expectation creates a subtle and unconscious change in the way the leader treats the follower (Khorakian & Sharifirad, 2019; Zaccaro et al., 2018).

In the organizational setting, the Pygmalion effect becomes a motivational phenomenon initiated by the high-performance expectations held by a leader who believes his or her followers' capacity for success. In recent studies, the Pygmalion effect has been highly linked to transformational leadership styles (Anderson & Sun, 2017; Duan et al., 2017). Critics of studies surrounding the Pygmalion effect argue against the use of intentional interpersonal contrasting. *Leader implicit followership theory* (LIFT) suggests cognitive categories leaders have regarding followers' traits and behaviors before realizing experience (Khorakian & Sharifirad, 2019). Much like stereotypes, LIFTs are the mind's strategy to streamline the complexity of our daily interactions; LIFTs help us make sense of what we see, interpret, understand, and respond to

followers. Not surprisingly, LIFTs are much like dominos; activating one tends to prompt more. Interpersonal contrasts occur by noting a difference between individuals and potentially creating bias, for example, suggesting to a leader someone is more promising (while not explicitly stating others are not). Interpersonal contrasts assert the mere suggestion of worth or otherwise immediately and permanently taint the leader's perception and create a disadvantage for anyone within a control group setting. However, the perception of the leader regarding the followers' ability may change over time. As evidenced by research exploring the Pygmalion effect, how a leader interprets the leader-follower interpersonal dynamics shapes the leader's judgment and behavior toward the associate, which creates changes within the employee, allowing the leader to reshape time after time what they think about the employee. LIFTS tend to color the manager's expectations for the follower, which influences interaction and creates the employee's Pygmalion effect.

Contingency or Situational Approaches

The third dominant leadership paradigm emerged in the 1960s, and as the name suggests, *contingency* or *situational theories* support the idea leaders need to change behavior based upon the situation. *Situational leadership* is prescriptive and suggests that leadership is composed of both directive and supportive dimensions, each of which must be appropriately applied dependent upon the situation (Ghasabeh et al., 2015; Hershey, 1985). In essence, the approach suggests that followers fall along a continuum of development and directive needs. According to the theory, leaders must continuously identify where each follower lies along that continuum and provide the proper guidance

or support for their continued growth and success (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969a; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969b; Hussain & Hassan, 2015). Although there are numerous contingency theories, the common theme is the emphasis between the leader and the follower. The theories provided a more prescriptive view of leadership than earlier theories descriptive view; models were developed along with theories to assist leaders in identifying appropriate leadership styles. Theories also considered variables such as (a) leader: personality traits, behavior, and experience; (b) followers: capability and motivation; and (c) situation: task, structure, and position power. The field produced many popular theories, with the earliest work being that of *Fiedler's contingency theory* (Fiedler, 1967; Shafique & Beh, 2017), which identified the leader style, assessed the situation, and matched leaders according to the situation. Fiedler believed leaders should change the situation, not their style. If the organization was not a good fit, then move elsewhere. Fiedler laid the groundwork for subsequent theories moving the field of leadership research forward.

Path-Goal Theory

Path-goal theory takes the contingent or situational approach to leadership by emphasizing the relationship between the leader and the follower. Developed by Mitchell and House (A. Phillips & C. Phillips, 2016; Plumlee et al., 2016), the leader's role is to clear the path from obstacles for the follower to reach predetermined goals. In reaching goals, the employee is then rewarded and becomes more motivated to achieve new goals. For example, an employee who is motivated by achievement or a need to excel is best led through frequent challenges, while an individual who needs higher affiliation is best

guided in a supportive manner. The path-goal theory differs from skills and behavior theories, that place the leader at the center of attention by shifting focus to the employee's needs.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Similar to path-goal theory, the relationship between leader and employee is focal; however, the *leader-member exchange theory* (LMX) considers the interactions between leaders and followers (Duan et al., 2017) and is the second most studied leadership theory (Carter et al., 2020). Originally called *vertical dyad linkage* (Kim et al. 2020), the LMX theory suggests a linkage or relationship between the leader and follower in one of two forms. Members of the *in-group* benefit from a better relationship with the leader and receive more information, care, and support; whereas members of the *out-group* are excluded from information sharing, support, and nurture from their leader, making them less confident and successful (Carter et al. 2020; Epitropaki et al. 2020; Khorakian & Sharifirad, 2019). LMX does not suggest a one-size-fits-all approach to the in-group and out-group designation. Each LMX relationship is unique, and the extent an employee feels included or excluded from the group will vary, but the leader determines the invitational categoricity. Research has shown a high LMX improves employee well-being (Rudolph et al. 2020), the follower's self-efficacy is increased (Khorakain & Sharifirad, 2019), and high performance is achieved (Vasilescu, 2019).

Transactional, Transformational, and Laissez-Faire Leadership

During the 1970s, integrative theories emerged to combine trait, motivation, behavioral, and contingency models to create a more holistic picture of effective leaders.

Popularly recognized integrative theories are transactional and transformational leadership. *Transactional leaders* are focused on meeting company directives, whereas *transformational leaders* focus on the needs of the individual (Carter et al., 2020). The term transformational leadership was first coined by Downton (1973) and has risen to become one of the most popular leadership theories to date and the most widely studied form of leadership (Carter et al., 2020). Burns, writer and authority on leadership studies, laid out a new leadership concept that separated leadership styles as *transforming* and *transactional* and moved leadership theories beyond pure traits. Since the concepts were first introduced by Burns (1979) more than four decades ago, much has been written about the use of transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership. According to Burns, leadership is an aspect of power with the ability to motivate others to achieve specific goals held by the leader. Burns believed that leadership involved both the leader and follower's wants and needs, that can be seen in two distinct ways. First, *transactional leadership* can be considered the historical form of leadership with an economic exchange of money for services by the employee's ability to meet specific goals or standards, such as quota or customer satisfaction ratings. *Transforming leadership* moves past exchange to engagement to generate associates increased levels of motivation and commitment. Burns presented a compelling argument for a heightened level of morals within an organization led by a transforming leader as he stated, "...transforming leadership ultimately becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both leader and led, and thus it has a transforming effect on both." (Burns, p. 382). In 1985, Bass presented a similar model of leadership based on Burns'

work. Bass (1999) suggested the nature of work, and thereby leadership, required a change from transactional to include transformational leadership due to changes in the market place, automation, and an increase in educated professionals. Rather than a single, educated leader, entire teams of well-educated individuals became commonplace resulting in flatter organizations with less hierarchy and created a need for people to be motivated by means other than economics. Additional arguments suggested the nature of work changed when Baby Boomers rejected their parents hard work as materialistic values that stemmed from the poverty of two World Wars and the Great Depression (Ferree & Hess, 2002). Ferree and Hess go on to assert the prosperity that followed post-war America allowed for the entrance of women in the workforce ultimately placed greater emphasis on social relationships within the confines of work due to the relational, nurturing force of women entered to the workforce. In Bass' model, transactional leadership works by providing rewards contingent on performance making the clarification of goals and standards important and intervening only if there is a failure to achieve success criteria (Ghasabeh et al., 2015). Conversely, transformational leaders elevates the follower to align with the leader's vision, goals and objectives through charisma, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. *Charismatic leadership* is placed at the center of the transformational model by assuming followers will want to be like and act like the dynamic, charismatic leader. Bass and Burns agreed charismatic leadership creates a domino effect where the positive, elevated (or lowered) expectation of the leader effects employees' overall performance (Bass et al., 1987; Burns, 1979). Much like the Pygmalion effect outlined by Rosenthal (1995),

transformational leaders appear to have the ability to create environments where employees can rise above previous expectations merely because of the belief of the leader in them (Good et al., 2018).

Bass and Burns disagree about the either/or nature of transformational and transactional leadership (Bass et al., 1987; Burns, 1979). Burns' model argued that leaders possess one style or the other. Bass's model suggested that both transactional and transformational leadership are necessary and used by influential leaders. According to Bass, transactional leadership identifies goals, objectives, and clear success criteria; transformational leaders increase commitment, loyalty, and performance. Transactional leadership can induce stress, but transformational leadership helps everyone to deal with stress.

In summary, transformations, transactional, and laissez-faire possess different dimensions that result in differences in work performance, satisfaction, and overall trust (Bass et al., 1987):

Dimensions of Transactional Leadership.

- Contingent rewards are provided in exchange for services rendered based on performance goals or predefined expectations.
- Active management by exception occurs when the leader provides guidance only when associates fail to meet standards or expectations.
- Passive management by exception takes place when the leader only intercedes when there is a problem.

Dimensions of Transformational Leadership.

- Inspirational motivation occurs when the leader envisions a future and provides a solution for reaching the desired future state.
- Idealized behavior is displayed when the leader sets and lives by example, high standards, conviction, and confidence.
- The leader provides intellectual stimulation in allowing followers to solve problems without fear of negative repercussions for failure, thereby facilitating intellectual growth opportunities.
- Individual consideration is paid by the leader to associates' developmental needs, provides support or coaching, and delegates tasks to the employee's overall growth.

Dimensions of Laissez-Faire Leadership.

- Lack of management is the sole dimension as the leader fails to provide any direction in any form, whether it be positive or negative interventions (Martin, 2015).

Twenty years after presenting transformational and transactional leadership concepts, Bass returned to discuss each style's impact on organizations and discussed the overlap and separateness of other existing theories (Bass, 1999). Bass found that transformational leadership includes a wide array of factors that positively influence followers. Furthermore, Bass suggested transformational leadership relates to Maslow's hierarchy of needs (c. 1943) by creating a space where followers' basic needs are met and allow for growth beyond the need for safety, relies on a leader-member exchange through the dyadic nature of leader and follower to increase loyalty, trust, and respect, and effects

moral and personal development by the leader's observation of need and providing of opportunities to grow through professional and personal development.

Transformational leadership involves the leader's ability to motivate others through a sense of morality and attempts to help others reach their highest potential. Transformational leadership and *charismatic leadership* theory have been argued to be synonymous in that each theory suggests that leaders must possess a set of dynamic personality characteristics, behaviors, and effect on followers that, much like the Pygmalion effect, causes the followers to rise beyond what they thought possible (Good et al., 2018). Transformational leadership styles have been shown to increase team performance, job satisfaction and increase trust among team members (Khorakian & Sharifirad, 2019). Bass (1999) stated several studies showed that women tend to be somewhat more transformational than males more recent research agrees (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018a; 2018b). Bass questioned the validity of women as better leaders due to a possible performance bias that creates the need for women to work harder to perform equally to men or the implicit desire of followers to see their female leaders succeed and report performance with a level of unintended leniency. More recent research supports the suggestion that leadership attributes associated with transactional leadership style align with stereotypical male traits, and transformational leadership favors stereotypical female characteristics (Powell & Butterfield, 2015). The alignment of gender and leadership will be discussed at length later in this chapter; however, it is worth mentioning leadership research has begun to acknowledge the positive relationship between female and transformational behavior, and future studies will continue to support

the qualities of an effective leader identified by skill rather than biological sex (Powell, 2012) and challenge presumptive bifurcated differences in gendered leadership (Baxter, 2015).

Integrative and Emerging Leadership Theories

There has been a significant increase in the number of scholarly research studies on leadership in the last decade. Lee et al. (2020) conducted a qualitative study of leadership theories from the top ten leadership journals to identify emergent theories. The team suggested the following thematic categories have emerged: transformational leadership, LMX theory, implicit leadership theories, charismatic leadership, and complexity leadership. Over recent years, many leadership theories have begun to appear, exist in varying formulation stages, and are arguably extensions of transformational leadership. For example, *authentic leadership* asserts a leader must be genuine, transparent, and moral. Once again, there lacks a single unified definition of authentic leadership or how it is conducted. Still, researchers have determined four significant components of authentic leadership: (a) an internalized moral perspective, (b) relational transparency, (c) self-awareness, and (d) balanced processing or self-regulation (Anderson & Sun, 2017). The theory began in response to highly publicized abuse of leadership in public, private, and governmental sectors, that created a societal cry for leaders who care about others and lead from a more altruistic position (Northouse, 2016).

Servant leadership originated through Greenleaf's works during the 1970s and has been of interest for over 40 years (Anderson & Sun, 2017). The essence of servant leadership is an individual enters into leadership out of a need to serve others, and

through the desire to place the needs of the follower first, the follower thrives. Although there are varying tenants and theories about servant leadership, consistent is the spiritual thread of service. Greenleaf (2014) based his original work on his observations of Hermann Hesse's novel *Journey to the East* (c. 1956), in which a servant provides inspiration and motivation to a group of travelers and ultimately inspires the group onwards through selfless care. More recently, Blanchard and Hodges' (2003) popular book titled *The Servant Leader* utilized Jesus of Nazareth's life as a guideline for leadership. Regardless of which approach is followed, servant leadership continues to gain acceptance as more and more leaders are seeking ways to bring more purpose and meaning to their work experience. *Mindfulness leadership* brings an additional spiritual component of leadership by utilizing a Buddhist philosophy to focus on meditation and breath to increase listening skills, decision-making capacity, reduce stress and increase self-regulation (Bunting, 2016; Vich, 2015).

Leadership Psychodynamics Theory

The *psychodynamic approach* to leadership theory focuses on human behavior dynamics and acknowledges people are unique and complicated with layers of motivational drivers (Bass, 1990). Psychodynamics was first applied to leadership theory by Freud and Strachey (1922) but was primarily discussed from a political leadership framework rather than leadership within work-related organizations. More closely aligned with the context of work, the clinical paradigm of psychodynamic theory argues there is a logical explanation behind every human act, even if it seems irrational, and we are products of past experiences that continue throughout life (Northouse, 2016).

To conclude a review of leadership theory, while many theories have been discussed, the concept of leadership has moved from transactional approaches that focused on getting the job done to focus on leader attributes, concern for the employee, and combinations thereof, to a progression towards an integrative and, at times, spiritual approach to leadership. What can be gleaned from emerging theories is twofold. Negatively, there is an unrealistic pressure and expectation on leaders to be all things to all people, internal and external to their followers, organization, or cause. Positively, there is an acknowledgment that companies and organizations are composed of human beings with wants, needs, and desires.

Gender, Language and Leadership at Work

Before proceeding with a discussion on the intersectionality of gender, language and leadership, two concepts must be clarified. First, references to male versus female leadership variations or tendencies have been discussed in generalities only. Second, what is perceived as appropriate behavior for each sex varies across culture, individual interpretation, and social groups (Cameron, 2015).

After an extensive review of literature on gender, language and leadership, the advantages and limitations of each appear to have added to the perception of separateness or conflict between femininity and leadership. First, the English language creates a bifurcated and polarized view of gender, asserting that one is male or female (Liben & Bigler, 2015). Languages can possess full, partial, or bifurcated gender connotations, and the extent of grammatical gender reference may have salient social and cognitive consequences for comprehension and production (Gabriel et al., 2018; Motschenbacher,

2016). Second, social expectations inform the individual of the appropriate behavior of maleness or femaleness (Motschenbacher, 2016). Early research placed men at the center of leadership studies (Northouse, 2016; Spector, 2016). However, gendered leadership research has failed to move past the assumption that leadership is solely focused on the male leader (Martin, 2015). It has been argued the need to assert the biological sex of women as a focal point to research, leadership, or otherwise, creates an unintended separateness or otherness from their male counterparts and further emphasizes differences (Alcoff, 1997; Cundiff et al., 2018).

Historically, the concept of leadership has been gendered. The very notion of authority has been associated with maleness simply because of the male appearance as a strong and commanding presence (Constantinople, 1973). Heightened by the great man theory (Spector, 2016) and early trait theory, the physique was identified as a leadership trait due to robust male leaders' predominance (Bernard, 1928; Kohs & Irle, 1920). By extension, normative masculine ways have become associated with leadership roles, while normative feminine behavior has been associated with leadership in communal or relational attributes (Motschenbacher, 2016). Contributors to biological sex differentiator of leadership can be attributed to a binary limitation of the English language regarding maleness and femaleness (Jenkins & Finneman, 2018). Adding to the perception of the maleness of leadership is the separate spheres ideology, which suggests men and women perform best in distinct aspects of society. *Separate spheres ideology* (SSI) is a system of belief that (a) gender differences in society are innate, rather than culturally or situationally created; (b) these inherent differences lead men and women to participate in

different spheres of society freely; and (c) gendered differences in participation in public and private spheres are natural, inevitable, and desirable (Miller & Borgida, 2016, p. 34).

What is often missed or omitted by research is SSI asserts a separate-but-equal role of sexes and highlights women have always been in leadership roles within the communal sphere. SSI argues women function best in communal, nurturing roles while men are most comfortable outside the home. For either sex to navigate in the sphere of the other creates role incongruity due to misalignment between the prescriptive and descriptive ideologies of appropriate behaviors, which both the individual and the follower feel.

To demonstrate the perception of normative gender qualities associated with each sex, in her classic research on perceived normative masculine and feminine traits, Constantinople (1973) found the traits associated with men/masculinity include competitive, aggressive interruptions, confrontational, direct, autonomous, dominates talking time, task-oriented, and referentially oriented. In the same study, Constantinople stated traits associated with women/femininity are facilitative, supportive feedback, conciliatory, indirect collaborative, minor public contribution, person/process-oriented, and affectively oriented. By extension, male and female leadership performative expectations have followed the same gendered guidelines. Hurst et al. (2016) suggested an influence of the Industrial Revolution on the male psyche as men moved from the farmlands into the cities. The pressures of manhood compounded with media depiction of men who went from rags to riches to attain the American Dream. The Industrial Revolution saw a transformation in manufacturing through the invention of machinery that could work day and night. Hurst and peers asserted the Revolution created a “man as

machine” mentality in the United States, which demanded the belief if machines did not rest, neither should the men who created them. They suggested the man as machine ideology remains ingrained in the male culture within the States.

According to Cox (2019), patriarchy is the structuring of society in which men have primary responsibility for the family unit. In feminism, the concept is often extended to include male responsibility for the community or the public sphere as a whole. Males are taught from birth an expectation to perform as providers for the family unit, that places extreme emphasis and pressure on the male work-life as a component of their masculine identity (Farrell, 1993; Goldberg, 2009). The expectation has been, a man will begin his career upon completing his education, if not sooner, and provide the bulk of financial stability for all of his dependents (McDowell, 2015), including his spouse. Due to the expectation of financial support, men’s careers are linear and continual with the occasional break for family holidays and rare illness where women tend to take roles based on need or opportunity rather than a predetermined career path (Hurst et al., 2016; Hurst et al., 2017, 2018a, 2018b). Male children are taught through parenting, society, or media to be hierarchical, and the ideal male is successful, strong, and dominant in all areas including against other men (Goldberg, 2009). Due to the combined pressures as a provider and emphasis on being on top, the CEO for an American Fortune 500 company seems to be the position that leadership, including gendered leadership research, strives to reach. What is often not discussed in research or media are the many obstacles facing any individual seeking such a role, including the willingness to uproot the family unit to pursue career advancement or the extreme pressure, self-sacrifice, and relentless drive

that is placed on the individual who attempts to reach executive levels. On average, CEOs must exert 24 years of unbroken work (Bothko et al., 2018). Much like their male counterparts, a study conducted on the path of senior female leaders revealed, each female attaining the position of CEO acknowledged a reliance and credit to the love and support of their partner/spouse who sacrificed a career to serve as a caregiver in favor of the CEOs (Moor et al., 2015). Given 23% of women in the United States are single parents (Bureau, 2016), the likelihood of managing the needs of home and work demands of an upwardly mobile career becomes limited. Women's careers are often directed by outside influences such as childrearing and caretaking of family members (Carli & Eagly, 2016). Hurst et al. (2016) concluded that many women are unwilling to make the necessary sacrifices to attain more senior-level positions.

The causes for female failure to step into senior leadership roles have resulted in catchphrases like “sticky floor,” “glass ceiling,” “leaking pipeline” and “labyrinth” (Carli & Eagly, 2016), suggesting an external force or barrier prohibits female advancement. A review of trait theory of leadership noted that while no universal list exists, self-confidence and determination were agreed upon by all research studies (Northouse, 2016) as a mandatory component of career growth. A reasonable argument to the lack of women in senior leadership roles may be women's lack of self-confidence or the negative reinforcement women receive if perceived by other women as self-confident or boastful (Baxter, 2015, 2017). The expectation to lead is likely another factor due to a varying level of emphasis on their job throughout their career (Hurst et al., 2018a). Research has shown that the number one reported barrier between women and the C-suite is that

women are held to a higher standard than men (Hurst et al., 2016). The unspoken implication is the high standard is reserved for men against women. However, Hurst et al. (Hurst et al., 2016; Hurst et al., 2017, 2018a, 2018b) conducted a series of four studies structured in gender equity that placed importance on fairness for all rather than females alone. Although the women surveyed explicitly stated they held the exact expectations for male and female leaders, their implicit expectations revealed otherwise (Hurst et al., 2017). In short, their findings showed women made allowances in favor of men for leadership style and reported lower expectations compared to a female leader. Conversely, the study found an implicit expectation on the part of female followers that their female leader would provide emotional support, compassion, allow for personal life demands, and act as an advocate, role model, or big sister. In another study, the authors found that women do not perform consistently through their career; instead, they favor a kaleidoscope career which emphasizes different aspects of relational components of work in the form of balance, challenge, and authenticity (Hurst et al., 2018a). Emphasis on a challenging career typically comes early when the female's family needs are low, balance is the focus of mid-career to meet professional needs and family demands, and authenticity that is focused later in the career to be "true to oneself"; however, men are not afforded this privilege as expected benefactor to the family at large. Finally, Hurst et al. (2017) found that women expected their female leaders to treat them as equal rather than subordinate, an expectation they did not place on their male leaders.

While there has been a considerable amount of research on the impacts of gender on women and career progression, far less research has been conducted on men as leaders

other than to suggest male privilege and domination. Fortunately, there does appear to be a slight shift in the dialog regarding gender. Founder and CEO of 20-First Consulting, a UK-based consulting firm dedicated to creating gender-balanced organizations, Wittenberg-Cox (2016) acknowledged men's lives have changed significantly and, to reach a balance in the workplace, challenges facing men must be addressed. Wittenberg-Cox argued, while gender biases do hold back women at work, men who take time off for family needs may be more harshly penalized than women. Gloor and peers (2018) agree with Wittenberg-Cox as their research found. However, men were offered comparable paternity leave; they tended not to take as much, if any time, unless supported or encouraged by their immediate peer group and supervisor.

The nature of work is changing. Arguments have been made about the social and psychological impact on women leading in male dominated work cultures; however, it should be noted there are female dominated workplaces in that men are far less represented and are often perceived as less than, separate or other due to the role incongruity between perceptions of masculinity, the work being performed alongside the linguistic strategies used by males within feminine work roles. McDowell (2015) used an interactional sociolinguistic framework to examine male nurses' interactions, that is typically considered a role held by women. McDowell found male-nurses often take on feminine strategies to perform their roles and maintain a relational practice. Martin (2015) conducted a meta-analysis of 163 leadership studies and found while concepts of leadership are becoming more androgynous, leaders are still perceived as possessing masculine traits.

Interestingly, the summation has been, while masculinity remains the ideal leader, the concept of masculinity is decreasing as time passes. Although there is targeted research on women as leaders, much of what is known of the male leader is assumed or implied. Still, there is a perceived incongruity between the leadership role and the feminine role ascribed to women, such as communal attributes that characterize females rather than the agentic qualities attributed more strongly to men and expected of leaders (Baxter, 2015).

Attempts to uncouple the concept of gender as female and leadership as male has been made by researchers such as Girdauskiene and Eyvazzade (2015) and Martin (2015) who argue the framework of female leaders closely aligns with the positive attributes of transformational leadership. Mavisakalyan (2015) attempted to address the use of pronominal (sex specific) adjectives in research and evaluated feminist scholars' argument that sex-based grammatical systems reinforce traditional conceptions of gender roles as contributors to the disadvantage of women in labor markets and career outcomes. In an empirical study, Motschenbacher (2016) discussed the challenges of structural gender linguistics within the field of language and gender. Motschenbacher noted problems arose when revised editions of literature were re-released while heavily relying on former, outdated materials presented as new or updated. The study questioned the scholarly use of language, in research and other written forms, as static representations of meaning that can be codified. Additional challenges were made to the application of the feminization of language in conceptual models where bifurcated structures of male and female mark male as positive and female as unfavorable. In short, Motschenbacher

argued words change meaning over time, and research has the onus to change with rather than resting on antiquated ideology.

Although there is nominal literature on male-specific language usage in leadership discourse, analysis of women's language at work has continued to gain ground and has been applied from varying perspectives. The late Judith Baxter conducted many CDA studies in the sociolinguistic subdiscipline of gender, language and leadership (Baxter, 2007; 2011; 2014; 2015; 2017). Baxter (2015) found in leadership workplace discourse (a) men are hierarchical; (b) women are both egalitarian and competitive; (c) females in mixed groups use subtle forms of sexuality to interact with males and (d) women block other women from becoming a leader. Additional work by Baxter (2017) includes a study of a senior female leader in an engineering company whose gendered communication style is overly aggressive. Cameron (2015) argued sex/gender differences in language are evolutionary forms of power and are meta-narratives. McDowell (2015) approached gender, language and leadership from the male perspective and found males employed in traditionally feminine jobs take on discursive behavior classified as "feminine" speech.

To conclude, this section returns to the beginning; concepts of masculine leadership and feminine leadership are variable and dependent upon internal and external influences. As concepts of gender and leadership are changing, so should the lexicon applied to effective leadership. Discussions regarding gender equality in leadership would do well to replace concepts of feminine and masculine with transformational and transactional leadership theories. A replacement of terminology would potentially help

shift the cognitive implications and internalizations of messages on male and female leaders alike.

Summary

There has been a significant body of research conducted since the 1960s to understand the challenges women face in the confines of work. As a result, sociolinguists began investigating the dynamic intersectionality of gender, language and leadership within the confines of work, and the sociolinguistic subdiscipline of gender, language and leadership emerged in the mid-1960s. Over time, feminism and feminist theory transferred the term gender to be synonymous with female (Cox, 2019), resulting in studies that considered gender and leadership to focus solely on women leaders (Baxter, 2015, 2017; Baxter & Al-A'ali, 2014; Jenkins & Finneman, 2018).

This project aimed to help identify the language used in gendered leadership research that may shape and influence beliefs about each sex (Gabriel et al. 2018; Hansson et al., 2019; Liben & Bigler; 2015). The study aimed to fill a gap in understanding by investigating gendered leadership research as potentially reinforcing perceptions of gender inequality between female and male leaders through the language selection used in the text (Gee, 2017). I identified the RQ of, “What discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research text?” The project’s goal was to help contribute to positive social change by assisting gendered leadership researchers to consider utilizing frameworks and models outside of female-oriented feminist theory. As such, I reviewed the facets of leadership, gender, and language was discussed. I began Chapter 2 with a review of feminism and feminist theory

as a crucial influence on the emerging literature and research on gender, language and leadership. The chapter then reviewed the literature on theories regarding gender, language and leadership individually and then a review of literature on the intersectionality of gender, language and leadership. Through the intersection of gender, language and leadership, differences in the perception of power and performance assigned to the binary sex of male and female emerged. The Chapter concluded with a review of CDA as a theoretical framework and will be discussed as a methodology in the following chapter. Additionally, Chapter 3 outlines the specifics of the study and methods to be utilized.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

Throughout Chapters 1 and 2, the problem identified was insufficient analysis on the language used in gender leadership research, which has a direct or indirect impact on the researcher's and the reader's perception of female and male leaders within the context of work. The purpose of the study was to examine discursive messages used in gendered leadership research text and to explore the phenomenon of word usage and language structure applied to research text. The study applied the following RQ: What discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research text? Chapter 3 includes the research design and rationale for the application of qualitative CDA used in the study, the methodology employed for collection and analysis of the data, potential threats to validity, how threats were addressed to minimize risks, ethical issues, and how those ethical issues were managed. As noted in Chapter 2, discourse analysis is a process to examine the relationship between the written or spoken word and the word's meaning or implications, that ultimately shape, sustain, or change specific social patterns (Hansson et al., 2019). CDA, developed by Fairclough (2016), served as a theoretical framework and methodology and was applied in tandem as one informs the other (Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017; Wodak & Meyer, 2016). I discussed CDA as a theoretical framework in Chapter 2 and applied CDA as the methodological model in the study outlined within this chapter.

Research Design and Rationale

The following RQ guided this study to explore the phenomenon of gendered leadership research as an actor and active participant in written messages communicated through the selection of word usage and the possible creation of themes of power, performance, and gender:

- RQ: What discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research text?

The design of the study was qualitative and was conducted as a CDA of existing literature available in scholarly, peer-reviewed journals on gender and leadership. Although a quantitative approach to text would have been possible by computer-assisted methods (see Stubbs, 2018), the approach was discarded due to limitations as purely counting the frequency of variables. Focusing on “what” and “how many,” quantitative research would not have provided the level of intimacy with text afforded by a qualitative research approach (see Gee, 2017). Content analysis was considered as a mixed method approach but was determined to be subpar due to the methodological approach of predetermination of search words or phrases for analysis, that would have significantly limited insights gained through repetitive reading of the text (McBee-Black & Ha-Brookshire, 2020). Instead, qualitative research aims to understand how a specific phenomenon affects the people involved, either individually or as a group (Ravitch & Carl, 2016).

Furthermore, the qualitative approach leaned hermeneutically as an iterative approach to understand the experiential aspects of everyday life. Qualitative research

acknowledges and demands awareness of the researcher as an active component of design and execution. I noted that all research, regardless of rigor of structure, contains bias through the multitude of choices made due to beliefs, interests, and assumptions making innate in language whereas quantitative studies do not question the role of research composition in outcomes (Gee, 2014a, 2014b). Therefore, the qualitative design made for the most appropriate study design for questioning the role of text as an actor capable of influencing the reader and writer. Finally, the qualitative research design was consistent with understanding stylized text's effects in written discourse (see Gee, 2017) to identify instances when text was used as a linguistic strategy to position gender in discourse (see Baxter, 2015, 2017).

The methodological approach to this study leveraged CDA. Although I considered other approaches, CDA was the most appropriate for this study due to the multiple ways and perspectives text could be examined, which created the opportunity for a broader understanding of the social phenomenon of gender in leadership research and allowed for a more robust understanding of shared experience (Fairclough, 2016). For example, another analyst could conduct a similar study on leadership by considering race or socioeconomic status by analyzing messages on race and power and performance rather than this study's chosen focus on gender, power, and performance. CDA allowed the choice to examine a limited number of discursive messages for a narrower focus on the text and facilitated attendance to the primary research question: What discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research text? Poststructural feminist discourse analysis was initially considered for the

study. Still, it was discarded due to its mandate to place women at the focal point of research, and I wished to address the question of gender in leadership beyond the female perspective (see Baxter, 2015, 2017; Motschenbacher, 2016).

Furthermore, CDA places emphasis on the innate nature of language's ability to change over time and take on new meaning, and stresses the intertextuality of words that connotes each person draw on historical or prior knowledge to make sense in their current space (Fairclough, 2016; Wodak & Meyer, 2016). Different social understandings of the world lead to various social actions, and therefore, the social construction of knowledge and truth has social consequences. Also, the application of CDA aims to understand how social power could enact, reproduce, or abuse through the use of language (van Dijk et al., 2018). CDA was used to shed light on visible and invisible themes within the written text, that may reinforce perceptions of gender inequality in the workplace through the sequencing of topics, word selection, sentence structure, or omission of data. Repetitive invisible themes were then linked to social ideologies, that may play out in work and position women as less capable leaders (Hansson et al., 2019).

CDA does what other methods do not, which is to interact with the data and challenge the analyst to question, "Does what I am reading sound true?" and "Is there an alternative to the information I am being provided?" Furthermore, CDA is primarily interested in revealing ideologies, and implications of power within the text (Fairclough, 2016; Wodak & Meyer, 2016) through the triangulation of CDA approach to bias or blindness was broadened compared to a single approach (Reisigl & Wodak, 2016).

CDA has been applied to a plethora of topics with consensus by experts across the field regarding the approach and steps of analysis to identify power relationships and social wrongs through the systematic investigation of discursive text. Even though CDA was identified as the best to approach text in research, there are many lenses of CDA, and the following triangulation was determined to be the most appropriate fit for the study:

- A discourse historical approach focuses on historical meaning, uses triangulation to combine perspectives, and finds practical implications for the investigation results (Reisigl & Wodak, 2016).
- A dialectical relational approach identifies and addresses social wrongs by analyzing their causation through the examination of the relationship between the written word and the word's meaning or implications that shape, sustain, or change specific social patterns (Fairclough, 2016).
- A corpus linguistics approach analyses data outputs to identify themes that can be further analyzed (Mautner, 2016).

The choice to triangulate using discourse historical, dialectical relationship, and corpus linguistics approaches was made in favor of the research question because, together, they addressed questions about how text may have leaned on prior research to support current assertions and assumptions about shared knowledge, and identify themes within the text that can be further explored. Other approaches to CDA that were considered but discarded included the following:

- The sociocognitive approach is concerned with the relationship between discourse structures and social structures (van Dijk, 2016).

- Discourses and dispositives theorizes knowledge contained in linguistically conducted practices such as verbal and written speech, and nonverbal linguistics naturally materializes or produces an outcome (Jager & Maier, 2016).
- Recontextualization of social practice theorizes that the repetition of social action modes, styles, semiotic outcomes, and actions in one genre are then reperformed other social actions in a recontextualized fashion (van Leeuwen, 2016).
- CDA methodology can also be applied to visual and multimodal texts (Jancsary et al., 2016) and social media (Khosravinik & Unger, 2016).

A sociocognitive approach was deemed inappropriate due to its need to position texts within social structures, which was outside the scope of this project. Discourse and dispositives were ill-fitting as primarily concerned with the relationship between text and social representation, such as language reproduced in political cartoons.

Recontextualization of social practice was considered however ultimately discarded, as it questions how experience in one area manifests in another area of an individual's experience. Recontextualization was discarded due to challenges faced in obtaining responses from the author(s) regarding their multiple discourse voices. Finally, CDA was appropriate to this study as it acknowledged the subjective and multiple ways to interpret meaning; so, while discourse analysts are receptive to other interpretations, discourse analysis research is often conducted alone (Fairclough, 2016; Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017) and lent itself well the purpose of the project as a capstone to a doctoral program.

As I investigated the use of text, study design and text logic became intertwined. First, locating a body of text dedicated to the triangulation of gender, language, and leadership required the investigation of available scholarly-peer reviewed journals. To date, there is only one such journal fitting the basis for the study, that made the journal the logical text for analysis. How to construct the study then became my focus. CDA examines each word and word combination for possible data inclusion (Fairclough, 2016; Gee, 2017; Hansson et al., 2019, Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017). Therefore, three study designs were considered. First, I considered the gender leadership body of text in juxtaposition to *Leadership Quarterly*, the most cited peer-reviewed journal on leadership for the last 2 decades (Lee et al., 2019). The journal comparison design was discarded as the absence of gender in research articles potentially eliminated a vital component of the study. The next study design considered analysis of a single and unpublished issue of the journal due to be published after the submission of this study as a proposal for a doctoral capstone. The single-issue design was discarded due to the potential of a special issue that would not reflect a typical sample of research published by the journal.

The final study design emerged as the journal was examined, identified, and further explored. *Gender in Management* is the preeminent journal dedicated to the intersection of gender and leadership (Emerald, 2019). The journal was formerly named *Women in Management Review* and was renamed *Gender in Management* in 2007. As CDA and I was interested in how language changes over time, sustains or resists ideology, and identifies instances of linguistic legitimization, manipulation to assert power (Amoussou & Allagbe, 2018), I conducted analysis of leadership studies found in

a 2021 issue of *Gender in Management* versus the final issue of *Women in Management Review* in 2007. The study designed allowed me to understand what advances towards gender inclusivity for men and women collectively were made in the 14 years since the journal transitioned to gendered leadership focus.

Role of the Researcher

For this study, I took on the role of reading and interpreting text for themes that positioned gender in leadership research. Due to the subjective nature of discourse analysis, there were many ways to understand the meaning; therefore, as is typical, the research was conducted in solitude (see Gee, 2017). Noting a considerable body of literature regarding women in leadership, the study's original concept was to conduct a meta-analysis on the body of work dedicated to men and leadership. When I was unable to find literature, my intention became an analysis of the literature on gender, language and leadership, but the field was limited, and researchers were nearly exclusively female.

Although no personal or professional conflict existed between myself and the data reviewed, a qualitative study's construction was resisted due to a misguided impression that the approach would lack the rigor or credibility often associated with quantitative studies. My skeptical view was resolved while completing the review of literature for two reasons. First, as an industrial-organizational psychologist dedicated to helping individuals positively experience work, investigation of experience could not be approached purely quantitatively since each person experiences work differently. Second, approaching gendered leadership research from a qualitative CDA perspective required a broadening of perspective, questioned personal beliefs, acknowledged bias, and caused

myself to grow as an industrial-organizational psychologist in far greater ways than if only having followed the data numerically.

I acknowledge that biases were possible due to the passion, interest, and focus needed to remain dedicated to a specific research topic. Ravitch and Carl (2016) suggested that all research, regardless of approach, contains bias due to the researcher's necessary involvement through interests, assumptions, and beliefs that guide their choices for design, variables, analysis, and interpretation. Conversely, Sriwimon and Zille (2017) argued that bias could be revealed and mitigated with adherence to well-defined and rigid methods, like those laid out in this chapter. Nonetheless, extensive efforts were made to manage ethical issues and biases, that could have manifested while conducting the qualitative study. Specifically, I used methodological triangulation by approaching the text from varying perspectives to expose bias or blindness possible from a single approach (see Reisigl & Wodak, 2016). Findings were continuously questioned and compared for other interpretations of meaning independently and collectively. In addition, Gee's (2014) building tasks and tools of inquiry alongside Saldaña's (2016) reflexive strategies for analytical memo writing were applied as outlined within this chapter.

Methodology

CDA was performed by asking questions that look beyond reading text at face value. As such, I was committed to looking past obvious information in a transcript to the many factors involved in creating and consuming the text itself (see Gill, 2009). From a

methodological perspective, CDA consists of four stages and subsequent steps

(Fairclough, 2016, pp. 92-94):

- Stage 1: Focus upon a social wrong from the semiotic aspect.
 - Step 1: Select a research topic that relates or points to a wrong that can be approached in a transdisciplinary way with a particular focus on dialectical relations between semiotics and other moments.
 - Step 2: Construct objects of research for initially identified research topics by theorizing them in a transdisciplinary way.
- Stage 2: Identify obstacles to addressing the social wrong.
 - Step 1: Analyze dialectical relations between discourse and other social elements, between orders of discourse and other elements of social practice; and between text and other elements of events.
 - Step 2: Select texts, and focuses, and categories for their analysis, in light of and appropriate to the constitution of the object of research.
 - Step 3: Carry out an analysis of the text, both interdiscursive and linguistic semiotic analysis.
- Stage 3: Consider whether the social order needs the social wrong.
- Stage 4: Identify possible ways past the obstacles.

Using the study as guidelines for applying CDA methodology, the following pages provide a step-by-step guide. To begin stage one, I chose a topic of wrong from a semiotic aspect. *Semiotics* is the study of the use or interpretation of signs and symbols within the discursive event or, in the case at hand, written text (Wodak & Meyer, 2016).

As such, the topic should relate or point to a wrong that can be approached in a transdisciplinary way. For example, I wanted to examine how the language used in research studies on gender in leadership may impact or influence the reader as well as the writer. Transdisciplinary also came into place in various ways. I employed the use of systematic qualitative coding and discourse analysis strategies. In addition, I used methodological triangulation of CDA to examine linguistic uses and strategies.

The second stage was to select the text and carry out the analysis. To conduct analysis, I drew upon techniques and recommendations from discourse analysis and qualitative coding, that made a reliable and repeatable process for identifying and coding data as well as looking for themes within and across text using coding strategies and templates presented in this chapter (Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017).

To begin, it was recommended I document the author's name, article title, sex of the researcher, nature of the study, keywords and assign a catalog identifier used to tie back to the coding results to allow identification of the various discourses emerging through the language selection (Gee, 2014a; 2014b). Understanding the author and approach to the text aided in fulfilling Stage 2: Step 1 to analyze dialectical relations between discourse and other elements, between orders of discourse, and other elements of social practice between the text and elements of events. In any given discourse event, the writer and reader alike draw upon multiple discourse genres and take on varying styles resulting in interdiscursivity. *Genres* are the signs and symbols associated with a particular activity, and *styles* are semiotic behaviors related to a given role (Fairclough, 2016; Reisigl & Wodak, 2016). *Interdiscursivity* is the totality of various voices used in a

discourse event. A practical example of interdiscursivity can be seen in the role of a female student who employs academic writing styles in the genre of undergraduate studies in economics. Suppose the student is to submit an opinion piece on a topic of her choosing. The economic topic she selects is out of preference, which is influenced by her life experiences. Still, she is expected to write appropriately in the academic genre and write in style appropriate to an undergraduate college student (as opposed to a high school or graduate-level student). The roles of student, female, author and economist each possess individual discourses that will compete to varying degrees in the writer's voice and tone. The extent each discourse emerges is considered *orders of discourse* (Fairclough, 2016). The student is influenced by her ideology which will influence her topic of research and opinion, that places her in a position of power to influence the reader but also places her under the power of the expectations of each discursive element as well as the authority of the professor with the power to score her work. The professor possesses their order of discourse based on their background, experience, and interests that influences how they consume and respond to the student's work.

The first reading of the text was conducted as if I were a layperson to gain the paper's overall gist without critical analysis of the language (Wodak & Meyer, 2016). The act of *making strange* was used to position myself as a foreigner to the research (Gee, 2017) rather than a discourse analyst. An *analytical memo* (Saldaña, 2016), an uncensored journal entry, was written, noting the gist of the research and overall impression.

The next crucial aspect of discourse analysis was to approach transcripts with the spirit of skeptical reading. Discourse analysts are challenged to suspend belief by focusing on the construction, organization, and function of language rather than underlying meaning or motivation (Gee, 2014a, 2014b, 2017; Gill, 2009). As such, I began to apply skeptical reading techniques gradually throughout subsequent readings. Although coding was necessary and conducted following the traditional cycle coding and categorization, CDA relies on intimate familiarity with the text gained through numerous readings to keep the spirit of the text as a whole rather than the sum of its parts (Wodak & Meyer, 2016). Passages that appeared to be codable moments were highlighted and grouped into paragraphs/sections with a line separating when the topic or subtopic appeared to change. Changes in topics or subtopics were as short as a line consisting of a single idea or unit (not to be confused with a numbered line of text spanning the single width of the page) or a stanza that are sets of lines about a single topic connected in the form of a piece of information that is lumped. The process of highlighting and separating topics assisted in identifying what warranted consideration for coding.

From an analytical perspective, data can be approached from a multitude of ways such as sentence structure, individual word usage, or counting the frequency of keywords and can be coded either manually or with the aid of computer software (Wodak & Meyer, 2016). Due to the seemingly unending options available, it was necessary to limit the focus of analysis to keep data within a manageable analysis level. I used methodological triangulation of discourse analysis techniques using more than one method and more than one data set to examine the same phenomenon. The study satisfied the requirement for

multiple datasets as it analyzed various research articles independently and collectively to examine the phenomenon of language. Preliminary codes were expected to emerge and change throughout cycles; however, the application of methodological triangulation allowed me greater focus, reduced bias, and increased validity (Gee, 2014a, 2014b, 2017; Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017; Wodak & Meyer, 2016). For example, the study considered the following conditions:

- *Discourse historical* is the reliance on prior arguments, theories, and research to support current research (Reisigl & Wodak, 2016).
- *Dialectical relational approach* examines language constructs that shape meaning such as metaphors and linguistic strategies (Fairclough, 2016).
- *Corpus linguistics* examines recurring codes which reveal themes that can be further analyzed (Mautner, 2016).

Upon reading, the text was *lumped* into topics/subtopics and assigned codes through cycle coding. Initial coding allowed for open-ended, tentative coding using a small number of codes that could change as more appropriate codes emerge compared to other coding strategies such as *descriptive* (noun-based) or *in vivo* (verbatim) strategies, that are more rigid (Saldaña, 2016). An additional benefit of initial coding was that it encouraged emergent categories to evolve into conceptual processes compared to more descriptive strategies. However, using a small number of codes repeatedly avoided over proliferating. Finally, lumping code into stanzas helped identify and code only the most essential parts of data. To ensure standardization of coding, a codebook was developed to capture example criteria of codes. The goal of an iterative reading and coding process

was to move from particular data elements to identify general themes and concepts that appear in the text. Data elements were coded and grouped as categories that were further distilled into themes or concepts, allowing for the assertion of theories.

In keeping with the study's design, I read articles separately, notated, and coded for instances of textual silence, assumptions of knowledge, historical reliance on earlier literature to support current arguments, and positive or negative linguistic strategies (Reisigl & Wodak, 2016). *Textual silence* considers what the text does not say or what was omitted (Gee, 2017). For example, to say "only 125 women are CEOs of Fortune 500 companies" lacks a definition of the remaining 375 CEOs (i.e., Black, gay, transgender, etc.) or that Fortune 500 only applies to companies headquartered in the United States. The omission requires the reader to assume the remaining CEOs' gender classification. In binary gender classification, such as the English language, they would be presumably normative male, stereotypically White and heterosexual. The *assumption of knowledge* implies shared meaning (Fairclough, 2016). In the example above, the language selection assumes the reader's knowledge of the number of CEO positions available of Fortune 500 companies is 500. *Historical reliance* (Reisigl & Wodak, 2016) is the extent to which a current assertion is supported by pointing to prior information or knowledge. For example, Butler's (1990) seminal work in *Gender Trouble* is frequently cited for concepts and assertions of gender fluidity. Finally, *positive/negative linguistic strategies* include using positive or negatively weighted words such as "only," that suggests 125 is an unacceptable number of female Fortune 500 CEOs. Combining the reviewed strategies with the following guidelines, the study can be replicated:

Power: The capacity or ability to steer and affect others' beliefs, attitudes, or course of action through a social contract between leaders (text) and followers (consumers). Power can be legitimate, cohesive, reward-based, earned by possessing desirable information, expert, or referent (Northouse, 2016). In consideration of the study, the research text interacts with the reader with *expert power* as the text is assumed to be authoritative, rigorously researched, free from bias, and the consumer is educated in the topic being questioned and methodology employed. Therefore, emphasis was placed on identifying how language was used as a capacity or ability to steer and affect others' beliefs, attitudes, or course of action through the use of power by asking:

- What examples of power are found within the text?
- How is the text used to create or dispute power?
- How does the text maintain power ideology?
- How is the text used to create or dispute power relationships?

Gender: Psychosociocultural constructs imposed on the normative biological binaries of maleness and femaleness, making gender a learned system of knowledge that is varied, fluid, attitudinal, and based on an individual's interpretation of cultural meaning (Holmes & Schnurr, 2006; Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018b). Emphasis was placed on how language was employed implicitly or explicitly to denote gender and gender alignment through references to biological sex, attributes, or traits with consideration towards:

- Are there instances where gender alignment is implicitly or explicitly stated?
- What examples of gender are found within the text?

- What words or phrases are used to refer to or are associated with a specific gender that supports a specific ideology?
- How does the text maintain gender ideology?

Performance: How and how well leadership roles are enacted (Northouse, 2016).

Emphasis was placed on the use of language to suggest performance possessing alignment to a specific sex or gender by asking:

- What examples of performance are found within the text?
- How does the text maintain performance ideology?

Overall/Summary:

- Does the text use positive or negative linguist strategies?
- Is there a reliance on historical discourse to support current discourse?
- Does the text present textual silences through omission or assumption of knowledge?

Discourse analysis examines how language enacts with social and cultural perspectives through its use and structure (Gee, 2014a; 2014b). The methodological analysis of language is a journey successfully conducted by understanding and applying systematic critique to lexical strategies used in written (or spoken) communications (Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017). Various indicators served as a ledger, and by following the signs, greater meaning can be gleaned. The following concepts can be thought of as a ledger's keys and considered during the analysis and coding of text.

Language is structured communication through symbols referred to as words (Gee, 2017). Grammar is the entire or whole structure and system of a language,

including lexicon, syntax, and semantics (Gee, 2014a, 2014b, 2017). *Lexicon* is the words or vocabulary and basic meaning known by an individual or associated with an area of knowledge. The syntax is the structure of a language that can be a single word or a series of words that can fit into larger units, and those words can become part of another larger unit is known as recursive syntax. As the system of rules, Syntax determines how different words can combine into phrases or sentences, or clauses. These language rules are stored in the minds of those participating in the communication alongside the social conventions associated with the discourse. Semantics is the core meaning of a word or group of words based on the rules of their grouping or context of use. The core meaning is the literal or basic meaning of a word's definition without the specific context of use. Morphemes are indicator sub-parts of a word such as "un"-believ-"able" connected to the core meaning "believe." Applied to discourse analysis, and the text should be examined for instances of how language selection is used to shape meaning.

A sentence is composed of a subject, main verb, perhaps some helping verbs, adverbs, and other filler words (Gee, 2014a, 2014b, 2017). The verb, adverbs, and any helping verbs are called the predicate and comments on the subject or topic. As with a sentence, clauses are made up of a subject/topic and a predicate/comment. How a clause or sentence is structured will shape the perception of the reader. Consider the difference between the following clauses: "Samantha is Sarah's sister" and "Sarah is Samantha's sister." Both sentences are accurate and contain the same information; however, the first is about and highlights Samantha, and the second is about and highlights Sarah. Clauses

can take many forms and reside within the same sentence. The main clause is considered the focal point and is foreground as the argued or asserted information.

On the other hand, the subordinate clause sits in the background as information that is assumed, understood, or shared knowledge or, as often described, as taken-for-granted due to its ability to shape meaning (Gee, 2014a, 2014b, 2017). The grammatical decision of what to foreground or background is the writer's onus; however, the lexical choices in the interpretation of meaning lie with the reader. A good example is the following sentences with the same clauses switched from main and subordinate. "Despite a large percentage of Mexican speaking citizens, English remains the national language in the United States" compared to "English remains the national language in the United States, despite a large percentage of Mexican speaking citizens." As the main clause, the former may convey a sentiment the Mexican-speaking citizen is being discounted, or many Mexican-speaking citizens are residing in the country. The latter can be interpreted in many ways depending on the reader's consideration of the importance of English as the national language or the United States as a country or political body. When analyzing text, I identified sentences that contained foreground and background information and considered if the nature or implied meaning of the sentence would change if repositioned.

The more clauses in a sentence increase the complexity required to cognitive process the information known as the lexical density. Much like occasions when it is necessary to re-read a passage to digest the information, the reader's ability to mentally process a clause's complexity is determined by their familiarity with the content, the types of words selected, and word placement by the writer (Gee, 2014a, 2014b, 2017).

Words fall into one of three major classes: content words (subject, verb, adverb, etc.), function words (the, this/that, a/an, etc.), and proper nouns (names). A Clause Worth of Information (CWOI) is an approach to measure how information is packaged into sentences. The higher the score of a CWOI, the more difficult the sentence is to process for the reader. When writers combine main and subordinate clauses, the main clause usually consists of new information. The subordinate clause has information that is assumed to be understood by the reader. So, it is the number of content words in the main clause that can measure the complexity or density of the sentence (Gee, 2014b). The more content words, the higher the CWOI score. Specialized discourse, such as in academia, tends to be dense due to the lexicon that must be known and shared to understand concepts being shared or argued. Analysts should consider the transcript's lexical density and note overly complex sentence structures that require additional cognitive processing, especially those sentences containing specialized language usage. Finally, writers can make connections within and across sentences by using cohesion markers to link concepts together. The following list explains various cohesion markers that may be present in the text (Gee, 2017):

- Pronouns are located in the second sentence links back to the preceding sentence by picking up its reference from a phrase in that sentence.
- Determiners are located in front of a subject, link to the preceding sentence by indicating that the information is attached to information that is assumed to be predictable or known based on the preceding sentence. Quantifiers are found

in the second sentence, link to the preceding sentence by indicating that we are now talking about a part of a whole discussed in the preceding sentence.

- Substitution is a word standing in for a word named in the previous sentence allows the writer not to repeat the information while signaling the second sentence is linked to the preceding one.
- Ellipsis [...] indicates a place where information has been left out (omitted) because it is predictable based on the preceding sentence.
- *Lexical cohesion* is found when words are lexically related or another form of the same word and are semantically related.
- Conjunctions and other conjunction-like links are words such as “however” signal how the reader relates the second sentence to the first. “However” introduces a sentence that contrasts with or contradicts something that has been said in a previous sentence while furthermore is a continuation of the preceding sentence’s assertion.

In addition to cycle coding, analytical memos were written during each step as a reflexive exercise and allowed additional codes to surface, as suggested by Saldaña (2016). Gee provides a series of seven building tasks and six Tools of Inquiry that can be used as reflective questions to encourage the analyst to approach the text from various vantage points. Using the tasks and tools produced questions that can be considered throughout analysis and memoing.

Gee (2014, 2014b, 2017) Seven Building Tasks

- *Significance discourse analysis question:* How is this piece of language used to make certain things significant or not, and in what ways?
- *Practices (activities) discourse analysis question:* What practice (activity) or practices (activities) is this piece of language being used to enact (i.e., get others to recognize as going on)?
- *Identities discourse analysis question:* What identity or identities is this piece of language being used to enact? What identity or identities is this piece of language attributing to others, and how does this help the speaker or writer enact their identity?
- *Relationships discourse analysis question:* What sort of relationship or relationships is this piece of language seeking to enact with others?
- *Politics (the distribution of social goods) discourse analysis question:* What perspective on social goods is this piece of language communicating (i.e., what is being communicated as to what is taken to be “normal,” “right,” “valuable,” “the ways things are,” “like me or not like me,” and so forth)?
- *Connections discourse analysis question:* How does this piece of language connect or disconnect things; how does it make one thing relevant or irrelevant to another?
- *Sign systems and knowledge discourse analysis question:* How does this piece of language privilege or deprivilege specific sign systems (e.g., male vs. female, technical language vs. everyday language, words vs. equations, etc.)

or different ways of knowing and believing or claims to knowledge and belief (e.g., science vs. religion; nurture vs. nature)?

Gee's Tools of Inquiry (2014a, 2014b, 2017)

- *Figured worlds* have also been called “folk theories” or “cultural models” and consist of a theory, story, model, or image that shows what is taken to be typical or normal about people, places, activities, things, or interactions. We all have ways to construe what is typical or “appropriate” in a marriage, a house, a spouse, a politician, education, etc.; however, cognitive representations are also reflected in the text.
- *Form function correlations* are any correlation in which a given word or type of word, phrase, or clause is associated with a given communication function. For example, subjects of sentences (as in “Sarah” in “Sarah is Samantha’s sister”) are correlated or associated with the topic’s communicational function.
- *Intertextuality* occurs when we speak or write, our words often allude to or relate to, in some fashion, other “texts” or certain types of “texts.”
- *Situated meanings* are the specific meanings words and phrases take on in contexts of use. Speakers and writers construct their utterances or sentences to guide listeners and readers in constructing these specific meanings based on what was said and the context in which it was said.
- *Social language* is any variety or style of speaking or writing associated with a socially situated identity of any sort (this identity may be associated with a

social group, profession, culture, practice, social role, or interest-driven activity).

The preceding tasks and tools may appear overly complex and burdensome to employ during analysis; however, I considered each of the tools of inquiry to provoke questions. The seven big questions or building tasks were used separately or collectively to prompt new ways of approaching and documenting codable moments during analytical memoing.

Gee's Seven Building Tasks Questions (2014a, 2014b, 2017)

- *Building task 1 (significance)*: How are situated meanings, social languages, figured worlds, intertextuality, discourses, and conversations being used to build relevance or significance for things and people in context?
- *Building task 2 (practices/activities)*: How are situated meanings, colanguages, figured worlds, intertextuality, Discourses, and Conversations being used to enact a practice (activity) or practices (activities) in context?
- *Building task 3 (identities)*: How are situated meanings, social languages, figured worlds, intertextuality, discourses, and conversations being used to enact and depict identities or socially significant “kinds of people”?
- *Building task 4 (relationships)*: How are situated meanings, social languages, figured worlds, intertextuality, discourses, and conversations being used to build, sustain, change or destroy) social relationships?
- *Building task 5 (politics)*: How are situated meanings, social languages, figured worlds, intertextuality, discourses, and conversations being used to

create, distribute, or withhold social goods or to construe particular distributions of social goods as “good” or “acceptable”; or not?

- *Building task 6 (connections)*: How are situated meanings, social languages, figured worlds, intertextuality, discourses, and conversations used to make things and people connected or relevant to or irrelevant to or disconnected from each other?
- *Building task 7 (sign systems and knowledge)*: How are situated meanings, social languages, figured worlds, intertextuality, discourses, and conversations being used to privilege or deprivilege different sign systems (language, social languages, other sorts of symbol systems) and ways of knowing?

Additionally, Saldaña (2016) suggests the following prompts to generate new perspectives in writing analytical memos:

- Reflect on and write about how you relate to the phenomenon.
- Reflect on and write about your code choices and their operational definitions.
- Reflect on and write about the participants’ routines, rituals, roles, and relationships.
- Reflect on and write about emergent patterns, categories, themes, concepts, and assertions.
- Reflect on and write about the possible networks and processes (links and connections, overlaps, and flows) among the codes, patterns, categories, themes, concepts, and assertions.
- Reflect on and write about an emergent or related existing theory.

- Reflect on and write about any problems with the study.
- Reflect on and write about any personal or ethical dilemmas with the study.
- Reflect on and write about future directions for the study.
- Reflect on and write about the analytic memos generated thus far.
- Reflect on and write about tentative answers to your study's research questions.
- Reflect on and write about the final report for the study.

Upon completing the coding cycles, analytical memos were coded and considered in the final analysis. Review and inclusion of analytical memos were valuable due to the reciprocal nature of how a coding system emerged alongside my understanding of the phenomenon (Saldaña, 2016).

A summary of “how to do CDA” within the confines of this study included articles that were read and coded one at a time. Each article was critically read, and I applied a short, tentative code per the guidelines of initial coding to the lumps of texts partitioned in the precoding phase. Upon completion of the first cycle of coding, I reviewed and subsumed the codes into broader categories. Each code was logged and thoroughly documented in a codebook for future consideration. The second cycle coding goal was to develop a sense of categorical, thematic, conceptual, and theoretical organization based on the first cycle coding (Saldaña, 2016). I conducted iterative rounds of cycle coding were as needed. During these rounds, patterns, similarities, differences, frequency, sequence, correspondence, and causation were considered. Analytical memos were composed regularly throughout the process using the tools and techniques laid out

in this section, even if only a thought or idea. Finally, codes were assembled and recoded into more accurate or specific phrases, and a summary report was written using extracts from analytical notes and coding that identified significant themes. Each article was then summarized on its merit compared to other articles. A final comprehensive report completed across all text examined for themes and concepts at a microlevel, mesolevel, and macrolevel. Saldaña (p. 14)

Microlevel Analysis

- What instances of power were found within the text?
- Did the text create or dispute power?
- How does the text maintain power ideology?
- How is the text used to create or dispute power relationships?
- Are there instances where gender alignment is implicitly or explicitly stated?
- What examples of gender are found within the text?
- What words or phrases are used to refer to or are associated with a specific gender that supports a specific ideology?
- How does the text maintain gender ideology?
- What examples of performance are found within the text?
- How does the text maintain performance ideology?

Mesolevel Analysis

- Does the text rely on historical data to support current arguments?
- Does the text use the assumption of knowledge or presumption of shared meaning?

- To what extent were linguistic strategies used to create cognitive alignment between reader and text?
- Did the language construction employ the use of positive or negative words or phrases to shape meaning?

Macrolevel Analysis

- Does the text use positive or negative linguist strategies?
- Is there a reliance on historical discourse to support current discourse?
- Does the text present textual silences through omission or assumption of knowledge?

Once the final analysis was completed, I wrote a summary report in order to complete stages 4 and 5 as a written evaluation of the data at the article level, journal issue level and aggregated into an all-encompassing evaluation of the body of work as representational across gender, sustainment or deconstruction of ideologies, and positions of power. The journal issues compared and contrasted for insight into linguistic strategies employed to legitimize, manipulate, sustain or diffuse feminization of gender in leadership.

Text Selection Logic

As this study was conducted as a secondary data discourse analysis of literature, it was necessary I locate a body of literature that addresses gendered leadership specifically and is reasonable in size. The body of literature examined for this research project was *Gender in Management*. The literature was selected due to the publication's status as essential reading to those interested in gender-related leadership and the only journal that

focuses on gender within the context of management (Emerald, 2019). *Gender in Management* is published by Emerald Publication as a part of an online subscription to the *Emerald Human Resources, Learning & Organization Studies* eJournals Collection and has been in continuous publication since 1985. The journal was initially named *Women in Management Review* (WIMR), consisting of 151 issues from Vol. 1 Issue 1, 1985 through Vol. 22 Issue 8, 2007. In 2008, the journal was moved to an online publication and renamed *Gender in Management* (GIM) with ten issues beginning with Volume: 23 Issue: 1 to Volume's most recent release: 36 Issue: 5. Each volume produces approximately eight issues per year, with the most recent publication released in June 2021. GIM is an international journal and can be located under the search categorization of human resource management or by ISSN 1754-2413.

According to GIM's website (Emerald, 2019), the publication's editorial objectives are to advance knowledge on the topic of gender in management and leadership. The site goes on to state advancement is made through empirical research, theoretical developments, practice, and current issues in the international field. The journal addresses social issues, including political and legislative decisions, social and educational policy, and economic factors relating to gender in management and leadership.

Content for the journal is received unsolicited from authors across the world on topics that, according to the journal, make a contribution to gender in management and leadership (Emerald, 2019). Topics published with the journal include management and leadership styles, career issues; equality and diversity issues; forms of capital; flexibility

issues; legal issues; work-life balance; emotions in the workplace; employee-employer relationships; sexual politics; harassment and discrimination; gender stereotypes; identity issues; entrepreneurship; cross-cultural issues; intersectionality issues; theoretical developments; and feminist research methodologies. To be considered for inclusion in an issue, articles must focus on the subject of gender within management and leadership.

Manuscripts may include structured research and thought articles and include implications of the work. Authors are required to provide disclosure of their positions on gender and leadership, reflexive practices used, and a statement of goal, context, other points of view, and theoretical bases. The journal is targeted to and predominately used by academics and libraries; consultants and organizational change advisers; equal opportunities officers; management researchers and career planning advisers; personnel, training and development professionals; and women managers. The following are examples of the typical research published within Gender in Management:

- *Theorizing Women & Leadership: Different Spaces, Different Conversations: Theories and Practices for These Times (Volume 34, Issue 3)* - Guest Editors: Carole Elliot, Sue Pritchard, and Valerie Stead. The emergence of this special issue is particularly motivated by the lacuna of research in business and leadership that explicitly seeks to theorise women's leadership, particularly with regard to the intersectionality of women's leadership with alternative forms of organising.
- *Gender and Entrepreneurship in Cross Cultural Perspectives Part 2 (Volume 33, Issue 3)* - Guest Editor: Ramanjeet Singh. Although the relation between

gender and entrepreneurship is a well-researched area, this special issue focuses on the advancement of interdisciplinary research in the areas of gender studies, entrepreneurship and cross-cultural management.

- Gender in Management in Emerging Economies (Volume 32, Issue 8) - Guest Editors: Sanjay Kumar Singh and Rabindra Kumar Pradhan. The management of gender is critical to the effective functioning of organizations in the emerging markets if they are to become a “developed market.” The serious academic inquiry in this field is relatively new, and this special issue was conceptualized to evolve the body of knowledge. There are six research-based articles in this issue which have the potential to develop new insights to solve the pressing problems which are being faced by the managers and leaders toward management of gender in the workplace.

The specific texts for this project were *Women in Management Review* (2007), Volume 22, Issue 8, 2007 and *Gender in Management* (2021), Volume 36, Issue 6, 2021. *Women in Management Review*, Volume 22, Issue 8 was selected as the final issue published as a management/leadership journal focused solely on female interests prior to the journal’s transition to gender-oriented research on leadership/management concerns. *Gender in Management*, Volume 36, Issue 6 was selected for three reasons. First, as noted, *Gender in Management* is the only journal dedicated to research on gender-related leadership and, therefore, fits the project’s scope (Emerald, 2019). Second, the rigors and reputation of Emerald Publications and the journal of *Gender in Management* ensure the research was conducted on a robust variety of topics and of high quality. Third and

equally important, the issue was expected to be published in July 2021 and was not released prior to the initial proposal submission for the project, making it improbable for article selection to be tainted by the researcher's pre-exposure or selection bias of research. Examination of the two journal issues independently and in juxtaposition to one another was expected to provide valuable insight into the advancement of gender balanced research in gendered leadership research. Finally, it should be noted that while the text analyzed was openly available, neither body of work was retrieved or reviewed by the researcher until the study was approved.

Instrumentation

A benefit of conducting CDA was the multiple ways and perspectives in which text could be examined and created the opportunity for a broader understanding of a social phenomenon such as gender in leadership research and allowed for a more robust understanding of shared experience (Hansson et al., 2019; Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017). As such, there was no one-size-fits-all instrument mandated for use when conducting CDA. However, drawing upon discourse analysis strategies and qualitative research guidelines, I was able to create a repeatable and reliable process. Based on Saldaña's (2016) recommendations, guidelines for conducting qualitative analysis, and Gee's (2017) instruction to discourse analysts alongside my practice exercises, I created the following data collection instruments to ensure standardization across the life of the project.

Four components were applied to the text: precoding, coding, summary, and analytical memoing. Precoding prepared the articles for more detailed examination and

allowed for familiarity with the text. Coding was an iterative review of text through cycle coding. The summary resulted in a comprehensive review of themes within and across articles. Finally, analytical memoing served as a strategy for the remaining objective.

Precoding

I assigned an article number to each article that allowed for easier reference to track and report information. Each article was assigned a numerical identifier, and the article's title and author(s) were recorded (see Table 1). Gee (2014a, 2014b) recommended, to conduct thorough discourse analysis, identification of the writer(s) multiple discourse identities was beneficial to understand various influences on language selection.

Table 1

Text Authorship Template

Article #	Author(s)	Sex	Education	Areas of interests
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Note. Data capture of the author(s)' sex, education, and area of interest assists in identifying the various discourse identities that may influence text selection and usage.

The article structure was logged (see Table 2) Capturing article structure using the instrument assisted in the comparison of coding outcomes across datasets and allowed me to investigate regarding what choices were made by the researcher(s) in the construction of the study as a potential factor in the language selection employed. The next step required I reverse engineer each article by decomposing the article into chapters (Gee, 2017). Decomposition evaluated each section on its own merits and then examined how

each part fits and functions together. Articles were decomposed and sections considered for the following:

- *Abstract*: What is the general theme of the article and its intended goal?
- *Introduction*: What arguments are being made, what information is included or excluded?
- *Literature Review*: What theories are being employed?
- *Methodology*: What methodology is being employed? Who are the participants, and the size of the population? What were the data collection methods used? What variables were selected?
- *Results*: What were the study's findings? Did the finding support the hypothesis?
- *Conclusion*: What were the final discussion points of the article? How was the conclusion tied to the other sections of the article?

Table 2

Text Structure Template

Article #	Keywords	Theoretical framework	Methodology	Variables	Population
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Note. Data capture of keywords, theoretical framework, methodology, variables, and population will aid in identifying themes within and across studies.

The entire work was double spaced, rows numbered for ease of reference, and wide margin space for coding notes, as is tradition with qualitative analysis (Saldaña, 2016). Finally, passages that appeared to be codable moments were highlighted and separated into paragraphs/sections with a line separating when the topic or subtopic

appeared to change. The process of highlighting and separating topics assists in identifying what warranted additional analysis.

Coding

Initial coding strategies allowed for open-ended, tentative coding with a small number of provisional codes that changed as more appropriate codes emerged compared to other coding strategies, such as descriptive (noun-based) or in vivo (verbatim) strategies that would have been more ridged. Finally, lumping code through into stanzas helped identify and code only the most essential parts of data. To ensure standardization of coding, a codebook format was developed using Saldaña's (2016) suggestions (see Table 3).

Table 3

Codebook Structure Template

Code	Detailed description	Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria	Typical example	Atypical example
Name of the code	1-3 sentence description of the coded qualities or properties	Conditions for the phenomenon that merits the code	Exceptions of the phenomenon that do not merit the code	Examples of data that best represent the code	An extreme or unique example of data that still represents the code

Note. Codebook will aid in the standardization of data collection across text.

First Cycle Review

Codable moments noted in the precoding phase were documented (see Table 4), including the line location, text lump, and observation summary (Saldaña, 2016). The observation summary included notation of the textual instance such as textual silence, historical reliance, or assumed knowledge (Reisigl & Wodak, 2016).

Table 4*First Cycle Coding Template*

Line ^a	Lump ^b	Observation summary ^c	Code ^d
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^a Line indicates the location within the text.

^b Lump represents the text being analyzed

^c Observation Summary represents the linguist strategy observed, such as textual silence, historical reliance, or assumed knowledge.

Second Cycle Coding

Building on data captured in the first cycle coding exercise, the text's second (see Table 5) and subsequent readings included progressively more specific codes (Saldaña, 2016). Each entry was dated, and an analytic memo was created outlining recodification.

Table 5*Second Cycle Coding Template*

Line ^a	Lump ^b	Observation summary ^c	Initial code ^d	Adjusted code ^e
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Note. Building on data captured in the first cycle coding exercise, the text's second and subsequent readings will include progressively more specific codes.

^a Line indicates the location within the text.

^b Lump represents the text being analyzed.

^c Observation Summary represents the linguist strategy observed, such as textual silence, historical reliance, or assumed knowledge.

^d Initial code represents the original categorization of text as power, performance, or gender during first cycle coding.

^e Adjusted code represents an adjustment to code during second and subsequent coding cycles.

Final Codification and Summary

At this point, the process identified data elements that were translated into codes. Those codes were aggregated and assembled, and recoded into more accurate phrases to unearth categories and themes (see Table 6), leading to overarching theories or assertions Saldaña (2016). Once completed, I wrote summary report using extracts from coding and notes. Each article was summarized on its merit, compared to other articles within the journal. Finally, a comprehensive report was completed across all text examined for themes and concepts at a microlevel, mesolevel, and macrolevel.

Table 6

Final Codification and Summary Template

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
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Note. Codes from the analysis will be aggregated, assembled, and recoded into more accurate phrases to unearth categories and themes, that may lead to an overarching theory or assertion.

^a Lump indicates the text to be analyzed

Analytical Memos

Analytical memos were a crucial component while I was conducting CDA. Analytical memos were coded and grouped for emergent themes, categories, themes, concepts, assertions, etc. As noted in this chapter, I wrote analytical memos as free text and employed multiple strategies to increase perspective and validity (Gee, 2017; Saldaña, 2016). Each analytical memo was dated, assigned a numerical identifier for cataloging, and later coded for key themes or words.

Process and Instrument Validation

In the absence of universally predefined tools to analyze the text, I acted as the instrument's creator and executor (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). However, a rigorous and systematic analysis method made for a significantly reliable and bias-free set of instruments literature (Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017). To validate the appropriateness of the instruments, the sets of protocols identified and outlined in the proceeding pages I practiced them against a randomly selected leadership study. The validation exercise served four purposes (a) identified and allowed me to correct of unforeseen design issues, (b) assessed the amount of labor and feasibility of analyzing the expected ten to 12 articles to be used in the formal study, (c) established data for gendered leadership research that did not specify gender as a factor in leadership, and (d) allowed for a practice exercise to ensure the effectiveness of the study design. The steps outlined within this section, while informally a validation exercise, aided me in the format and design to identify, organize and track data elements for analysis and transform from data to codes to themes/concepts, that, ultimately, addressed the research question in this study.

My attempt to validate the process and instrumentation design met unexpected results. The validation article for review was selected at random from Walden University's ISPY 8755 Leadership and Leader Development course curriculum (see Appendix A). The randomization of selection eliminated my research bias or preference towards a specific researcher. Also, the use of an article that had been deemed worthy of inclusion into the study of industrial-organizational psychology by Walden University ensured the work met the university standard for leadership study. The original article

randomly selected was Thorn (2012), Leadership in international organizations: Global leadership competencies in *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*.

Interestingly, the article was a study conducted by Margaret Thorn. The chance selection raised the question of the sex of the author should be removed in the design of the formal study. However, my knowledge of the sex and other gleanable information about the author served as an indicator of the orders of discourse and various discourse identities influencing the writer (Gee, 2017). Ultimately, I discarded the article due to its lack of rigor and citations that presented itself more as an opinion piece than an article on leadership. The second article randomly selected was found to be of a similar vein, but I made the decision to move forward with the practice exercise as the formal study would not allow for article selection. The instrument validation employed:

Akutagawa, L. (2013). Breaking stereotypes: An Asian American's view of leadership development. *Asian American Journal of Psychology*, 4(4), 277–284.

I read the article initially for general knowledge of content and overall impression as if read by a college student rather than a doctoral candidate as the act of making strange or as a foreigner to the research (Gee, 2016). The following review of the article applied the primary research question, “What discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research text?” Subsequent readings focused individually on:

- What discursive messages regarding gender are found in the leadership research text?

- What discursive messages regarding performance are found in the leadership research text?
- What discursive messages regarding power are found in the leadership research text?

The deconstruction of the research question allowed me to have an increased understanding of the text at a microlevel, mesolevel, and macrolevel and created the ability to apply a methodological triangulation at each level.

The text was analyzed at a microlevel for how language was employed as a tool to assert implicitly or explicitly power, performance, and gender. Foucault (1972) famously asserted that what is not said is more important than what is said. Therefore, the emphasis was placed on textual silences, assumptions of knowledge, and language selection. To identify how text employed the use of power, performance, and gender, identification of implicit and explicit instances of historical reliance (Reisigl & Wodak, 2016), linguistic strategies, and language construction contained within the text sought to find:

- *Power* as the use of language as a vehicle to influence meaning.
- *Performance* through the use of linguistic phrasing.
- *Gender* as an implied or explicit association of leadership, power, or performance with gender or binary sex of male/female.

Once the microlevel analysis was completed, the data were reviewed at a mesolevel. Instances of interdiscursivity revealed the reconstitution of the text from the diverse discourses, genres, and orders of discourse; the employment of semantic prosody in the evaluation of positive or negative implication carried by linguistic items such as

metaphors and the representativeness in the corpus for adequate representation of all forms of gender.

- *Historical reliance* to support current arguments. Instances of historical reliance can be found through the use of the assumption of knowledge or presumption of shared meaning (Reisigl & Wodak, 2016).
- *Linguistic strategies* to create cognitive alignment between reader and text. Examples of linguistic strategy can be found in the use of metaphors such as “glass elevator,” “great man,” “sticky floor,” and “glass ceiling” or implied meaning such as sports metaphors (Fairclough, 2016).
- *Language construction* employs the use of positive or negative words or phrases to shape meaning. Similar to linguistic strategies, data was cataloged for instances of work placement or usage. For example, the use of “only,” “women,” or “men” can influence the consumer’s interpretation of meaning (Gee, 2017).

Finally, a macrolevel review demonstrated how language had been recontextualized in leadership practices that are represented in the context of other social practices, that included selective representation through inclusion or omission that legitimizes or delegitimizes the practice:

- *Discourse historical approach* focuses on historical meaning, use of methodological triangulation to combine perspectives and find practical implications for the investigation results (Reisigl & Wodak, 2016).

- *Dialectical relational approach* identifies and addresses social wrongs by analyzing their causation by understanding the relationship between the written word and the word's meaning or implications which ultimately shapes, sustains, or changes specific social patterns (Fairclough, 2016)
- *Corpus linguistics* analyzes data outputs to identify themes that can be further analyzed (Mautner, 2016).

To follow are examples of how the analysis was constructed and conducted using the instrumentation developed for the study. First, the article was assigned a unique numerical identifier and documented with the paper's title and author (see Table 7). The numerical identifier allowed for easier reference to track and report information within and across articles. Next, the author's sex, education, and areas of interest were captured (see Table 8). Authorship contributed to the identification of various discourse identities within and between texts. Information regarding the structure of the research design was documented (see Table 9), and the article was decomposed and separated into sections according to the study design (see Table 10):

- *Abstract*: What is the general theme of the article and its intended goal?
- *Introduction*: What arguments are being made, what information is included or excluded?
- *Literature Review*: What theories are being employed?
- *Methodology*: What methodology is being employed? Who are the participants, and the size of the population? What were the data collection methods used? What variables were selected and which were omitted?

- *Results*: What were the study's findings? Did the finding support the hypothesis?
- *Conclusion*: What were the final discussion points of the article? How was the conclusion tied to the other sections of the article?

Table 7*Text Tracking Example*

Article #	Title	Author(s)
000	Breaking stereotypes: An Asian American's view of leadership development	Akutagawa, Linda

Table 8*Text Authorship Example*

Article #	Author(s)	Sex	Education	Areas of interests
000	Akutagawa, Linda	F	Unknown	Asian, Leadership

Table 9*Text Structure Example*

Article #	Keywords	Theoretical framework	Methodology	Variables	Population
000	leadership development, skills, cultural values, Asian American self-awareness	N/A	N/A: Opinion	N/A	N/A

Table 10*Decomposition of Article*

Section	Questions to be considered	Preparation
Abstract	General Theme?	Prepared for coding
Introduction	What arguments are being made?	Prepared for coding

Section	Questions to be considered	Preparation
Literature Review	What theory or theories are being employed?	N/A
Methodology	What methodology is being employed? Participants/Population? Data collection? Variables?	N/A
Results	Study findings?	N/A
Conclusion	Final thoughts?	Prepared for coding

The entire work was double spaced, rows numbered for ease of reference and wide margin space for coding notes as is tradition with qualitative analysis (Saldaña, 2016) and passages that appeared to be codable moments were highlighted and separated into paragraphs/sections with a line separating when topic or subtopic appears to change (Figure 1). The work provided examples of linguistic strategies used in the research provided populate provisional codes for the codebook to be used in the study (see Table 11). The highlighted lumps of codable moments were analyzed and assigned an observation summary of the text selection's linguistic strategy (see Table 12).

Figure 1

Text Preparation for Analysis Example

15 "Quiet. Respectful. Highly technical. Never says no. Hard worker."
 16 Perception or truth? Regardless, these are the words most often used to
 17 describe Asian Americans, as well as common performance feedback
 18 heard by Asian American employees from their non-Asian managers.
 19
 20 Although none of these descriptions are inherently bad, they are not part
 21 of the description of the typical leader in the United States, or, to some
 22 degree, globally. Applied to Asian Americans, they lead to the perception

Table 11*Codebook*

Code	Detailed description	Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria	Typical example	Atypical example
Gender	Implicit or explicit notation of gender or sex within the text	Implicit or explicit notation of gender or sex within the text	All examples of gender will be considered, including references to non-binary gender	...2% of Fortune 500 executive officers—13 are CEOs, and of that number, three are women.	LGBTQ
Power	Use of language to influence the meaning	Use of language as a means to influence the meaning	All examples of power implicitly or explicitly stated will be considered for inclusion.	When looking at the near invisibility of APIs on nonprofit and foundation boards of directors and the CEO level, it is not surprising that the API community has been dismissed, disenfranchised, and disengaged	TBD
Code	Detailed description	Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria	Typical example	Atypical example
Performance	Assertion of performance tied to an individuals gender	Assertion of performance according to linguistic phrasing.	Language structure that cannot be substantially supported by analysis of the text and surrounding text	Applied to Asian Americans, they lead to the perception that people of Asian descent are “not leaders” or “lack leadership ability,” a perspective that hurts Asian Americans across all sectors, all industries, and all the various roles they assume.	“Quiet. Respectful. Highly technical. Never says no. Hard worker.” Perception of truth?

Note. Codebook will assist with standardization of data across texts

Table 12*First Cycle Coding Example*

Line ^a	Lump ^b	Observation summary ^c
23-26	Applied to Asian Americans, they lead to the perception that people of Asian descent are “not leaders” or “lack leadership ability,” a perspective that hurts Asian Americans across all sectors, all industries, and all the various roles they assume.	Uses metaphors and stereotypes to reinforce
28-44	Despite rapid growth in the Asian American population and workforce, and despite high rates of educational achievement and talent growth, the conclusion from a recent environmental scan by Leadership Education for Asian Pacifics, Inc. (LEAP, 2012a) reveals that Asian Americans remain among the least-represented groups in leadership roles in the private, public, and nonprofit sectors, still finding themselves on the outside looking in, at work and in political and educational environments that are neither fully diverse nor fully inclusive.	Weighted CWOI- excessive cognitive processing
127	... cubicles of corporate America...minuscule...	Negatively weighted language selection

^a Line indicates the location within the text.

^b Lump represents the text being analyzed

^c Observation Summary represents the linguist strategy observed, such as textual silence, historical reliance, or assumed knowledge.

The second cycle coding expanded upon the first cycle coding by applying an initial code of power, performance, or power that may have been adjusted during additional readings or compared between or across articles to be analyzed (see Table 13). Finally, the coded data elements were aggregated, analyzed, and assigned a final code category to identify themes (see Table 13). Analytical memos played an essential role in the study and were examined for codable moments. An example of a coded analytical memo is located in Appendix B.

Table 13*Second Cycle Coding Example*

Line ^a	Lump ^b	Observation summary ^c	Initial code ^d	Adjusted code ^e
23-26	Applied to Asian Americans, they lead to the perception that people of Asian descent are “not leaders” or “lack leadership ability,” a perspective that hurts Asian Americans across all sectors, all industries, and all the various roles they assume.	Uses metaphors and stereotypes to reinforce	Performance	N/A
28-44	Despite rapid growth in the Asian American population and workforce, and despite high rates of educational achievement and talent growth, the conclusion from a recent environmental scan by Leadership Education for Asian Pacifics, Inc. (LEAP, 2012a) reveals that Asian Americans remain among the least-represented groups in leadership roles in the private, public, and nonprofit sectors, still finding themselves on the outside looking in, at work and in political and educational environments that are neither fully diverse nor fully inclusive.	Weighted CWOI- excessive cognitive processing	Power	N/A
Line ^a	Lump ^b	Observation summary ^c	Initial code ^d	Adjusted code ^e
127	... cubicles of corporate America...minuscule...	Negatively weighted language selection	Power	N/A

^aLine indicates the location within the text.

^bLump represents the text being analyzed.

^cObservation Summary represents the linguist strategy observed, such as textual silence, historical reliance, or assumed knowledge.

^dInitial code represents the original categorization of text as power, performance, or gender during first cycle coding.

^eAdjusted code represents an adjustment to code during second and subsequent coding cycles.

Data Analysis Plan

As the intention of CDA (and this study) was to analyze the text's language, my analysis of data closely followed the data collection protocol outlined in the previous section of this Chapter. Per the guidance of Wodak and Meyer (2016), I reviewed each article initially with a novice's curiosity through the act of making strange (Gee, 2017), as much as possible, rather than that of a doctoral candidate. Thereafter, I approached the transcripts as a skeptical reader and suspended opinion by focusing on the way that language was used in the construction organization and function of the discourse rather than underlying meaning or motivation (Gill, 2009). I applied an analytical mentality, data were analyzed for patterns in data in variability (difference within and between) and consistency as well as investigating the way language was used or not used or what was not said through textual silences (Fairclough, 2016; Foucault, 1972; Gill, 2009). Following repetitive reading and coding themes, the data were aggregated and examined for regularity, variability, deviation, and coherence. The methodological triangulation employed during the data collection phase allowed for a robust set of data that was aggregated.

Microlevel Analysis

Power: The capacity or ability to steer and affect others' beliefs, attitudes, or course of action through a social contract between leaders and followers. Power may be wielded by followers as equally as leaders. Power can be legitimate, cohesive, reward-based by possessing desirable information, expert, or referent (Northouse, 2016, pp. 10-11)

- What instances of power were found within the text?
- Did the text create or dispute power?
- How does the text maintain power ideology?
- How is the text used to create or dispute power relationships?

Gender: Psychsociocultural constructs imposed on the normative biological binaries of maleness and femaleness, making gender a learned system of knowledge that is varied, fluid, attitudinal, and based on an individual's interpretation of cultural meaning (Holmes & Schnurr, 2006).

- Are there instances where gender alignment is implicitly or explicitly stated?
- What examples of gender are found within the text?
- What words or phrases are used to refer to or are associated with a specific gender that supports a specific ideology?
- How does the text maintain gender ideology?
- How and how well leadership roles are enacted?
- What examples of performance are found within the text?
- How does the text maintain performance ideology?

Mesolevel Analysis

- Does the text rely on historical data to support current arguments?
- Does the text use the assumption of knowledge or presumption of shared meaning?
- To what extent were linguistic strategies used to create cognitive alignment between reader and text?

- Did the language construction that employs the use of positive or negative words or phrases to shape meaning?

Macrolevel Analysis

- Does the text use positive or negative linguist strategies?
- Is there a reliance on historical discourse to support current discourse?
- Does the text present textual silences through omission or assumption of knowledge?

Once data were analyzed at each level within and between journal issues, a summary of findings at each level was created. Finally, *Women in Management Review*, Volume 22, Issue 8, 2007 and *Gender in Management*, Volume 36, Issue 6, 2021 are compared and contrasted in an evaluation of the representation of gender sustainment or deconstruction of ideologies and positions of power.

Issues of Trustworthiness

Credibility

Numerous protocols were identified and outlined to ensure the study's credibility and the data identified were intact. I employed methodological triangulation by drawing upon a discourse-historical approach (Reisigl & Wodak, 2016), dialectical-relational approach (Fairclough, 2016), and corpus linguistics (Mautner, 2016) to generate multiple perspectives, reduce bias, and reveal blind spots. Gee's building tasks and tools of inquiry, alongside Saldaña's (2016) reflexive strategies, increased the level of questions and approached the text from various perspectives. Also, I possessed a willingness to question personal assumptions, perceptions, and biases at every step of the process. A

final note on credibility returns to the assertion of CDA there are no wrong answers or correct interpretations. The application of CDA to analyze text outlined in this study allowed me to embrace multiple ways of viewing data, approaches, and factors, all of which added to research through the addition of many voices, perceptions, and experiences.

Transferability

The nature of this study focused on the intersection of gender and leadership; however, the approach I laid out to investigate the possible ways language selection used in research shaped perceptions of the consumer can be readily applied to other bodies of text, such as the intersection of leadership and race. Although *Gender in Management* is the only journal dedicated to the study of gender in management and leadership (Emerald, 2019), this study could be replicated across past and future issues to identify themes of how research on gender and leadership has or has not changed over time. External validity is also possible, as found in the instrument validation exercise that reviewed text in an article on leadership that did not expressly rely upon gender as a leadership factor. Furthermore, the areas of interest such as gender, power, and performance could easily be replaced with other focal points such as race, socioeconomic status, and performance.

Dependability

According to Ravitch and Carl (2016), dependability refers to the stability of the data. As this study was conducted as an analysis of secondary data published within a single issue of *Gender in Management*, the data are stable. *Gender in Management*

(Emerald, 2019) is the only journal dedicated to discussions of gender, leadership, and management. The issues analyzed were *Women in Management Review*, Volume 22, Issue 8, 2007 and *Gender in Management*, Volume 36, Issue 6, 2021.

Dependability of the analysis of the data was established through my methodological triangulation to reduce bias and reflect the data from multiple perspectives. Coding was thoroughly documented and I applied the protocols laid out within this chapter. Audits of the data collection began with the first reading as preliminary jottings and continued through cycle coding. Following the repetitive reading and coding, the data were aggregated and examined for regularity and variability through deviant cases and coherence analysis. I systematically tracked, recorded, reflected upon, and considered the data through each aspect of triangulation. Data were considered and documented at a microlevel and then aggregated at mesolevel and macrolevel.

Confirmability

I considered strategies since the conception of this study and actively applied to ensure that I and study remained confirmable. Numerous protocols were identified and outlined to ensure the credibility of the study and the data identified. Also, I possessed a willingness to question assumptions and perceptions at every step of the process. Leaning on Ravitch and Carl (2016), I developed reflexive validity questions early in the research design to support continual reflection and focus on credibility, transferability, and confirmability. Reflexive questions employed were:

- *Credibility*: How do my methods align with the research question?

- *Transferability*: Am I providing sufficient context and framing for readers to fully understand the study's findings?
- *Confirmability*: Do I have a personal agenda that is influencing the findings?
- *Confirmability*: At what point throughout the study do I seek thought partners for new subjectivity and perspective?

Ethical Procedures

CDA, as well as this study, required an emphasis on ethical procedures. A criticism of CDA and qualitative research, in general, has been the subjective nature of data collection and data analysis. CDA and the study mandated I conduct research in isolation which potentially posed ethical concerns. I created and documented actionable steps and systematic approach strategies in this chapter to reduce research bias or unethical interpretation of data, including methodological triangulation to approach the data from multiple perspectives and levels.

As with any psychological study, the American Psychological Association's (2017) Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct were closely reviewed and aligned. Although all ten Principles and Codes were reviewed, Section 8: Research and Publication (2017, Standard 8.0) was most relevant to the project:

- *8.01 Institutional approval* upon entering into the University Research Review phase, a request for formal approval for the study and data collection was obtained from Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). The researcher took preemptive steps to construct ethical research and completed the certification process from the Collaborative Institutional Training

Initiative. Additionally, the researcher formally requested supervision by the researcher's Committee Chair through Walden University's IRB Form B.

- *8.02 Informed consent to research* did not apply to the study as it did not use human participants.
- *8.03 Informed consent for recording voices and images in research* did not apply as the study did not include the recording of audio or visual images.
- *8.04 Client/patient, student, and subordinate research participants* did not apply, and there were no known conflicts between the researcher and text
- *8.05 Dispensing with informed consent for research* informed consent was dispensed and not required as the study was the analysis of secondary data that was publicly accessible.
- *8.06 Offering inducements for research participation* did not apply as no inducements were offered.
- *8.07 Deception in research* did not apply as the study consisted of secondary data analysis of existing, public text.
- *8.08 Debriefing* did not apply as the study consisted of secondary data analysis of existing, public text.
- *8.09 Humane care and use of animals in research* was irrelevant to the study as animals were not used.
- *8.10 Reporting research results* data was not fabricated and all study results were reported regardless of the expected outcome, any errors in data that might have arisen, immediate steps to correct, omit or retract were taken.

- *8.11 Plagiarism* all writing and results in the project are of the researcher; except where direct citation was appropriate and fully credited.
- *8.12 Publication credit* all publication credits were freely made to original authors and journals, if appropriate.
- *8.13 Duplicate publication of data* the study was original and did not contain any previously published work.
- *8.14 Sharing research data for verification* should the requests for data verification be received, any and all documentation will be made immediately available.
- *8.15 Reviewers* all confidentiality and property rights were held in place as applicable to the study.

In summary, I analyzed existing text, impact to human participants did not exist, and concerns with the treatment and data storage were nominal because the text analyzed was readily available on Emerald Publishing's website and open to the public. However, I did not access either body of work until URR approval was granted.

Upon entering into the University Research Review phase, I made a request for formal approval for the study and data collection from Walden University's IRB. I took preemptive steps to construct ethical research and completed the certification process from the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative. Additionally, I formally requested supervision by my committee chair through Walden University.

The more significant concern of potential prior exposure or familiarity of the text authors could not be entirely eliminated. However, I took actionable steps to reduce the

likelihood of exposure that were implemented since the onset of developing the study, such as cancelation of subscription and notification to Emerald Publishing, ceasing additional research from other forms of literature on the topic for the duration of the formal study, and withdrawing membership from the American Psychological Association's Division 35 Society for the Psychology of Women and Division 51 Society for the Psychological Study of Men and Masculinities. To reduce ethical concerns regarding recruitment of data due to selection bias and premature assumptions about the text authors, I conducted on an issue released following the approval of the study.

Summary

In summary, the pages of Chapter 3 brought forth an explanation of the my position, interest, and decision to apply CDA to text on gendered leadership through the analysis of *Women in Management Review* (2007) Volume 22, Issue 8, 2007 and *Gender in Management* (2021) Volume 36, Issue 6, 2021. I explained the text selection logic with the aim to add to the body of literature on the topic by examining the research question, "What discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research text?" The value of microlevel, mesolevel, and macrolevel analysis of each journal independently and by compare-contrast evaluation demonstrated the journal's progress, if any, towards representation across gender, sustainment of deconstruction of ideologies and positioning power. Through the candid statement of position, I freely acknowledged that no researcher, regardless of intention, can entirely eliminate bias from research (Gee, 2016). Nonetheless, strategies for reducing risk by

applying methodological triangulation were laid out for the systematic review of the literature (Sriwimon & Zilli, 2017).

Although CDA consists of methodological steps noted in the chapter, no specific protocol or guidelines were available for data identification or collection. In the absence of a pre-defined approach to data collection and analysis, I validated the instrument against a randomly selected leadership study that did not specifically question gender as applied to leadership. Validation of the instrument allowed me to refine the design protocols used during the formal study. Also, Chapter 3 discussed the approach to research and the body of literature for analysis. Data collection strategies, credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability to the study were identified.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to examine discursive messages used in research text regarding gendered leadership and to explore the phenomenon of word usage and language structure applied to research text. The study applied the following research question: What discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research text? Chapter 4 begins with a demographical review of the text source, followed by a summary of the employed data collection. The chapter moves to the processes used in the data analysis phase, including codes applied and categories and themes that emerged. Next, the chapter provides evidence of trustworthiness by discussing aspects of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability applied during the study's execution. Results of the analysis are presented at microlevel, mesolevel, and macrolevel as outlined in Chapter 3, and the chapter closes in a summary of the findings of the study.

Setting

As I used predetermined, existing text that was publicly available, there were no conditions that influenced or changed the text collection that deviated from the study design.

Demographics

The specific texts for the project were *Women in Management Review* (WIMR), Volume 22, Issue 8, 2007 and *Gender in Management* (GIM), Volume 36, Issue 6, 2021. The WIMR (2007) issue was selected as the final issue published by a

management/leadership journal focused solely on female interests before the journal transitioned to gender-oriented research on leadership/management concerns. GIM (2021) was selected as the only journal dedicated to research on gender-related leadership and the specific issue was projected to be released after the proposal for the project was submitted.

Data Collection

A total of 18 bodies of text were retrieved from the online publications. During the precoding phase, pages were formatted into individual word processing documents, assigned a number, and decomposed into sections by a paid individual to allow me to remain free from exposure before the analysis phase. Texts were double spaced, and lines were numbered for ease of reference and tracking during the data coding, analysis, and reporting.

Once formatted, I began analysis. Articles were read individually for general content, and no analytical comments were made. In the next reading, I marked passages that appeared to be codable moments into lumps ranging from a few words to paragraphs, resulting in an extensive data set for additional review. Concepts or ideas were lumped and highlighted, and an observation summary was handwritten for later review to maintain a manageable data set. Three of the commentaries did not focus on gender and leadership and were discarded during the text analysis due to lack of fit for the study. WIMR article 006 reviewed a book regarding diversity management; however, the commentary emphasized the focus of the book as race and ethnicity employment-related discrimination. WIMR article 009 was discarded as a commentary on generalized

diversity program guidelines in the United Kingdom. WIMR article 012 was discarded as a Society of Human Resources Management ranking of the best 50 small and mid-sized companies to work. The remaining 15 articles were fully read, and lumps of codable text were transitioned to the Second Cycle Coding table for further analysis, which is discussed in the following pages. Through iterative readings, some data were combined while text was discarded until core themes emerged and reached saturation.

After completing microlevel analysis, I began the process of understanding the relationships between text and authorship as discussed within this paper. The sex, education, and areas of interest for each author were documented in to gather text authorship information. Article 006 through Article 012 did not provide clear authorship; therefore, unknown was listed as “unknown” for sex, education, and areas of interest. Next, I gathered keywords, theoretical framework, methodology, variables, and population size for each study for review after the completion of microlevel analysis. Throughout the entire process, I recorded analytical memos, primarily handwritten throughout the study, which were transcribed and analyzed in the final stages of the study.

Data collection, which included retrieving text from public internet locations, converting and formatting into word processing documents, locating and compiling authorship demographics, critical review of the text, analytical memos, documentation, organization, and analysis, was conducted over the course of 6 weeks and in excess of 270 hours of effort. Data were recorded in tables as previously outlined in Chapter 3 and stored via spreadsheets on a secure personal computer.

Data Analysis

The intention of this research study was to investigate how language upholds or dismantles ideologies of gender, power, and leadership in text on gendered leadership. While textual analysis could have resulted in codes and categories along other veins such as race or ethnicity, the focus remained on gender, leadership, and language. I read articles individually, and segments of texts were lumped for later review, with a brief observation summary applied. Passages that appeared to be codable moments were highlighted and grouped into paragraphs/sections with a line separating when the topic or subtopic appears to change. Initial coding allowed the use of observation summaries for open-ended, tentative statements that I reviewed later and changed as more appropriate codes emerged (see Table 11). Each article was read separately, notated, and coded for instances of textual silence, assumptions of knowledge, historical reliance to support current arguments, and positive or negative linguistic strategies (see Reisigl & Wodak, 2016) with the following guidance:

Power: The capacity or ability to steer and affect others' beliefs, attitudes, or course of action through a social contract between leaders (text) and followers (consumers). Power can be legitimate, cohesive, reward-based, earned by possessing desirable information, expert, or referent (Northouse, 2016). Emphasis was placed on identifying language, that was used to steer and affect others' beliefs, attitudes, or course of action:

- Examples of power found within the text,
- text used to create or dispute power,

- text that maintained ideologies, and
- how text created or disputed power relationships.

Gender: Psychsociocultural constructs imposed on the normative biological binaries of maleness and femaleness, making gender a learned system of knowledge that is varied, fluid, attitudinal, and based on an individual's interpretation of cultural meaning (Holmes & Schnurr, 2006; Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018b). Emphasis was placed on how language was used implicitly or explicitly to denote biological sex, gender attributes, or traits:

- Instances where gender alignment is implicitly or explicitly stated,
- examples of gender are found within the text,
- words or phrases used to refer to or associate a specific gender, and
- text that maintained gender ideology.

Performance: How and how well leadership roles are enacted (Northouse, 2016).

Emphasis was placed on the use of language to suggest performance possessing alignment to a specific sex or gender:

- Examples of performance found within the text and
- text that maintained performance ideologies

Overall/Summary

- Text use of positive or negative linguist strategies,
- reliance on historical discourse to support current discourse, and
- textual silences through omission or assumption of knowledge.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

Credibility

Numerous protocols were identified and outlined to ensure the study's credibility and the data to be identified. The study employed methodological triangulation by drawing upon discourse-historical approach (Reisigl & Wodak, 2016), dialectical-relational approach (Fairclough, 2016), and corpus linguistics (Mautner, 2016) that generated multiple perspectives, reduced bias, and revealed blind spots. Gee's (2014a, 2014b) building tasks and tools of inquiry, alongside Saldaña's (2016) reflexive strategies discussed in detail in Chapter 3, increased the level of questions and approach to the text from various perspectives.

Transferability

The nature of this study focused on the intersection of gender and leadership; however, the approach laid out the possible ways language selection used in research could be applied to other bodies of text, such as the intersection of leadership and race. Although *Gender in Management* was the only journal dedicated to the study of gender in management and leadership (Emerald, 2019), I saw opportunities to replicate the analysis in relation to race, religion, or locale. External validity was possible, as the exercise could review text in articles on leadership that did not expressly rely upon gender as a leadership factor. Furthermore, the areas of interest such as gender, power, and performance could have been replaced with other focal points such as race and socioeconomic status.

Dependability

This study was conducted as an analysis of secondary data published within two journals released through Emerald Publications. *Gender in Management* (Emerald, 2019) is the only journal dedicated to discussions of gender, leadership, and management. *Women in Management Review* represented the journal's early work before being rebranded as gender focused in 2007. The issues analyzed were *Women in Management Review* (2007), Volume 22, Issue 8, 2007 and *Gender in Management* (2021), Volume 36, Issue 6, 2021.

The dependability of the analysis of the data was established through methodological triangulation to reduce bias and reflect the data from multiple perspectives. Coding was thoroughly documented, applying the protocols laid out within Chapter 3. The data were aggregated and examined for regularity and variability through deviant cases and coherence analysis following repetitive reading and coding. Data were systematically tracked, recorded, reflected upon, considered through each aspect of triangulation, and analyzed at a microlevel before aggregation at mesolevel and macrolevel.

Confirmability

Strategies were considered since the conception of the study and actively applied to ensure I, as the researcher, and study remained confirmable. Numerous protocols were identified and outlined to ensure the credibility of the study and data identified. Also, I was willing to question personal assumptions and perceptions during each step of the process. Leaning on Ravitch and Carl (2016), reflexive validity questions were

established early in the research design to support continual reflection and focus on credibility, transferability, and confirmability.

Results

In this study, I sought to understand the messages regarding gender, performance, and power in text in gender leadership. The specific research question of “What discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research text?” was applied to the text. Discussion focused on text, not author; therefore, all data were deidentified. A total of 18 articles, seven of which were nonpeer-reviewed commentaries that were reviewed for possible instances of power, performance, and gender are discussed. Three were discarded due to lack of fit, while the remaining four were reviewed at the microlevel and mesolevel. The data within the peer-reviewed scholarly research texts were reviewed at the microlevel, mesolevel, and macrolevel. First, the findings of gender, performance, and power are presented at the article level to satisfy microlevel analysis. The data are then presented at the macrolevel through the comparison of data from the issue of WIMR (2007) against GIM (2021) to understand how gender, performance, and power have changed or remained the same across time and provide insight into the composition of authorship. Finally, at a macrolevel, data are discussed holistically for messages that reinforced or disputed power, performance, or gender. The term gender was applied when reference was made to masculine or feminine gender traits, and the term sex to bifurcated male or female. Analysis focused on:

- *Power* as the capacity to steer or influence others.

- *Performance* questioned how men and women performed their leadership roles.
- *Gender* was explored in the ways women and men were represented as leaders.
- *Discourse historical* as reliance on prior arguments, theories, and research to support current research (Reisigl & Wodak, 2016).
- *Dialectical relational* linguistic strategies and language constructs used to shape meaning, such as metaphors and linguistic strategies (Fairclough, 2016).
- *Corpus linguistics* in recurring codes that revealed themes (Mautner, 2016).

Microlevel

To follow is an analysis of the text by article. Articles are discussed in numerical order during microlevel analysis alongside two examples of gender, performance, and power located in the respective final codification and summary table. Article 001 examined the employment practices and career advancement opportunities of women in Turkey. The text compared hiring and promotion practices within the three types of Turkish banks: state owned, private, and public. Power was asserted through the comparison of Turkey against first-tier countries such as Europe and the United States through the direct assertion that Turkey should take on western philosophies and that women working outside the home would be viewed as a symbol of progress (see Table 14, power). The text used reference to legislative intervention to enforce education as a means to drive economic progress. Power was subtle, although strongly played in the examination of practices of the foreign banks against Turkey when additional research

revealed all foreign banks included in Article 001's study were headquartered in western countries (Germany, Great Britain, and the United States), reinforcing a "west is best" narrative. Power was further exerted through the devaluation of the role of women as leaders of the community and diminished the value of raising children through references to Turkey's culture as patriarchal without definition or consideration to the stated views of both sexes towards the preference of female focus on home family rather than paid employment (see Table 14, power.) Gender was oriented to normative, bifurcated male and female sex with a focus on the female sex and the text specifically referenced the need for women in the workforce. The text noted women attained high educations yet, encountered a commonly cited "glass ceiling" metaphor (see Table 14, gender). However, the text went on to suggest that the uptick of women employed should be considered a phenomenon that would not last (see Table 14, performance). Finally, the text suggested women were relegated to lower paying roles such as customer services, yet later admitted the causation was due to self-selection, not discrimination (see Table 14, performance).

Table 14

Final Codification and Summary: Article 001

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
Social attitudes and values also play a role in keeping women just below the executive ranks. Schein's (2001) dictum "think manager – think male" continues to be affirmed in a global context.	Text applies metaphor to support gender-role ideology	Gender
Among the various explanations for the dearth of women at the top is the existence of the proverbial "glass ceiling"	Text applies metaphor to support gender-role ideology	Gender
When questioned further, she offered self-selection as the primary reason.	Arguments thus far supported gender-discrimination ideology	Performance

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
There is some speculation that this increase in female employment in banking may be a temporary phenomenon that may reverse itself once more qualified males enter the labor force.	Negative linguistic strategy	Performance
In an effort to move the country into the western paradigm, the founders sought to advance the role of women as a “symbol” of progress.	Supports western ideologies as superior	Power
Even today researchers continue to find evidence that Turkish men and women still view home and family as preferred roles for women (Kabasakal, 1999; Zeytinoglu, 1998; Aycan, 2004), the persistent residues of a patriarchal culture.	Cultural values are dismissed in favor of economic gains	Power

^aLump indicates the text analyzed

Throughout this project, it has been asserted that text takes the reader along on a journey to a desired outcome. Article 002 supported the storytelling narrative capability of academic writing. Set in New Zealand, researchers investigated the experience of female Indian entrepreneurs. The text was beautifully and, at times, poetically constructed. Therefore, power was exerted as the influence of the writing style, as women are “wrapped in visible diversity discriminators of ethnicity’s permanent embrace” (see Table 15, power). Linguistic strategies continued as implicit bias was referenced as “software of the mind” and “reminiscent of the ‘the native’ or ruled, who could not equal the ruler” (see Table 15, power). Gender was oriented towards normative, binary sex to the extent women were said to be “the cultural and biological reproducer of future generations” (see Table 15, gender). Furthermore, the text labeled and referenced the three participant groups as flowers: rose, jasmine, and basil, that added to the cognitive feminization of the studied population (see Table 15, gender). Performance within the text was convoluted. The purpose of the study was to understand migrant, female Indians within New Zealand; however, the text focused on ethnic issues such as language, accent,

and skin color as barriers that confused racism with sexism that could easily have been argued as a work barrier to Indian migrants regardless of biological sex or gender identity (see Table 15, performance).

Table 15

Final Codification and Summary: Article 002

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
Furthermore, if one considers that the ethnic minority woman is both a cultural and biological reproducer of future generations, then such positioning is less likely to lead to marginality with underemployment or unemployment which can become fertile seeding grounds for violence, riots and terrorism, if not by the women, then by their sons, brothers, husbands and fathers.	Reinforces gender ideology as hyper-feminine or hyper-masculine	Gender
Gulab (or rose) stands for the women who are stop-gap entrepreneurs and use the micro-enterprise as a stepping-stone while they seek employment, or to supplement their underemployment. Mogra (or the jasmine flower) stands for the women who have made a conscious choice to have their own enterprise. Tulsi (or sacred Basil, which is a holy plant for the Hindus), corresponds to those women who come from the Indian business caste and who have a family business and would rarely think of employment outside of this.	Reinforces gender ideology as hyper-feminine or hyper-masculine	Gender
...when they see me and my brown skin, they seem to think I cannot function in a Western worldbeing told that she was: "over qualified had lack of Kiwi experience and a strange accent"...	Comingles racism with sexism	Performance
This socialization among members of their own or similar ethnic communities is often reinforced by perceptions of being seen as ethnic and hence unable to understand the English language, being spoken down-to, as well as "smelling of curry"	Comingles racism with sexism	Performance
In other words, the imperial mindset is so deeply embedded in the software of the mind that ethnic minority migrants are automatically treated as "the other" reminiscent of "the native" or ruled, who could not equal the ruler	Hyperbolic use of linguistic strategies	Power
Wrapped in visible diversity discriminators of ethnicity's permanent embrace, these women encounter a receiving society that needs them but often does not want them.	Hyperbolic use of linguistic strategies	Power

^aLump indicates the text analyzed

Article 003 questioned the influence of family on the career choices of women in Nigeria. The text suggested that women of lower socioeconomic status and high religious affiliation selected gender-dominate roles such as nursing. In contrast, those from higher

socioeconomic and lower religious affiliations were more likely to pursue STEM careers. Power was shown within the family unit and cultural perception that specific careers were more appropriate for men compared to women (see Table 16, power). Also, the text examined eight hypotheses and, as a quantitative study, was a densely technical design that relied on shared knowledge to understand the outcome and expert power in the translation and explanation of statistical findings (see Table 16, power). Gender was discussed along with careers, and certain careers were deemed gender-dominant and presented along the binary sex lines of male and female. For example, nursing and teaching were stated as female-dominated career paths while STEM (science, technology, engineering and mathematics) was considered male-dominated (see Table 16, gender). The influence of gender was intertwined with performance through the alignment of gender with career selection (see Table 16, performance). The text emphasized the need to remove barriers for women to enter STEM careers; however, no discussion was made regarding family or cultural barriers that males faced that may have prevented more men from entering into teaching or nursing careers (see Table 16, gender). Finally, the relationship between cultural power and gender expectations intertwined to the extent job performance became aligned with preconceived sex norms and internal motivation (see Table 16, performance).

Article 004 focused on the sex composition of mentoring relationships. Power was demonstrated through historical reliance on earlier research to support the study's design and outcome and to assert the importance of gender in mentor-mentee relations (see Table 17, power). Gender was discussed as normative, binary aspects of male and

female and applied to the combinations of mentoring-mentee relationships: male-male, male-female, female-female and female-male. The female sex was noted as the primary focus of mentoring programs and that women required assistance to develop and advance in the workplace. In contrast, the male sex was suggested to receive training to develop more facilitative traits (see Table 17, gender). The sex of the mentor and mentee in relationships was discussed from a performance perspective in that males tended to provide more career instruction/guidance.

Table 16

Final Codification and Summary: Article 003

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
For instance, nursing in an example of female-dominated occupation while engineering is an example of male-dominated occupation.	Reinforces gender-dominate career ideologies	Gender
With this, more female students will be able to go into wider range of careers in male-dominated occupations according to their interests and abilities.	Textual silence of barriers for men entering female-dominate careers	Gender
For instance, most women are employed in low paying, traditionally female careers and work such as nursing, teaching, social work, sales, care taking, and administrative support positions (Chovwen, 2003). However, women are underrepresented in science, mathematics and technology education and careers in Nigeria (FME, 2003).	Reinforces ideologies of monetary compensation and dismantles cultural values	Performance
The relationships were such that the higher the attitude towards religion, socio-economic status, achievement motivation and family involvement scores, the more the female students tended to choose nursing and engineering (gender-dominated) careers.	Demonstrates influence of family on career choices and not barrier metaphors	Performance
The sum of scores for each item stands for the measure of attitude towards religion of the respondents. High scores reflect positive attitudes toward religion. The test-retest reliability with three weeks interval of administration among 100 undergraduate students was 0.85. The internal consistency as measured by Cronbach's α was 0.78. The scale correlated positively with an attitude toward religion scale (i.e. a religious commitment scale by Mockabee et al., 2001) ($r = 0.72$, $df = 98$, $P < 0.05$).	Exerts power through scientific language	Power

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
The purpose of this study therefore, is to investigate the influence of family, individual difference and cultural factors on the choice of gender-dominated occupations (specifically nursing and engineering) in some tertiary institutions.	Demonstrates influence of family on career choices and not barrier metaphors	Power

^aLump indicates the text analyzed

Table 17

Final Codification and Summary: Article 004

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
Many organisations have established mentoring programs aimed specifically at the development and advancement of women (Clutterbuck and Ragins, 2002).	Supports ideologies of female inferiority to males	Gender
However, rather than assuming that certain functions are less likely with male mentors, adequate training could assist males in developing the necessary skills for providing these particular functions.	Supports gender ideology that leadership skills are accessible regardless of biological sex	Gender
As with mentee gender, examination of the impact of mentor gender on the provision of mentoring functions has met with mixed results. Burke (1984) reported that female mentors performed more psychosocial functions and had a greater impact on the career aspirations of their mentees than male mentors. Gaskill (1991) found that female mentees with female mentors reported that their mentors “served as a role model” and “enabled the exploration of personal concerns” to a greater extent than male mentors.	Reinforces stereotypical sex-based ideologies	Performance
The findings of the current study also suggest that gender may not be as influential, in regard to mentoring functions, as has previously been proffered. Some researchers (Ragins and McFarlin, 1990; Scandura and Ragins, 1993) have argued that gender role orientation may be a more influential factor than gender per se.	Supports gender ideology that leadership skills are accessible regardless of biological sex	Performance

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
Consistent with Kram's (1980, 1985) observations, other researchers have found that psychosocial functions are those most likely to be affected by the gender composition of the relationship.	Historical reliance on earlier scientific literature to support current study	Power
Early research on mentoring (Kanter, 1977; Kram, 1980; Levinson, 1978) recognized the importance of gender in developmental relationships.	Historical reliance on earlier scientific literature to support current study	Power

^a Lump indicates the text analyzed

In contrast, women provided more relational and career support (see Table 17, performance). The text suggested that regardless of the status of females in the relationship (mentor or mentee), the mentoring outcomes were more supportive than in male-only relationships. While the text approached the study in support of generalized gender norms of female as transformational and male as transactional, the findings of the study argued psychosocial-related functions did not vary across the sex of mentor-mentee relationships and asserted the findings have more significant implications towards gender-orientation rather than sex-orientation of participants (see Table 17, performance).

Article 005 explored the evolution of networks throughout the stages of entrepreneurs' career growth. The gist of the article was that women created networks differently from men due to lack of access to networks in early careers. Women were found to have more family members in their networks. However, as careers progress, the ratio of male/female network members leveled across sexes that the authors suggested was due to women taking on male strategies (see Table 18, performance). Gender was presented as normative, binary sex, with females being the focal point of the study (see Table 18, gender). The text made the comparison between female professional networks

and male professional networks, asserting that women, in general, did not (and do not) have access to male networks, which caused female performance to suffer in early career stages and that to succeed, women create male-oriented networks (see Table 18, gender). Female performance ideology was upheld as failure to thrive through historical reliance on earlier research, and success was measured against reaching an unspecified “echelon” (see Table 18, performance). Power was produced within the text through the assertion that individuals cannot choose diversity within their network and back pedaled to state individuals make choices where to focus (see Table 18, power). Finally, power was exercised through dense, quantitative study design, that assumed the reader’s knowledge of ANOVA and expert power to discern textual meaning (see Table 18, power).

Table 18

Final Codification and Summary: Article 005

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
Taken together, our findings suggest that just as women in traditional organizations adapt social networks similar to men in order to succeed, their entrepreneurial counterparts build more “male-oriented” networks as they proceed through venture phases.	Supports ideologies that women must take on male attributes for career success	Gender
Why are female and male “established” entrepreneurs’ networks so similar? One explanation is that entrepreneurs face the same set of key challenges and must make decisions about networks which enable them to access similar resources to meet these business needs.	Acknowledges that both sexes must make career choices	Gender
Our results suggest that, as female entrepreneurs move forward in the entrepreneurial process, they tend to increase the proportion of males in their social networks.	Supports ideologies that women must take on male attributes for career success	Performance
Other studies of gendered management networks report that women have more women in their networks and men have more men in their networks (Burke et al., 1995) and women’s exclusion from formal networks limits their ability to advance to the highest echelons in an organization.	Supports ideology of female discrimination with failure to discuss female motivation for network selection	Performance

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
In these traditional organizations, individuals cannot readily “choose” diversity in work networks. In contrast, the process of starting a new venture involves the entrepreneur self-selecting individuals to participate in his/her network.	Supports ideologies that women must take on male attributes for career success	Power
The sample is representative of the national population and the data are analyzed using basic descriptive statistics, ANOVA and linear regression...Table I presents the means of the six dependent variables across the four stages of the entrepreneurial process as well as a mean for all four stages taken together. Table I reveals no significant gender differences in entrepreneurs’ network size, density, proportion of business relations or proportion of emotional support relations.	Expert power through scientific language	Power

^a Lump indicates the text analyzed

Article 006 consisted of a book review regarding diversity management with a focus on race and ethnicity and was discarded due to lack of fit. Article 007 was presented as a commentary or review of research that discussed the unconscious bias of all persons against female anger. Power was demonstrated through the textual framing of the study, that introduced the topic of perceptions of leadership capabilities based on the leader’s sex and display of anger (see Table 19, power). The commentary began with reference to a male politician’s statement that a popular female presidential candidate was too angry to be president and placed the reader in a position of agreement or disagreement with the assertion (see Table 19, performance). Power was also demonstrated as unseen and intangible implicit bias possessed in all humankind regardless of sex, education, political affiliation, etc. (see Table 19, power). In short, the study found that all people viewed female anger as inappropriate and detrimental to leadership capabilities; however, men were not sanctioned for anger outbursts (see Table 19, gender). Gender was introduced as binary, normative sex with a focus on perceptions of female leaders’ anger (see Table 19, gender). Performance centered around perception

of leader's anger according to biological sex with the impact of factors such as justification of, or sorrow over, on the ongoing perception of individual's capacity to lead effectively and displayed anger were viewed as less competent and out of control (see Table 19, performance).

Table 19

Final Codification and Summary: Article 007

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
...people strongly disapprove of women's expressing anger in a professional context. At the same time, they tend to admire men for doing so.	Supports gender-role ideologies	Gender
"participants rated the angry female CEO as significantly less competent than all of the other targets, including even the angry female trainee."	Supports gender-role ideologies	Gender
The Chairman of the Republican National Committee caused something of a furor in 2006 when he asserted on national television that Senator Hillary Rodham Clinton was too angry to be elected president.	Supports gender-role ideologies	Performance
They viewed "angry female targets as significantly more 'out of control' than the angry male targets and unemotional male and female targets."	Supports gender-role ideologies	Performance
The new research finds these views to prevail among men and women alike, liberals and conservatives alike, sexists and non-sexists alike... the findings suggest bias against angry women to be "a deep-seated and even implicit reaction that people are subject to regardless of their conscious beliefs that sexism or group dominance is wrong."	Discussion of implicit bias	Power
Dr Brescoll's paper, which was judged the best dissertation-based submission to the Academy of Management's division on gender and diversity in organizations, concludes: [W]omen, like men, have the same need to achieve status and power. At the same time, to achieve and maintain high social status, professional women may also have to behave unemotionally in order to be seen as rational. Thus, it is important to identify strategies that professional women can use to express anger without incurring a social penalty. The present studies make a gesture in this regard with the finding that external, situational explanations for anger ameliorate negative responses to angry women.	Expert power as researcher	Power

^aLump indicates the text analyzed

Article 008 was a brief commentary on public managers' view of their leadership abilities and underestimation of themselves. Performance was introduced through a tool that measured leaders against specific behaviors and showed that leaders regularly underestimated themselves compared to their peers and staff's opinion of the leader's ability. Gender was primarily aligned to performance as the text acknowledged the study found stereotypical views of female leaders as more supportive, keeping promises, and developing staff (see Table 20, gender). Female managers were suggested to have more awareness over stress levels, remain more positive and were rated higher by their team compared to male counterparts (see Table 20, performance). Conversely, male managers were rated higher in transactional leadership roles such as line manager (see Table 20, performance). Power in the text was confusing with an assertion of the capabilities of public sector managers but lacked a definition of public sector managers, comparison of findings against other domains and why the outcomes were essential to the advancement of literature (see Table 20, power).

Table 20

Final Codification and Summary: Article 008

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
The results throw up some stereotypical views of gender difference with women managers recognized for a nurturing role. Women managers also have a more positive view of their own ability to recognize stress, make people feel important and help others to deliver.	Reinforces gender stereotypes	Gender
Team members consistently rate women managers more highly than male managers on 86 percent of behaviors (36 out of 42). They rate women as more successful than men at keeping promises; consulting others; developing staff; and clarifying direction.	Reinforces gender stereotypes	Performance

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
Line managers tend to rate the leadership skills of male managers who work for them more highly than they do female managers. They rate men more highly than women on 70 percent (29 out of 42) leadership behaviors, but the differences in ratings are small.	Reinforces gender stereotypes	Performance
The work foundation's analysis of data from across the UK public sector shows clear agreement on what public sector leaders do best and where they could improve their leadership performance. Public sector leaders are most successful when it comes to taking responsibility for their own and their team's actions; not taking credit for other people's successes; and giving praise where it is due.	Assertion of performance without definition	Power
Team members rate managers highly for an ability to develop relationships inside and outside the organization and to operate using trust rather than suspicion. Their line managers give them credit for an ability to set a good example by practising what they preach and for raising issues upwards with courage and conviction. However, public sector managers are seen to be less good at providing an inspirational view of the future and delegating effectively.	Assertion of performance without definition	Power

^aLump indicates the text analyzed

Article 009 was discarded due to lack of fit as a commentary on discrimination program guidelines within the United Kingdom. Article 010 examined the narrative of men as leaders in gender stereotypical research conducted by a non-profit entity dedicated to women. Article 010 demonstrated how power, performance and gender could be intertwined to make a discussion of one without the other(s) difficult. The text exhibited power, performance and gender when it, specifically and only, addressed female gender stereotypes as problematic and without discussion of the negative impact of male gender stereotypes (see Table 21, gender). Additionally, the text exercised power through the use of linguistic strategies that employed strongly charged words and metaphors such as “double-binds,” “no-win dilemmas,” and “men-as-default-leaders” (see Table 21, performance). Power continued to be exercised as the text communicated findings but failed to provide evidence and positioned the text as expert power (see Table

21, power). Next, the commentary stated “findings strongly suggest,” forcing the reader to assess personal agreement as the text did not provide proof or criteria for the findings (see Table 21, power). Gender was discussed from the female perspective and subject to gender stereotypes that negatively impact female performance and power within the confines of work (see Table 21, gender). Female performance was measured against western countries, specifically, Europe and America, that suggested westernization as the role model for planet Earth and local cultures of countries that did not align to the west were antiquated, ergo, wrong (see Table 21, performance). Finally, in the realm of power, the text failed to note gender stereotypes were generated and applied to both sexes.

Table 21

Final Codification and Summary: Article 010

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
This report, the third in Catalyst's in-depth series examining the pervasive and damaging effects of gender stereotyping in the workplace, focuses on the consequences of gender bias and three specific “double-bind dilemmas” frequently experienced by women business leaders.	Use of metaphors and stereotypes support ideologies of gender inequality	Gender
Women leaders are perceived as “never just right.” If women business leaders act consistent with gender stereotypes, they are considered too soft.	Supports ideologies of male-as-leader	Gender
Catalyst census shows that, even though women make up over 50 percent of the management, professional, and related occupations in the USA, only 15.6 percent of Fortune 500 corporate officers and 14.6 percent of Fortune 500 board directors are women.	Assertion of imbalance without discussion of appropriate balance	Performance
Although multiple research studies show that men and women exhibit similar leadership styles, Catalyst's prior research indicates that men do not face the persistent gender stereotyping that frequently place women business leaders in “double-bind, `no-win' dilemmas.”	Historical reliance that supports gender stereotypes	Performance

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
Catalyst findings strongly suggest that gender stereotypes lead organizations to routinely underestimate and underutilize women's leadership talent.	Supports ideology of female disadvantage	Power
According to the study, which interviewed senior business executives from the USA and Europe, men are still viewed as “default leaders” and women as “atypical leaders,” with the perception that they violate accepted norms of leadership, no matter what the leadership behavior. Thus, the studies say, the masculine leadership norm creates three connected, but distinct, “double-bind dilemmas” facing women leaders today.	Use of metaphors and stereotypes support ideologies of gender inequality	Power

^a Lump indicates the text analyzed

Article 011 argued women are not the only group that faces discrimination to attain senior positions and that other groups in the study faced more significant obstacles compared to women. Gender was presented as normative, binary sex from the female perspective and used the “glass-cliff” metaphor as having impacted female career advancement (see Table 22, gender). Gender as male was presented in relation to normative, binary maleness with the standard ideal of heterosexual, white male and that performance was negatively impacted for all individuals who did not fit the ideal (see Table 22, power). Power was presented through multiple instances of text quotations inserted by and from the entity having conducted the study, which was presented as an authority on diversity initiatives and issues (see Table 22, power; Table 22, performance).

Table 22

Final Codification and Summary: Article 011

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
“The `glass cliff' is not specific to women but also affects those who do not meet the standard idea of a heterosexual, white male workforce.”	Use of metaphors and stereotypes support ideologies of gender inequality	Gender

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
But a new report from the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) shows women are not the only ones to find themselves up against this invisible barrier.	Supports normative, binary biological sex-based gender ideology	Gender
“To attract and retain talent, employers need to be aware the impact negative experiences can have on people's performance and take appropriate action to address them. There is growing evidence that a positive approach to diversity can bring real business benefits – these important messages together with guidance about how to make progress need to be communicated to employers and more work needs to be done to find practical interventions that fully engage workforce diversity.”	Places onus of experiences of individual differences on organizations	Performance
The CIPD research respondents who have been affected by the “glass cliff” identify three core issues for the attention of employers	Use of metaphors to support ideologies of gender inequality	Performance
“The ‘glass cliff’ is not specific to women but also affects those who do not meet the standard idea of a heterosexual, white male workforce.”	Discriminates against heterosexual, white males	Power
“We cannot and should not depend on legislation as the only lever for making progress. Research shows that leading edge employers on diversity don't just seek to comply with the law but tailor good employment and working practices to support business goals.”	Legislative mandates reinforcing gender-disparity ideologies	Power

^a Lump indicates the text analyzed

Article 012 was discarded from analysis as a listing of the best small and mid-size companies to work in America gathered from Great Place to Work Institute, LLC. Text did not focus on performance, gender, or power and was removed from the current project. Moving to Article 013, the text examined board effectiveness and gender diversity in Nigerian banks. Expert power was prevalent throughout the text as a quantitative study that relied heavily on statistical findings (see Table 23, power). Power was produced and maintained through government intervention as the text provided details of many countries that legally mandated a percentage of women be included on company board of directors (see Table 23, power). Performance was brought forth as the

study argued that mandated legislative quotas diluted the credibility of women that had been attained through female achievement (see Table 23, performance). Gender was discussed from multiple perspectives, including biological sex, gender identity and congruence with the inclusion of both sexes and identity spectrum. Finally, the combination of power, performance and gender was seen in assertions that theorists (see Table 23, performance) argue-counterargue for gender diversity programs because of women's ability to be tougher and without bias compared to their male counterparts (see Table 23, gender; Table 23, performance).

Table 23

Final Codification and Summary: Article 013

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
Resource dependency and agency theorists are also advocating for gender diversity because of the ability of female board members to provide dynamism to boardroom politics, tougher and unbiased monitoring of agents than men, especially, in the areas of board committees, attending meetings and questioning the statuesque (Aslam et al., 2019; Adams and Funk, 2012).	Reinforces normative, binary gender ideology	Gender
Female directors are perceived as a strategic resource to the organization because, they possess higher average skills relative to men, having successfully broken the glass ceiling effect (Gul et al., 2011). Female board members also possess technical intelligence, social intelligence and leadership skills needed for norm changes (Ellickson, 2001). Srinidhi et al. (2020) identified board norms (board processes) and improved governance (board outputs) as the two market-for-norms frameworks to board effectiveness of female board members, even when they do not possess the majority of the symbolic power.	Use of metaphors and stereotypes support ideologies of gender inequality	Gender
Agency theorists, therefore, argue for a governance structure that promotes effective monitoring of agents against their self-serving behaviour to reduce agency cost. Some of the governance structures recommended by the agency theorists are in the constitution of a board dominated by non-executive directors (traditionally used to measure board independence from agents) and gender diversity. The presence of nonexecutive directors and female representation on the corporate board is deemed to promote board independence and innovativeness	Relationship is made between motivation theories and biological sex	Performance

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
Their appointment into corporate boards is, therefore, because of previous achievements, which translates to appointing extremely competent board members. On the strength of this evidence, we do not recommend mandatory female representation in corporate boards or quota-based initiatives that will dilute their achievement so far...	Dismantles gender parity ideology and reinforces value of individual achievement	Performance
Countries have also enacted laws that encourage female representation on corporate boards. Norway represents the first effort in this direction, as the country enacted a law in 2003 that stipulated a 40% threshold of female directors in all boards of public companies in Norway by 2008. Spain enacted similar legislation in 2007	Legislative mandates reinforcing gender-disparity ideologies	Power
Firstly, the p-value of the first-order autocorrelation is significant, implying the rejection of the null hypothesis of non-autocorrelation for the AR(1) test. Secondly, the p-value of the second-order autocorrelation is not significant, which implies the absence or non-rejection of the null hypothesis of non-autocorrelation for the AR(2) test. The third is the non-significance of Hansen/Sargan test statistics, implying the non-rejection of the null hypothesis...	Expert power through scientific language	Power

^a Lump indicates the text analyzed

Article 014 presented an argument to decouple gender and sex as a continuation of data collection spanning 50 years. Exerting expert power, the research team touted themselves as having studied gender in management since the topic began an investigation in earnest during the 1970s; however, a shift from power to gender was seen in the insertion the research began as women entered the workforce en masse. The text explained the original data collection was to understand why few women moved to management positions, but the more recent emphasis moved literature away from female-only gender stereotypes. The text advanced literature by distancing ideologies of men as transactional and women as transformational leaders and accessed the possibility of moving concepts of a good manager to one of androgyny (see Table 24, gender). Gender was used as normative, binary representations through the discussion of the number of women in “top management” and the use of normative male names of “Steve” and “Dave” as a passive-aggressive reference to the number of women in Fortune 500 CEO

roles (see Table 24, gender). The text assumed knowledge of the number of Fortune 500 CEO roles total 500 and failed to note the acceptable number for balanced hiring (see Table 24, gender). Although the text aimed to move away from sex-oriented gender ideology, the ideology was often reinforced through examples of the performance of male and female stereotypes in management and cultural norms (see Table 24, power; Table 24, performance). After the historical background of the five decades of data collection and inclusion of the new study were framed, the text moved toward a more balanced discussion of gender as masculine or feminine qualities and distant from normative, binary male and female sex orientation. Through the continuation of expert power of fifty years of research, the article concluded with a discussion and positive evidence towards a move from stereotypical perceptions of the goodness of fit of male and female leaders to more towards androgyny (see Table 24, gender; Table 24, performance; Table, power).

Table 24

Final Codification and Summary: Article 014

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
The proportion of women at top management levels remains very small (Powell, 2020); there are more FTSE 100 CEOs named “Steve” than there are female CEOs, and there is a tie with the number of FTSE 100 CEOs named “Dave” (Ball, 2019).	Negative linguistic strategy and textual silence	Gender
Bem (1974) introduced the concept of androgyny to the psychology of gender literature as an alternative to a narrowly masculine or narrowly feminine behavioral profile; in contrast to the prevailing gender-based standard, androgynous individuals would be able to freely display both masculine and feminine traits.	Supports androgyny ideology and dismantles normative, binary gender ideologies	Gender
Managerial stereotypes are important to examine because they may affect decisions made about individuals with respect to leader or manager roles and women’s decisions regarding whether to apply or prepare themselves for such roles (Powell, 2012, 2020)	Dismantles gender stereotyping	Performance

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
Stability and change in the linkage between gender and managerial stereotypes may provide a partial explanation for why women remain disadvantaged in attaining and advancing within managerial ranks despite increases in their overall numbers.	Dismantles normative, binary gender ideologies	Performance
According to role congruity theory (Eagly and Karau, 2002), the linkage between gender and managerial stereotypes places female managers at a disadvantage by forcing them to deal with the perceived incongruity between the managerial role and their gender role. If women display predominantly feminine characteristics, they fail to meet the requirements of the managerial role. However, if women display predominantly masculine characteristics, they fail to meet the requirements of the female gender role. In contrast, because the managerial role and the male gender role are perceived as congruent, men's legitimacy as managers is not questioned.	Reinforces gender stereotypes	Power
For example, social-system-centered theories, which focus on gendered societal processes that influence the enactment of leadership (Cal_ás et al., 2014), suggest that patriarchal social systems promote an emphasis on masculinity in managerial stereotypes (Alvesson and Due Billing, 2009; Marshall, 1984).	Reinforces gender stereotypes	Power

Lump^a indicates the text analyzed

Article 015 stated an original contribution to the literature through an understanding of perceived barriers to female career progression. Gender was presented in generalities of normative, binary male and female sexes and gender was discussed exclusively as female throughout the text. The power of textual silence and assumption of knowledge was evidenced through the use of negative linguistic phrasing such as “33% of businesses across the globe have no women in senior leadership roles,” that required the reader to both recognize that 66% of businesses around the world (66 out of 100) have women in leadership roles and, by extension, decide if 66/100 is an acceptable amount (see Table 25, gender). Performance was presented through metaphors such as “glass-ceiling” and “getting in, getting on and getting out,” that suggested that women could not adequately perform as leaders regardless of effort, as well as an assertion that

young women unwittingly underestimated the difficulty involved in reaching the unspecified “top jobs” metaphor (see Table 25, gender; Table 25, performance). Power was shown through the study design, that presented female student participants with leading questions with a potential to steer responses such as “Despite being talented, female students fail to be recognized for several leadership positions and teams at the institute/college” and “female students are seldom given full credit for their successes by their team and peers” (see Table 25, power) In summary, the theme of the study suggested young, female students were unaware of the challenges that laid between them and their dreams but failed to question or consider young, male students may have, also, been unaware of the challenges of their path to success or the sacrifice and resilience needed to reach their dreams (see Table 25, performance; Table 25, power).

Table 25

Final Codification and Summary: Article 015

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
In the USA, for example, women represent less than 16% of board members or senior leadership positions in Fortune 500 companies (Mulligen-Ferry et al., 2014; Warner, 2014). Also, 33% of businesses across the globe have no women in senior leadership roles, and this number has not changed since 2011, with the capability and lack of preparedness being key challenges (Catalyst, 2017).	Negative linguistic strategy and textual silence	Gender
Across the three phases of their career, “Getting In, Getting on and Getting out” ... found a wide range of issues such as education, recruitment, career phases, succession planning, mentoring and career patterns impact the career progress of women.	Use of metaphor supports ideologies of gender inequality	Gender

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
Career development literature shows that psychological and attitudinal attributes are important for one's career growth irrespective of gender	Dismantles bifurcated gender ideologies	Performance
Women outnumber men on college campuses, yet less than 20% of them make it to the top management levels (Warner, 2014).	Negative linguistic strategy assuming shared knowledge/agreement of acceptable number	Performance
Acceptance is where the respondent believes that women do not have a preference for career growth but instead prefer family-based goals. An example item being "Women prefer a balanced life more than gaining highly paid careers."	Negative linguistic strategy steering consumers opinion of goodness of career or family	Power
Mentoring programs implemented in organizations play a vital role in empowering women, so they are not discouraged by perceptions of career barriers and ensure they do not slip through the pipeline. When organizations proactively inculcate and practice empowerment programs, women employees tend to experience upward mobility (Anderson, 2005) while helping them overcome to a certain extent the barriers still persistent for women, including structural, lifestyle, institutional-mindsets and individual mindsets	Negative linguistic strategy and textual silence suggesting men do not need or benefit from mentoring programs	Power

^aLump indicates the text analyzed

Article 016 presented itself as a conceptual paper. The paper positioned females as unable to reach an undefined "senior" position in hospital facilities (see Table 26, gender; Table 26, performance). While women were asserted to be employed in greater numbers than men, gender was discussed as a disparity towards women who, regardless of promotion, were pigeonholed into roles that were deemed inferior: human resources, marketing, risk, legal and nursing (see Table 26, power). Power was introduced through the insertion of leading questions, for example: "how can we explain the gap between desired leadership qualities and the shunning of talented women?" The text became unapproachable when the dimension of race was randomly introduced to gender

stereotype of an “angry Black woman” (see Table 26, gender). The text presented suggestions of creating co-leadership between nursing staff (women) and strategic leaders (men) who would act as champions and mentors for the nurses and suggested implicit bias was solely held by and the onus of male peers (see Table 26, performance).

Article 017 explored the phenomenon of gender in workplace promotion. Gender was introduced as normative, binary male-female sex and focused primarily on the ability of women to attain promotion compared to their male counterparts (see Table 27, performance). The participants were sourced from and living within Pakistan, and gender stereotyping was asserted as a primary cause for the lack of female promotion (see Table 27, gender). Power was demonstrated through religious and cultural norms that maintained an attitude on the part of Pakistan’s society toward patriarchy, that both sexes embraced (see Table 27, power). Conversely, efforts by the Pakistan government to increase the number of women working demonstrated power through legislative intervention (see Table 27, power). Performance was tied to gender stereotyping as the study found that women were promoted less often and the text called for organizational leaders to develop processes that supported government intervention strategies (see Table 27, performance; Table 27, power). Power and performance were combined as more research was needed on non-western countries to understand work experiences outside western countries (see Table 27, performance). Finally, although gender was discussed from a normative, binary perspective, the text positively noted that both sexes faced societal effects due to Pakistan’s rigid sex-role ideology and socioeconomic barriers and discrimination (see Table 27, gender).

Table 26*Final Codification and Summary: Article 016*

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
The intersection of race and gender also distinctly sets this apart because for other women of color and especially Black women, who face overlapping discrimination unique to them (Crenshaw, 1991) stereotype threat might play a bigger role, i.e. the stereotype of an “angry Black woman.”	Use of metaphors and stereotypes support ideologies of gender inequality	Gender
Ultimately, women who seek top management positions must weed through culturally formed stereotypes and barriers with confusing twists and turns, dead ends and unusual paths (Eagly and Carli, 2007).	Stereotype and use of negative linguistic strategy	Gender
However, gender disparity is still prevalent in senior health-care positions even though women continue to play critical roles in strengthening the integration of health services. Women are significantly less likely to be promoted to senior health-care management, and in most cases, even after controlling for individual- and organizational level characteristics (LaPierre and Zimmerman, 2012).	Reinforces gender disparity ideologies without examination of cause	Performance
Either way, women may be judged more harshly than their peers who are men with unconscious biases that can significantly skew judgment in hiring and promotion decisions.	Textual silence: unconscious biases are by both sexes	Performance
How can we bridge the gap between mounting evidence of women’s leadership effectiveness, on the one hand, and the shortfall of women’s representation in health-care senior management on the other?	Exerts power through linguistic strategy to steer the consumer	Power
When promoted, women more often than men are pigeonholed into support functions such as HR, marketing, risk, legal and nursing, that, while important, are not perceived as high-profile, strategic service lines.	Use of metaphors support ideologies of gender inequality	Power

^aLump indicates the text analyzed

Table 27*Final Codification and Summary: Article 017*

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
Women are generally perceived as caretakers (i.e. caring, communicative and encouraging) and men as leaders (bold, determined and self-reliant). These stereotypes can discourage women from going for promotion or for them to be excluded from training or from taking on leadership roles.	Use of stereotypes support ideologies of gender inequality	Gender
In other words, instead of seeing a lack of human capital as a personal failure and blaming women, we highlight the fact that both men and women encountered socioeconomic barriers, institutional barriers and individual discrimination.	Dismantles bifurcated gender ideologies	Gender
Tlaiss and Mendelson (2014) and Orser and Leck (2010) specifically highlighted the need to include data from non-western countries to provide a more accurate understanding of the factors affecting working women in non-western countries.	Dismantles ideologies of westernization as a sign of success	Performance
In this study, we found that men were more likely to be promoted than women in Pakistan, despite having similar levels of work experience. This speaks to the suggestion that Pakistani women faced gender discrimination, which affect their opportunity for promotional advancement in their career. Given the commitment of the Pakistan government for a more gender-equitable workforce in Pakistan, researchers, practitioners and organizational leaders are call upon to develop better human resource processes and policies.	Legislative mandates reinforcing gender-disparity ideologies	Performance
It is a patriarchal, Muslim society with rigid gender segregations (Ali et al., 2011; Countrymeter, 2020). Mobility is highly restricted, and Pakistani women are often not allowed to go outside their house without the chaperone of a male family member (Adeel and Yeh, 2018; Adeel et al., 2017).	Negative linguistic strategy that dismantles Pakistan culture	Power

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
The Government of Sindh (district in Pakistan) is in the process of passing relevant provincial legislations that will allow home-based workers (i.e. made up of mostly women) access to minimal wage, social security and other benefits (Patchamuthu and Grown, 2017). Similarly, the Government of Pakistan (2014) has put forth a vision for 2025 that will see women participation in the workforce increase to 45%.	Legislative mandates reinforcing gender-disparity ideologies	Power

^a Lump indicates the text analyzed

Article 018 examined working age adults with nearly equal male/female participants by biological sex. Although the study sought to understand why fewer women embarked on entrepreneurship pursuits compared to men, the study approached the subject of gender through a balanced discussion of biological sex, gender, gender identity and role congruence (see Table 28, gender; Table 28, performance; Table 28; power). Gender and performance were intertwined and explored the participants' perception of a successful entrepreneur by the participants' sex, gender identity and gender congruence (see Table 28, performance). Additionally, gender and performance were discussed in unison through gender-role theory, that suggested activities, including work related, were socialized based on biological sex to children making occupation gender oriented (see Table 28, gender). The text and outcome of the research stated entrepreneurship was perceived as a hyper-masculine occupation tying the likelihood of an individual entering into an entrepreneurial career dependent upon how the individual viewed themselves (agentic/masculine or communal/feminine) and not related to biological sex (see Table 28, gender). The text exerted power through the inclusion and integration of theoretical frameworks that supported the study's use of quantitative

analysis rested on shared understanding and expert power in the translation and agreement of the finding's validity (see Table 28, power).

Table 28

Final Codification and Summary: Article 018

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
The study follows gender-role theory in claiming that men and women are socialised to different gender roles. Specifically, already at an early stage of development, boys and girls learn gender-appropriate activities and behaviours (Eagly, 1987).	Supports gender-role theory and sex socialization ideologies	Gender
The most important findings include the hyper-masculine perception of a successful entrepreneur. Furthermore, we found that biological sex had no direct effect on the willingness to start a company. Rather, the congruence between individuals' gender-role orientation and their gendered perception of a successful entrepreneur was decisive in whether an individual develops entrepreneurial intentions. Secondly, the study corroborates the gendered innovations project view that incorporating gender considerations enhances the understanding of differences between men and women in entrepreneurship. The study shows that the explanation of the differences should be sought in prevalent gender norms and stereotypes rather than biological sex itself.	Dismantles gender ideology as hyper-feminine or hyper-masculine	Gender
By contrast, the characteristics of entrepreneurship are incongruent with the socially shared notion of femininity... Consequently, one reason women may have lower entrepreneurial intentions is the prevalent stereotypes indicating that entrepreneurship is an occupation inappropriate for them because either they are incapable of becoming an entrepreneur or different gender roles are prescribed for them.	Supports gender-role theory and sex socialization ideologies	Performance
Specifically, our results convey how biological sex and gender interact in entrepreneurship: although women expressed lower entrepreneurial intentions than men did, biological sex was not an explanation of the difference. The model shows that entrepreneurial intentions are best explained by psychological resources that increase with perceived congruence between an individual and the gendered notion of a successful entrepreneur. Or worse, focussing on biological sex might obscure the role of an individual's gender identification and gender stereotypes that indicate, which occupations are appropriate for whom and who can succeed in the field.	Dismantles gender ideology as hyper-feminine or hyper-masculine	Performance

Lump ^a	Analysis	Final code/Category
Congruence theory (Eagly and Karau, 2002) further explains that the preferences are likely to be distorted because of the biases against adopting masculine roles by individuals with predominantly feminine characteristics (and vice versa).	Historical reliance on earlier research theory to support current study	Power
Bem (1974) herself observed that she had identified traits as masculine or feminine based on the frequency with which they were considered typical of men or women at the time the questionnaire was developed.	Historical reliance on earlier research theory to support current study	Power

^aLump indicates the text analyzed

Mesolevel

Following microlevel analysis, the text found in *Women in Management Review* (WIMR), Volume 22, Issue 8, 2007 and *Gender in Management* (GIM), Volume 36, Issue 6, 2021 were compared in juxtaposition to one another. WIMR contained a total of 12 bodies of text. Of the bodies of work, five were scholarly-peer reviewed research articles with clear authorship, and seven were commentaries of unknown authorship. Although the purpose of the study was to investigate messages regarding gender, performance, and power found in gender leadership research text and the focus of the mesolevel comparison of the two issues was primarily on the 11 peer-reviewed scholarly research articles, the commentaries warranted attention due to the accessibility of the text to the layperson with the ability to shape perceptions of the consumer. The commentaries were labeled as Article 006 through Article 012. Article 006, Article 009 and Article 012 were discarded due to lack of fit. Article 006 was identified as a book review on race and ethnic discrimination; Article 009 was a commentary on diversity program guidelines released in the United Kingdom; and Article 012 listed a ranking of the top small to mid-size companies as announced by the Society of Human Resource Management. The author(s) of Article 007, Article 008, Article 010 and Article 011 were unidentifiable.

Each of the commentaries was female focused and referred to gender from a normative, binary perspective. Although each commentary discussed aspects of gender, power and performance, power was the most prevalent factor. For example, while the commentaries were accessible to laypersons, the text approached each article through expert power to share content deemed important without the support of data or counter argument (see Table 19, gender; Table 20, gender; Table 21, gender; Table 22, gender). Finally, performance was discussed through inequality, metaphors or disadvantage (see Table 19, performance; Table 20, performance; Table 21, performance; Table 22, performance).

A mesolevel analysis of the scholarly, peer-reviewed research articles in the WIMR issue was labeled Article 001 through Article 005. Analysis of Text Authorship data (see Table 29) revealed three of five WIMR research articles were written by two or more authors. The sex of the first author was female in all articles except for one, that a male solely authored on coaching. In totality, there were ten authors (eight female and two male), and nine of the ten possessed Ph.D.'s, with the education of the tenth being unidentifiable. Analysis of the Text Structure (see Table 30) data revealed the research methodology applied in four of the five studies was quantitative, with the fifth using a qualitative strategy. There were no consistent theoretical frameworks or variables used across the studies. The keyword "women" was found in three articles, as was the keyword "gender," with one or both being found in each study; however, a direct reference to men/males' sex or gender was not found. Three of the five studies focused on a female issue within a specific country, and the country's name was found within the keywords, while the remaining studies did not note country origin as a factor in the study.

The six scholarly, peer-reviewed research articles analyzed in the GIM issue were labeled Article 013 through Article 018. Analysis of Text Authorship data (see Table 29) revealed all six articles were coauthored by three or more authors. The sex of the first author was female in four articles and male in the remaining two; however, only Article 017 was authored by all males and Article 018 by all females, meaning four of the six texts were authored by a combination of males and females. In totality, there were 20 authors (11 female and nine male), and all possessed Ph.D.'s except for one medical doctor. Analysis of the Text Structure (see Table 30) data revealed the research methodology applied in five of the six studies was quantitative, with the sixth presented as a conceptual paper. There were no consistent theoretical frameworks or variables identified across the studies. The keyword "women" or "female" was found in three articles, while the keyword "gender" was presented in five articles, with the exception being Article 015. However, a direct reference to men/males was not found. Three of the six studies focused on a females' failure to advance in the workplace within a specific country, and the country's name was found within the keywords. In contrast, the remaining studies did not note the location as a factor in the study.

Analysis decisions were made regarding codification as themes of gender, performance and power emerged differently. For example, specification of binary, normative perspectives of male or female was applied through the textual reference of terms such as man, woman, male, female, he, she and so forth occurred all research articles. Gender as non-binary, fluid concepts of masculinity and femininity were present, although infrequently. Article 004 (see Table 17, performance) and Article 014 (see

Table 24, gender) possessed the text that approached the relationship of gender as non-binary, maleness and femaleness. The juxtaposition of male and female relationships was broached in Article 004 (see Table, 17, performance), Article 005 (see Table 18, gender) and only once in Article 014 (see Table 24, gender). Performance and power emerged differently according to the text's focus. For example, performance was discussed frequently through stereotyping (see Table 16, gender; Table 19, gender; Table 20, gender; Table 21, power; Table 24, performance) or need for female advancement (see Table 014, power; Table 21, power; Table 22, gender; Table 25, gender; Table 26, gender). Analytical memos were used in the codification process and assisted the analyst in making decisions or resolving questions regarding the text. For example, Article 001 argued an insufficient number of women were advancing in employment at Turkish banks and relied on the hiring practices of foreign banks as the standard to be reached. Through reflection, building blocks, triangulation and additional research, the analyst identified each of the foreign banks were located within Europe or America and revealed a recurring theme in Article 001, Article 003, Article 015, Article 016 and Article 018 to take on western ideologies of success.

Macrolevel

The final step in the study was to conduct analysis holistically at a macrolevel. Collectively and across issues, the gender identity of the authors is unknown; however, from a binary, bifurcated perspective of gender, there were more female/women authors compared to male/men authors; however, GIM saw a significant uptick in the number of male authors (see Table 29). Text authorship (see Table 29) and Text Structure (see Table

30) showed a relationship between the author's areas of interest and focus of study and that nearly all possessed a doctorate in philosophy.

Table 29

Text Authorship

Article	Author(s)	Sex	Education	Areas of interests
001	Culpan, O.	Female	Ph.D.	International Management, job satisfaction, human resources, banking, finance, banking finance
	Marzotto, T.	Female	Ph.D.	American government, interest groups women, public policy and social change, automobility and the environment, politics & stem cell research
	Demir, N.	Male	Ph.D.	Financing the rural and agricultural Sector in the EU, USA and Turkey, measuring risks in finance with emphasis on the banking system, stock market volatility, efficiency in banking, efficiency of agriculture with environmental factors
002	Pio, E.	Female	Ph.D.	Intersections of management and work, ethnicity, and spirituality and religion
003	Salami, S.O.	Male	Ph.D.	Counseling
004	Fowler, J.L	Female	Ph.D.	Mentoring relationships, learning and teaching processes, and counselling
	Gudmundsson, A.J.	Female	Ph.D.	Human capability development, and encouraging the nexus between research and business practice to stimulate and inform innovation
	O'Gorman, J.G.	Male	Ph.D.	Memory, learning, GSR, cognitive neuropsychology, executive function, neuropsychology assessment, autobiographical memory, psychophysiology
005	Klyver, K.	Female	Ph.D.	Entrepreneurship, social networks, culture, institutions
	Terejesen, S.	Female	Ph.D.	Strategic management, entrepreneurship, corporate governance, higher education, philanthropy
006	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
007	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
008	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
009	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
010	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
011	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
012	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown

Article	Author(s)	Sex	Education	Areas of interests
013	Adamus, M.	Female	Ph.D.	Reasoning, decision theory, rationality, economic psychology, gender differences, gender discrimination
	Čavojová, V.	Female	Ph.D.	Social cognition, cognitive psychology, decision processes
	Šrol, J.	Male	Ph.D.	Dual process theory, reasoning, decision making, intuition, individual differences, cognitive bias
014	Belasen, A.T.	Male	Ph.D.	Healthcare, leadership, Ecology & Evolutionary biology
	Belasen, A.M.	Female	M.D.	Medicine
	Belasen, A.R.	Female	Ph.D.	Thermal biology, amphibians, reptiles, physiological ecology, comparative physiology, thermoregulation
	Belasen, A.R.	Male	Ph.D.	Economics, finance, health economics
015	Biju, S.	Female	Ph.D.	Association rules, higher education, classification
	Shetty, K.	Female	Ph.D.	Marketing management, behavioral psychology, consumer psychology, branding, personality assessment, entrepreneurship
	Fitzsimmons, J.R.	Male	Ph.D.	Unknown
016	Okoyeuzu, C.	Female	Ph.D.	Financial management, capital structure, corporate finance
	Ujunwa, A.	Male	Ph.D.	Development economics, economic growth, finance, GDP, macroeconomics
	Ujunwa, A.I.	Female	Ph.D.	Banking, finance econometrics, development finance, finance
	Onah, E.O.	Male	Ph.D.	Comparative politics, elections and voting behavior, ethnicity, political conflict
017	Powell, G.N.,	Male	Ph.D.	Gender and leadership, glass ceiling, work and family, gender and entrepreneurship
	Butterfield, D.A.	Male	Ph.D.	Leadership, gender and leadership, promotion of women to top management positions, leadership and organization phenom in other cultures
	Jiang, X.	Male	Ph.D.	Leadership, empowerment, creativity, and conflict management
Article	Author(s)	Sex	Education	Areas of interests
018	Waqar, S.,	Female	Ph.D.	Counseling
	Hanif, R.,	Female	Ph.D.	Social psychology, testing measurements
	Loh, J.	Female	Ph.D.	Organizational behavior, resilience, optimism, positive motivators, gender issues

Note. Data capture of the author(s)' sex, education, and area of interest assisted in identifying the various discourse identities that may influence text selection and usage.

Table 30*Text Structure*

Article	Keywords	Theoretical framework	Methodology	Variables	Population
001	Banking, Turkey, career development, job mobility, women, human resource management	Human Resources Assessment Theory	Quantitative	Education, gender, bank type (state-owned, private or foreign)	Macro-analysis of existing data
002	Ethnic minorities, Migrant workers, New Zealand, women, entrepreneurialism	Imperial Imprimature Theory	Qualitative	N/A	45 Indian female migrant entrepreneurs
003	Gender, Nigeria, careers, women, social interaction	Gender-Dominated Occupation Theory	Quantitative	Family involvement, attitude towards religion, achievement motivation, socioeconomic status, work values (10): leadership, interesting experience, esteem, security, material profit, social service, independence, self-expression, intellectual & achievement	340 female students randomly selected
004	Gender, mentoring, mentors	Mentor-mentee Gender Theory	Quantitative	Personal and emotional guidance, learning facilitation, coaching, advocacy, career development facilitation, role modeling, strategies and systems advice, friendship	500 participants, 272 mentees, 228 mentors
005	Entrepreneurialism, social networks, gender, business formation	Social Network Theory	Quantitative	Venture stage, social networks, network node composition, & density.	134 females, 266 male entrepreneurs
006	None	None	Commentary	None	None
007	None	None	Commentary	None	None
008	None	None	Commentary	None	None
009	None	None	Commentary	None	None
010	None	None	Commentary	None	None
011	None	None	Commentary	None	None
012	None	None	Commentary	None	None
013	Entrepreneurial intentions, gender-role orientation, female entrepreneurship, gender-role theory, congruence theory, theory of planned behaviour	Gender-role Theory, Gender-Dominated Occupation Theory	Quantitative	Entrepreneurial intention, perceived masculinity/femininity of self, of entrepreneurs, subjective social norms, perceived behavioral control, entrepreneurial self-efficacy & risk aversion	552 working age adults, 49.5% female, 51.5% male

Article	Keywords	Theoretical framework	Methodology	Variables	Population
014	Health care, self-assessment, co-leadership, dyad and triad, executive clinical partnership, gender imbalance, health systems, leadership roles, strategies for women leaders	Gender Disparity Theory	Conceptual	N/A	N/A
015	Career progression, career pathways survey, glass ceiling, India, United Arab Emirates, female students	Career Development Theory	Quantitative	Denial, Acceptance, Resignation, Resilience	484 female Indian students located in the United Arab Emirates and India
016	Africa, gender, agency theory, bank performance board independence, gender diversity, System-GMM	Agency Theory Resource Dependency Theory	Quantitative	Earnings per share, Return on asset, Tobin's Q, Gender diversity, independent board size, Firm size, Firm age, GDP, Inflation rate, Exchange rate	Annual reports and statements of account from 36 deposit of money banks within Nigeria from 2006-2018
017	Gender, leadership, Gender stereotypes, androgyny, managerial stereotypes	Gender Schema Theory	Quantitative	Masculinity good-manager score, Femininity good-manager score, Respondent gender, Time of data collection, Population	Dataset collected across 50 years from US business school students
018	Gender, careers, organisational behaviour, Pakistan, human capital	Human Capital Theory	Quantitative	Work experience, Number of promotions, Gender	500 adult employees (164 females, 336 males) working in Pakistan service industry

Note. Data capture of keywords, theoretical framework, methodology, variables, and population will aid in identifying themes within and across studies.

Although articles were focused on women and management in WIMR or gender and leadership in GIM, there was continuity within or across text in that women remained the primary focus. For example, Article 001 (see Table 014) focused on Turkish women in banking and the need to modernize, Article 002 (see Table 015) discussed challenges Indian migrant females face as entrepreneurs and Article 003 (see Table 016) focused on Nigeria and the influence of family, culture, and religion impact on the career choices of women. Negative linguistic strategies were used in that all three articles advocated

women working outside the home and discounted the value of contributions made and necessary at a family and community level leaving the impression that worth is tied to money. GIM used gender frequently; however, women were positioned as the primary focus. For example, Article 013 (see Table 23, gender) discussed gender diversity from the female board member perspective, Article 014 (see Table 24, gender) discussed gender androgyny; however, stated there were more Fortune 500 CEOs named “Steve” than there are female CEOs and Article 016 (see Table 26, gender) suggested that women who desire to move to senior management roles must navigate twists and turns that men do not. Unfortunately, acknowledgment of male concerns, discrimination, or gender binding was rarely, if at all, discussed, and in no instance was male gender or male sex present itself in the keywords (see Table 30).

Power was demonstrated most frequently across all text through quantitative research design that required the consumer to trust the interpretation of findings or possess equal expert power to interpret findings (see Table, 30). Historical reliance to support current research was evident throughout the text (see Table 18, performance; Table 26, performance). Assumptions were made the reader understood the definition for Fortune 500 companies, the number of “top” roles available as 500. Also, metaphors such as “glass ceiling,” “glass cliff,” and “double-bind” were used and applied to women only issues (see Table 14, gender; Table 21, performance). What was most concerning was that none of the text addressed whether women or men wanted to work or attain an unspecified “top job.” Article 001 (see Table 14, performance) made the only reference found in the text that acknowledged self-selection as a factor for many women on a

career path that would not allow attainment of a senior banking position. The failure to discuss desires for career choices supported the man as machine mentality and reinforced that all humans, regardless of sex, should want to reach the highest level of the cultural hierarchy (Hurst et al., 2016), that supported, maintained and encouraged a hierarchical rather than egalitarian ideology.

Modernization or Westernization emerged as a theme across the text. Article 001, Article 003, Article 015, Article 016 and Article 018 were set in developing countries and supported western ideologies of success. However, studies that discussed minority status failed to question discrimination that men face. Indian men who could have been included in Article 002 may have experienced discrimination due to their accent or smell of curry (see Table 15, performance). Article 015 addressed only female concerns and attitudes towards career progression (see Table 25, performance) and implied males do not underestimate their ability to advance in careers or needed assistance in career navigation. While the macrolevel analysis may have appeared dim towards the advancement messaging of gender in research on gendered leadership, consideration should be made to the aggregation of data due to the focus of the publication changed from women focused to gender focused. While there is more work to be done, the findings of this study revealed progress towards a more inclusive, non-binary discussion of gender in leadership.

Summary

The goal of the proceeding pages was to examine discursive messages used in research text regarding gendered leadership and to explore the phenomenon of word

usage and language structure applied to the text found in *Women in Management Review* (WIMR), Volume 22, Issue 8, 2007 and *Gender in Management* (GIM), Volume 36, Issue 6, 2021. Emphasis was placed on answering the research question of ‘What discursive messages regarding gender, performance and power are found in gender leadership research text?’

The chapter began by reviewing the setting, demographics, data collection, data analysis, and evidence of trustworthiness before presenting the study results. A total of 18 articles were reviewed. WIMR contained 12 bodies of text and seven commentaries that were reviewed at a microlevel and briefly discussed at a macrolevel, and rationale for omission from the overarching findings was documented. The study reviewed 11 research studies and investigated text at the microlevel, mesolevel and macrolevel. Microlevel analysis revealed that gender, performance and power emerged with variation based on the research question applied in the individual studies. Mesolevel analysis found quantitative analysis was applied in nine of the 11 studies (see Table 30). The educational level attained by the authors was Ph.D. except for one M.D. and an author whose educational level could not be identified (see Table 29), and there was a relationship between areas of interest and topic of study (see Table 29; Table 30). Although the gender identity of the authors could not be documented, GIM found an increase in the number of male authors compared to WIMR and all studies were authored collaboratively.

Gender as non-binary, fluid concepts of masculinity and femininity were present, although infrequently. Aspects of gender, performance and power emerged differently

according to the text's focus (see Table 16, gender; Table 19, gender; Table 20, gender; Table 21, power; Table 24, performance). Power was demonstrated most frequently across text through quantitative research design, that required the consumer to trust the interpretation of findings or possess equal expert power to interpret findings (see Table, 30). Historical reliance to support current research was evident throughout both issues and within each article (see Table 18, performance; Table 26, performance). Assumptions were made the reader understood the definition for Fortune 500 companies, the number of "top" roles available as 500. Also, metaphors such as "glass ceiling," "glass cliff," and "double-bind" were used and applied to women only issues (see Table 14, gender; Table 21, performance). Modernization or Westernization emerged as a theme across the text. Article 001, Article 003, Article 015, Article 016 and Article 018 were set in developing countries and suggested the need to take on western ideologies of success. However, studies that discussed minority status failed to question discrimination that men face.

In summary, a great deal of work remains to be done to move language used in research on gendered leadership; however, I found evidence of a progression towards gender inclusivity with the increase of male authors and collaboration across sexes (see Table 29). Analysis at each level provided insight and value; still, it should be noted macrolevel analysis included data before the journal took steps toward discussions on gender rather than women in leadership. There were notable attempts to move towards gender balanced leadership through discussions of androgyny (see Table 24, gender). Also, five of the six GIM articles took actionable steps to bridge the gap from women only discussion to include gender or gender related theories (see Table 30). While

seemingly modest steps, the advancement made by Emerald Publications moved from WIMR to GIM has met with encouraging results. The following chapter will conclude the study with an interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study, recommendations towards a path forward and implications for positive social change.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

Text (words) has been argued as an actor or active participant in implicitly or explicitly shaping the reader's perception of the adequacy of female leadership ability or that of males as better leaders (Latu & Mast., 2016; Martin, 2015; Szymanska & Rubin, 2018). The purpose of the study was to examine discursive messages used in research text regarding gendered leadership and to explore the phenomenon of word usage and language structure applied to research text. The study employed the following research question:

RQ: What discursive messages regarding gender, performance, and power are found in gender leadership research text?

Through the application of qualitative CDA, I explored the discursive messages used in research text regarding gendered leadership or gender in leadership. Leveraging text available in a 2021 issue of a scholarly, peer-reviewed journal dedicated to gender in management and the final issue released 2007 when previously focused on the intersection of women and management, the text was analyzed for discursive themes with the potential to influence the perception of power, performance, and gender. I analyzed and discussed the messaging found in four of seven nonpeer-reviewed commentaries at a microlevel and mesolevel with the rationale for excluding the remaining three commentaries due to lack of fit. I reviewed 11 peer-reviewed research studies and investigated text at the microlevel, mesolevel, and macrolevel. Microlevel analysis revealed that gender, performance, and power emerged with variation based on the

research question applied in the individual studies. A mesolevel analysis found that quantitative analysis was applied in nine of the 11 studies (see Table 30). The educational level attained by the authors was a Ph.D., with the exception of one M.D. and an author whose educational level could not be identified (see Table 29), and there was a relationship between areas of interest and topic of study (see Table 29; Table 30). Although the gender identity of the authors could not be documented, the 2021 issue revealed an increase in the number of male authors compared to the 2007 issue and all studies were authored collaboratively.

Gender as nonbinary, fluid concepts of masculinity and femininity were present, although infrequently. Aspects of gender, performance, and power emerged differently according to the text's focus (see Table 16, gender; Table 19, gender; Table 20, gender; Table 21, power; Table 24, performance). Power was demonstrated most frequently across text through quantitative research design, that required the consumer to trust the interpretation of findings or possess equal expert power to interpret findings (see Table, 30). Historical reliance to support current research was evident throughout both issues and within each article (see Table 18, performance; Table 26, performance). Assumptions were made that the reader understood the definition for Fortune 500 companies and the number of "top" roles available as 500. Also, metaphors such as "glass ceiling," "glass cliff," and "double-bind" were used and applied to women only issues (see Table 14, gender; Table 21, performance). Modernization or Westernization emerged as a theme across the text. Article 001, Article 003, Article 015, Article 016, and Article 018 were set in developing countries and suggested the need to take on western ideologies of

success. However, studies that addressed minority status failed to question discrimination that men face.

In summary, a great deal of work remains to be done to move language used in research on gendered leadership; however, I found evidence of a progression towards gender inclusivity with the increase of male authors and collaboration across sexes (see Table 29). Analysis at each level provided insight and value; however, it should be noted that macrolevel analysis included data before the journal took steps toward discussions on gender rather than women in leadership. There were notable attempts to move towards gender balanced leadership through discussions of androgyny (see Table 24, gender). Also, five of the six GIM articles took actionable steps to bridge the gap from women only discussion to include gender or gender related theories (see Table 30). While seemingly modest steps, the advancement made by Emerald Publications since 2007 met with encouraging results.

Interpretation of Findings

Historically, the concept of leadership has been associated with men, and early research placed men at the center of leadership studies (Northouse, 2016; Spector, 2016). Gendered leadership research was said to have failed to move past the assumption that leadership was solely focused on the male leader and women should be added as research participants (Martin, 2015). The findings of this study demonstrated the opposite. The data revealed that gendered leadership research overwhelmingly placed women at the center of studies, that further supported Alcott (1997) and Cundiff et al.'s (2018) arguments that to assert the biological sex of women as a focal point to research,

leadership, or otherwise creates an unintended separateness or otherness from their male counterparts and further emphasizes differences. Women were the focal point in 10 of the 11 peer-reviewed articles, primarily from a position of disadvantage (see Table 30). Article 014 approached gendered leadership through androgyny. The data showed that over half of the research studies addressed a female issue within a developing country (see Table 30), and patriarchy was referenced in Article 001 (see Table 14, power), Article 014 (see Table 24, power), and Article 017 (see Table 27, power). However, none of the texts defined patriarchy or broached pressures on men, further extending the evidence of research focus on women's issues at the cost of men. The lack of inclusion of male needs supported earlier research. For example, McDowell (2015) noted that there is an expectation that a man will begin his career upon completing education, if not sooner, and provide the bulk of financial support for the family unit. Hurst et al. (2016) and Hurst et al. (2017, 2018a, 2018b) found that men's careers were linear and continual, with the occasional break for family holidays due to the expectation of financial support.

The data showed a bias held by both sexes against women leaders (see Table 19, gender), that built on Hurst et al.'s (Hurst et al., 2016; Hurst et al., 2017, 2018a, 2018b) research that showed that women make allowances in favor of men for leadership style and revealed an implicit expectation of female followers that their female leader would provide emotional support. Furthermore, the data found evidence to support Martin's (2015) meta-analysis of 163 leadership studies that found while concepts of leadership are becoming more androgynous, leaders are still perceived as possessing masculine traits. Each of these studies suggests that implicit expectations are placed on men and

women. In this study, I also found that implicit biases and gendered ideologies remain a theme across the text on gendered leadership.

Attempts to uncouple the concept of gender as female and leadership as male has been made by researchers such as Girdauskiene and Eyvazzade (2015), Martin (2015), and Motschenbacher (2016). This study showed some effort to uncouple the terms to be present in current literature. Article 014 (see Table 24, gender), published in 2021, discussed gender androgyny, however stated that there were more Fortune 500 CEOs named “Steve” than female CEOs. Cox (2019) asserted that feminism and feminist theory transferred the term gender to be synonymous with female, resulting in studies that considered gender and leadership to focus solely on women leaders. While the data could not point to the appropriation of gender as female to feminist theory, the data found Cox’s assertion of gendered leadership as female focus to be accurate. Article 001 (see Table 014) focused on Turkish women in banking and the need to modernize. Article 002 (see Table 015) discussed challenges Indian migrant females face as entrepreneurs. Article 003 (see Table 016) focused on Nigeria and the influence of family, culture, and religion on the career choices of women. Negative linguistic strategies were used in that all three articles advocated women working outside the home and discounted the value of contributions made and necessary at a family and community level. In essence, worth is tied to money. Article 013 (see Table 23, gender) discussed gender diversity from the female board member perspective. Acknowledgment of male concerns, discrimination, or gender binding was rarely, if at all, discussed, and in no instance was male gender or

male sex present in the keywords (see Table 30). Lack of attention to male concerns suggests attitude towards gender remains feminine.

The framework for the study was situated in CDA theory. CDA is a specific, cross discipline approach to discourse analysis primarily concerned with the innate nature of language's ability to change and, over time, take on new meaning through a focus on one or more social problems (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999). The eight points defined as CDA's theoretical underpinnings are as follows (Amousson & Allagbe, 2018):

Addresses Social Problem

CDA must address a problem or issue that is oriented to social problems such as sexism, racism, or social inequality (Amousson & Allagbe, 2018). The findings of this study indicated that sexism and social inequality were fostered, maintained, and encouraged in research on gendered leadership against men. Gender was represented along normative, binary male/female sexes rather than a construct of the social differences between women and men (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018b). In this study, I intended to examine how research in the field of gendered leadership has changed over time and what messages are presented in gendered leadership research. Modest advances have been made; however, the 2021 publication of text reflected focus of gendered leadership was women focused in all but one article (see Table 28).

Interdisciplinary or Multidisciplinary

CDA must approach a topic from an interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary perspective with a special focus on discourse and society (Amousson & Allagbe, 2018). The findings of the study demonstrated a multidisciplinary approach to the text, with a

special focus on gendered leadership discourse. The findings of the study via a triangulated approach found evidence of historical-reliance (see Table 21, performance), textual silence (see Table 16, gender), and linguistic strategies (see Table 12, gender) to demonstrate how power, performance, and gender were reproduced or resisted across the text.

Explicit Critical Approach, Position, or Stance

CDA is positioned as the primary foci and does not perform as a subdiscipline of discourse analysis; instead, CDA is an explicit critical approach, position, or stance to study talk or text (Amousson & Allagbe, 2018). To conduct CDA is to critically question the meaning of a word, phrase, or passage for possible underlying or alternative, hidden, or omitted information. The study's findings provide numerous examples of alternative, hidden, or omitted language with the ability to shape the opinion of the consumer on gender (see Table 16, gender), performance (see Table 23, performance), power (see Table 18, power), and leadership (see Table 17, performance).

Reproduction or Resistance of Power, Dominance, and Inequality

CDA focuses on relations of power, dominance and inequality and how each is reproduced or resisted by social group members (Amousson & Allagbe, 2018). In this study, I found that power, dominance, and inequality were reproduced by the topic of study, design of the study, and word selection of the research authors. Often power, gender, and performance became intertwined (see Table 16, performance). For example, the use of metaphors (see Table 14, gender) reproduced ideologies of gender inequality against women placing males as dominant; however, the exact text could be argued to

reproduce ideologies of gender inequality and gave power to men as the text relied on resisting positive advances toward equality to sustain the female agenda.

Underlying Ideologies That Shape Reproduction or Resistance

CDA seeks to understand the underlying ideologies that shape reproduction or resistance within a social group (Amousson & Allagbe, 2018). Throughout this study, gender role and gender stereotypes ideologies were presented to reproduce and resist ideologies that would move the field of gendered leadership from normative, binary perceptions of sexed based gender to one of true gender ideology (e.g., Table 14, gender; Table 15, gender; Table 16, gender).

Strategies of Manipulation, Manufacturing, and Legitimization

CDA directly points out strategies of manipulation, manufacturing, and legitimization of discursive power, dominance, and inequality through the examination of implicit, hidden, or omitted information to influence the consumer of text or speech (Amousson & Allagbe, 2018). I found quantitative analysis as the primary form of research across studies (see Table 30). Research studies possess a level of expert power in the use of study designs that use language and methods inaccessible to the layperson, making the consumer of the text dependent upon the ability and willingness of the author(s) to prove a clear and objective translation of the findings. Additionally, the data revealed instances of textual silence through omission or application of text that could reshape or legitimize new meaning. For example, phrasing such as “33% of businesses across the globe have no women in senior leadership roles” required the reader to both recognize that 66% of businesses around the world, or 66 out of every 100, have women

in leadership roles and, by extension, make a determination if 66/100 is an acceptable amount (see Table 25, gender).

Concern for Implicit, Hidden, or Omitted Information

CDA's concern for implicit, hidden, or omitted information positions research as critical or in opposition to those who abuse their power (Amousson & Allagbe, 2018). In this study, I found and laid out instances of implicit, hidden, or omitted meaning in each area examined (e.g., Table 25, power, Table 27, performance, Table 17, gender).

Seeks Solidarity or Unification of Groups

CDA seeks solidarity or unification of groups by providing alternative perspectives and possible solutions to address and resolve the social wrong through counter-ideologies (Amousson & Allagbe, 2018). CDA is unique to other forms of discourse analysis as the final step is a call to action. I found evidence of the continuing misalignment of gender as female prevails throughout the text on gendered leadership. As such, the data demands the path forward as the decoupling of biological sex and gender. The advances made in the 2021 issue of GIM analyzed found modest advances have been made.

Limitations of the Study

In essence, the study's scope was limited to normative, bifurcated aspects of gender, and consideration regarding race, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, and gender identity were delimited as factors within the study. Instead, I focused on how aspects of the generalized concepts of gender were used in research and ways that squarely place maleness or femaleness as a factor in leadership within leadership.

Originally, limitations to the study included risks such as the small number of researchers who publish within the field of gendered leadership and concerns the text would be primarily authored by feminist-females writing on women's workplace issues. The data revealed that the number of researchers is increasing, and more recent research has been authored by nearly equal numbers of female and male authors.

From a study design perspective, the research was limited to binary concepts of gender. Therefore, the study excluded other factors that could have been considered, such as race, gender identity, or gender reassignment, that may have added to the research's discourse identities and voices (see Gee, 2014a, 2014b, 2017). Data collection and analysis revealed some information about the authors, such as education and areas of interest. The biological sex of each author was documented; however, information about gender identity was not examined. In consideration of this study's assertion of the need to decouple biological sex from concepts of gender, a limitation to the study was that it did not allow exploration of information that emerged beyond the data points outlined in the study design or allow for discussion of the influence of gender identity on gendered leadership research.

Recommendations

From a study design perspective, the research was limited to binary concepts of gender as male and female (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018b). Therefore, I excluded other factors that could have been considered, such as race, gender identity, or gender reassignment, that may have added to the research's discourse identities and voices or inserted a level of unconscious bias (Gee, 2014a; Ravitch & Carl, 2016). Some

information was gleaned about the authors through data collection and analysis, such as education and areas of interest (Gee, 2017). The biological sex of each author was documented; however, information about gender identity was not examined. Gender identity (Szymanska & Rubin, 2018) is the personal and individualistic sense of one's gender and how it correlates to biological sex within a given context, situation, or community combined with the of perception of biological sex and how sex overlays with concepts of gender categories manifests in one's social identity (Lortie et al., 2017). This paper has discussed the relationship between the research topic and the author's interest however, additional research could be conducted to understand the influence of gender and social identities that manifest in published research. A limitation to the study was the relationship between text authors and country of origin, as six of the 11 peer-reviewed research articles referenced and addressed a female-focused issue within a specific country (see Table 30). Future research could be conducted to examine the influence of cultural components on gendered leadership studies and influences that assert western mentalities and ideologies are standards that should be adopted worldwide. Furthermore, there appears to be a trend toward collaborative research (see Table 29), and analysis on the development of the informal networks that result in collaborative studies is warranted.

Additionally, this paper has argued the need to decouple binary sex from concepts of gender. Therefore, I recommend additional research focus on the gender identity of gendered leadership researchers (Szymanska & Rubin, 2018). Finally, the execution of the study found the design and methodology to be trustworthy and could be replicated infinitely across research text (Fairclough, 2016; Wodak & Meyer, 2016). This study

compared two issues of a scholarly peer-review journal; therefore, I recommend analysis be conducted on additional text.

Implications

It has been said that research about leadership has been conducted by men, for men, and focuses on male attributes (Northouse, 2016). On the other hand, it has been asserted that gender research has been conducted by women, for women, and to identify women's issues (Morgenroth & Ryan 2018a). Through this project, I aimed to contribute to positive social change by assisting gendered leadership researchers to consider utilizing frameworks and models outside of female-oriented feminist theory. While the findings of the study did not indicate explicit use of feminist theory to support the studies presented, it did find that women were placed at the center of nearly all text which is a hallmark of feminist theory (Cox, 2019). The findings, however, should be sufficiently compelling to academia and researchers alike to apply theories or structure research studies that move beyond women-focused to reframe studies of male/female relations, expand conversations to encompass both sexes, and move gendered leadership towards a more unified approach.

The implications of this study toward positive social change have been demonstrated through the exposure of the subtle yet powerful messages that reinforce perceptions of gender inequality between men and women at work. This study takes steps toward positive social change by discussing how to focus on perceived inequalities based on biological sex, yet using the term gender, may be contributing to perceptions of inequality and the inability of female leadership within the research community with the

ability to impact change across all levels of society. Opportunity for positive social change is extended through discussion to create awareness of the power of the academic voice, written or spoken, on consumers that may unintentionally shape and influence beliefs about each sex.

Conclusion

Throughout this project, emphasis has been placed on the exploration of discursive messages found in gendered leadership research through the application of CDA. CDA (Fairclough, 2016) asserts the need to look past obvious meaning in written or spoken word to address a social wrong from the semiotic aspect and to identify obstacles to addressing that social wrong. However, CDA requires consideration of whether the social needs the social wrong and identify possible ways past the obstacles.

This study found that gendered leadership research continues to place women at the center of studies, and the needs of men are ignored (see Table 30). The study also found women and gender are used interchangeably to the exclusion of men. Therefore, the end of this study is to return to its opening paragraphs. Current media emphasis has been placed on the fluidity of gender (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018a), making it crucial the research field of gendered leadership uncouple the use of gender as female and include men equally into studies of language, leadership, and gender. Concepts of gender in the United States and other first-world countries have moved beyond bifurcated and binary representations of boy/girl and male/female. As both sexes presence continues to grow, workplaces demand less prescriptive expectations of men as leaders and women as

caregivers. So too, must the methods for studying gendered leadership become balanced (Subasic et al., 2018).

In conclusion, to continue to place women at the center of gender studies with emphasis on disparity is to hold women and men hostage to a sex-based ideology. As Kristeva (as cited by Alcoff, 1997, p. 418) said, “A woman cannot be; it is something that does not even belong in the order of being. It follows that a feminist practice can only be negative, at odds with what already exists so that we may say ‘that’s not it’ and ‘that’s still not it.’” So, too, should be said in the name of advocacy for all.

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Appendix A: IPSY 8755 Leadership and Leader Development: Welcome & Course

Readings

Note: Any APA format errors are derived from the source material

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Appendix B: Analytical Memo

The memo below was taken from an entry written May 27, 2020, discussing the decision to abandon the original article selected for the practice exercise

DATE: May 27, 2020

KEY THEMES OR WORDS: Gender

ID: 000

MEMO

I have decided that I will use an article for creating examples in Chapter 3 for the process that I will use for data for analysis. I have selected a random article from the leadership class I took as a part of my coursework. I discarded the original article that I analyzed months ago because it was overly simplified, and it was disappointing as an article on leadership. The article randomly selected this time is also a female researcher.

The process I have used thus far:

1. Saved the original PDF
2. Copied PDF and pasted to Word
3. Snipped tables and placed them in the corresponding sections where there was a logical break near the corresponding point.
4. The original article was two columns, and I elected to use a single column to make it easier to code.
5. The font was changed to 12 point Calibri because it is easier to read
6. Space was added temporarily between paragraphs and will be removed once the article is formatted for coding
7. I added a citation to the precoding template to capture the publication year, which is essential for historical reliance

I intentionally avoided reviewing the article, so I did not approach it with a preconceived notion. As I am formatting the article, I realize it is an article and not a formal study. While I am disappointed in this, I feel I must continue with the article so that I am not cherry-picking. Also, I may encounter opinion pieces when I conduct the formal study.

Appendix C: Instrumentation Validation

Article

Thorn, I. M. (2012). Leadership in international organizations: Global leadership competencies. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, 15(3), 158–163.

Abstract

This article briefly describes research identifying emerging findings on the current and future qualities and attributes of leaders of international organizations. The author provides a partial review of some of the preliminary findings of the research and will describe the ways in which the international leaders' development was influenced, the qualities they consider to be most important for success for their organization today, and the leadership attributes needed to meet the challenges of the future. The author will compare the research findings with the management development competencies at the International Monetary Fund (IMF), identify the "leadership development gaps" between the current and future qualities of leaders, and recommend human resource programs to close those "leadership development gaps."

Summary

Power relates to the language's ability to steer the opinion of the consumer of the text. The power of research language to influence the perception, expectation, and continuation of the participant in the discourses begins at the onset of interaction with the abstract. The content within the abstract is crafted at the leisure of the author with the aim to pique the interest of the reader to continue in the discourse. The relationship of power exchange begins with the consumer of the text's desire to learn from the research actor,

that serves as authority and subject matter experts. The consumer is willing to accept the text presented as truth, and therein lies the power of text as an active actor in discourse.

In the context of the pilot study, once entering the text's body, the article immediately applies textual silences and linguistic strategy by introducing the definition of desirable leadership as the transformational model of leadership. To the unaware consumer of text, no alternative or comparison is offered or made that other styles of leadership are available or have a place as effective displaying and assumption of knowledge or shared meaning. Textual silence and linguist strategy are combined with historical reliance on Lines 33 through 41:

“According to a global survey of human resource executives by the Human Resource Institute (1997), leadership was considered to be the most important issue for managing people in organizations today by executives from the United States and Asia. Leadership was ranked fourth by European respondents. Executives believe that developing leaders is the most important human resource goal for achieving global success. The competencies and qualities that are cited as important include honesty, integrity, teamwork, communication, and risk-taking. These competencies and qualities are also highlighted in Dr. Rosen's (Rosen, 2000) global leadership research based on interviews of business leaders from 30 different countries to identify the universal competencies and practices of global leaders.”

Until this point, leadership has been textually positioned and tied to a transformational model. The text employs textual silence and historical reliance in that

research cited from 1997, a full 15 years prior, found leadership as critical to companies' success. By this point, the consumer of text has been primed to interject, accept, and assume transformational leadership as the desirable leadership style, thereby overlaying and elevating transformational leadership as vital to organizational success. Instances of the desirability of transformational leadership can be found through the use of the metaphor "global citizen" (L30) and to societal goodness-of-fit through phrases such as "desirable and planned changes" (L13); "motivation and morality" (L16,) and "inspiring followers" (L18) among others. Perhaps most profoundly, the text states that transformational leaders "move followers beyond their self-interests for the good of the group, organization and society" (L20). All told, the positive association with transformational leadership and desirable attributes as an individual draws the consumer of text in to see alignment between self and leadership. Instances of transformational leadership to incite alignment between consumer desire and text are located explicitly in the text:

L5-L7: influences, qualities, & attributes.

L12: Good leaders are transformational

L13: Leaders are needed to make desirable and planned changes in an organization.

L14: Transformational leaders join leaders and followers for a higher purpose.

L15: Transformational leaders join leaders and followers for high levels of motivation and morale.

L16-L19: Characteristics of transformational leadership

L20: Transformational leaders join leaders and followers past self-interests towards a greater good.

L27-28: Assumption made that global leaders interviewed are transformational, effective, and liked.

Although the article seemingly relies heavily on performance measure and little on gender, to the discourse analysts who are challenged to look past apparent meaning, the relationship between gender and performance are implicitly and significantly present throughout the text. Transformational leadership style has been suggested to align more closely to feminine communal or relational attributes emphasizing concern for others. In contrast, transactional leadership is assigned male agentic attributes such as independence and self-assertion. Although sex or gender is explicitly referenced once on Line 75 as participants for the qualitative study consisting of 8 men and two women, to the consumer of text, implicit alignment or misalignment to performance based on gender norms are prevalent throughout the offering. According to the information presented, characteristics associated with transformational leadership are noted on Lines 16 through 19 as communal, relational or feminine attributes to which women may see themselves excelling in more than men:

“Characteristics often associated with transformational leaders include: determining and building a common vision, inspiring followers, encouraging new approaches to problem-solving, continuously developing the skills of subordinates, and establishing superior performance.”

Negative behaviors listed on Lines 159 through 161 are traditionally assigned to male attributes:

1. Being a loner and asocial (self-protective);
2. Being non-cooperative and irritable (malevolent); and
3. Being dictatorial

However, qualities defined by the 1997 research study noted by the Human Resources Institute are a combination of agentic (masculine) and communal (feminine) behaviors listed on Line 38:

The competencies and qualities that are cited as important include honesty, integrity, teamwork, communication, and risk-taking.

In summary, although weak in structure, evidence, and citation for influential leaders, the research presented does not explicitly reference gender as an actor in transformational leadership. It is only significant with exposure to leadership theory and gender theory that a relationship between the text used and instances of power, gender, and performance can be seen. Subliminal messaging notwithstanding, as a researcher, it is essential to question overthinking or examining meaning to the same degree; it is essential not to do the same. As consumers of information, the reader seeks to find aspects of themselves in the text or instances and opportunities to see themselves as leaders. As a discourse analyst, interpretation to the extreme would suggest the female author and researcher sought meaning and designed supportive research between being female and leader. As the text's critical discourse analyst, I must admit to seeking similar meaning and support to being female and leader. However, removing the lens to find

fault, I suggest that if more research on leadership looked past sex as a factor to leadership and spoke only to leading others' positive qualities, women could see themselves more readily as leaders. Men would feel it was acceptable to take on more communal attributes to create high-performing organizations consisting of happier group members.

Notes:

Reading the article purely from an academic perspective, I noticed the paper is not thoroughly cited, and much of which should be supported is written as common knowledge. As an academic scholar on leadership, I immediately noticed the author considered no alternative styles of leadership beyond transformational as effective in leading in a global environment.

Disclosure:

I was pleasantly surprised at the unexpected article selection. I did not consider the topic to focus on global leadership, or the author is female.

As a doctoral candidate and discourse analysis who studies leadership, language, and gender, there are several red flags I need to consider:

- What influence does my knowledge of the author's sex have, in my opinion of the article?
- Do I immediately go one way or another because the author is female or male?
- How can I mitigate bias based on the author's sex?
- How can I balance yet keep in check what I know based on the considerable amount of research I have read?

Methodological Alignment

- From a historical perspective, the question begs why transformational leadership was presented as the effective style without acknowledging other forms of conducting leadership mentioned much less investigated. Without justification, the author presents the style as superior to another style.
- From a relational-dialectical perspective, the author omits or assumes the reader understands other forms of leadership have their place and time as appropriate.

Notes:

- The paper is not thoroughly cited, and much of which should be supported is written as common knowledge.
- The author considered no alternative styles of leadership beyond transformational as effective in leading in a global environment.
- Other textual silences include interviewees were secured and if the leaders surveyed were viewed in a positive light. Also, international is assumed as global, so cultural factors were not considered.

Reflexivity

I was pleasantly surprised at the unexpected article selection. I did not consider the topic to focus on global leadership, or the author is female.

Since I am a doctoral candidate who studies leadership, language, and gender, there are several red flags I need to consider.

- What influence does my knowledge of the author's sex have, in my opinion of the article?

- Do I immediately go one way or another because the author is female or male?
- How can I mitigate bias based on the author's sex?
- How can I balance yet keep in check what I know based on the considerable amount of research I have read?