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Left Behind: The Status of Black Women in Higher Education Administration

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This dissertation is dedicated to the late, Lionel Edward Miles. Look daddy, I got my education.

I also dedicate this research to the Black women who work in student affairs administration. I see you, and I understand.
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ABSTRACT

This quantitative study examines the current status of Black women higher education administrators in comparison to higher education administrators of another race and/or gender. Specifically, years of service, social support, highest degree attained, income level, and current title held was analyzed to evaluate the actual levels of professional success attained by Black women in higher education. A historical overview of the position of Black women both in society and in academe was provided and evaluated in order to describe context to the current status of Black female administrators in higher education administration. The potential barriers to Black female success, as well as potential outcomes of marginalization were explored in order to add more depth to the research and findings. In this research study there is one dependent variable, professional success. The independent variables include: degrees earned, gender, race, and social support. Control variables include: years of experience and degree earned. To strengthen the results and to assess large numbers of respondents, a web-based survey was utilized. The results of this study indicate that Black female administrators earn significantly less and are less likely to hold senior level student affairs positions, even when similarly qualified.
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

In recent years, the study of Black male attrition rates at colleges and universities has gained momentum as efforts are made within higher education to determine the factors that lead to their relatively low completion rates. However, evidence suggests that, despite their low degree completion rates, Black men continue to earn more and attain higher positions than Black women in higher education institutions. For example, while Black women comprise a higher percentage of female faculty than Black males comprise of all male faculty, Black male faculty comprise a larger percentage of full professors than do Black female faculty (Wilson, 1989). Additionally, Wilson (1989) notes that “women of color in particular, suffer wage and salary discrimination as well. After controlling for degree, research, and publication, the salary differential between men and women professors ranges from 600 to 1500 dollars” (p. 94).

More recent data reported by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) indicates that from 1999 to 2010 male full professors on average consistently earned more than their female counterparts when controlling for academic rank and type of institution. Specifically, in 1999, male full professors earned on average $76,748 and female full professors earned $67,079 annually. By 2010, on average male full professors earned $108,227 and female full professors earned $92,835 annually (NCES, 2011). This data indicates that not only has the wage gap not decreased in this category, it has widened. Although this data is not differentiated by race, it is fair to assert that this trend would hold true amongst Black male and female faculty.

In addition to faculty, female administrators currently outnumber male administrators in higher education institutions in all racial and ethnic groups except White (Jackson & O’Callaghan, 2009). Unfortunately, there is limited current research on the wage and status disparities that may be prevalent within these populations. Knowledge of the salaries and professional authority of those in administrative positions is important because it can help paint a full picture of achievement or explain the professional disparities that Black women in particular face as administrators.

Black women at colleges and universities across the country face a multitude of issues. Specifically, Collins (2001) notes that while Black women in academic institutions have differing experiences, backgrounds, and beliefs; “they are connected in their struggle to be accepted and respected, and to have a voice in an institution with many views” (p. 20).
Additionally, Black women, specifically at predominantly White institutions (PWIs), are overwhelmingly slighted by underprivileged consequences in contrast to their White counterparts who benefit from White privilege (Harley, 2008). As a result, Black women in higher education institutions tend to suffer from isolation and simultaneously struggle to be included. According to Hughes & Howard-Hamilton (2003), the isolation faced by Black women faculty, administrators, and students can lead to stress, feelings of insecurity and invisibility, and the belief that they are voiceless amongst colleagues.

This struggle, referred to by Patricia Hill Collins (2000) as “outsider-within” status, further encourages Black women to pursue support networks and/or friendship relationships whenever possible (p. 12). Martinez Aleman (2002) found that women of color, in contrast to White women, pursue these friendship relationships to:

(a) develop positive ethnic and/or racial self-image and identities independent of the racist and/or ethnocentric definitions imposed on them by the college environment; (b) engage in noncombative and noneducative ‘race talk’ that is a respite from racial and/or ethnic hypersensitivity and hostility; (c) give and receive academic encouragement and support; and (d) develop a gendered understanding of self within their ethnic and/or racial identities. (p. 253)

While Martinez Aleman focused her research on Black female students, one may also assert that Black women professionals in the collegiate environment may resort to those same coping mechanisms they may have employed as students.

While the above coping strategies may be employed, there are times when Black women find themselves to be not only outsiders within the institutions, but isolated as well. Additionally, these strategies do not provide social support needed to be successful within the institution. If a Black woman is the only Black woman in her department, or one of the few professional Black women on a campus, she is more likely to suffer from physical and/or mental exhaustion than women of other races and/or the other gender (McKenzie, 2002). As a result, while all women face gender discrimination, the unique experiences of Black women warrant further review of their experiences and current status within the realm of higher education institutions based on the intersection of race and gender.

**Purpose of the Study**
The purpose of this quantitative research study is to examine the level to which Black women have obtained leadership positions as administrators at higher education institutions. While previous research has demonstrated that obtaining leadership positions is problematic for Black students and Black faculty (Hughes & Howard-Hamilton, 2003), little research focuses solely on the plight of Black women administrators.

This research explores the current status of Black women whose chosen career path is higher education administration. Specifically, years of service, social support, highest degree attained, and current title were used to determine the level of success and inclusion Black women are achieving in higher education institutions as administrators. In addition, the achievements of these women were contrasted with the achievements of men and women of varying races at the same institutions to determine if there is indeed a discrepancy between academic success and professional success for Black women in the academy.

This study sought to determine if Black women are numerically underrepresented in positions of administrative authority at colleges and universities; if the numbers of Black women in positions of administrative authority are proportional to the numbers of Black women earning advanced degrees in Student Affairs/Higher Education Administration; and what discrepancies, if any, exist between the number of Black women earning advanced degrees in Student Affairs/Higher Education Administration and the number of Black women advancing professionally within the realm of Student Affairs/Higher Education Administration. Specifically particular patterns were sought out and identified by reviewing data collected from persons in the two specific regions of the United States under review in order to determine the current positions held by Black women in comparison to those of the other gender and/or races.

To centralize the research, attention was focused on the southern and mid-western regions of the United States and included the following states: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, and Ohio. Institutions of varying sizes, types, demographics served, and states were represented in the data. By examining multiple and varied institutions, the researcher hopes to uncover patterns where they exist and dismiss assumed patterns where none exist.

**Rationale**
This research will investigate the professional success of Black women in higher education. By uncovering the current standings of Black women in higher education administration, the researcher hopes to provide a catalyst for more in depth analysis of the broader issues surrounding race and gender in academic institutions.

**Research Questions**

The research questions guiding this research include:

1. Are Black women numerically underrepresented in positions of administrative authority at colleges and universities in contrast to Black males, White females and White males?
2. Do Black women in positions of administrative authority earn advanced degrees in Student Affairs/Higher Education Administration?
3. How are the work experiences of Black women in Higher Education Administration similar to or different from those of a different race and/or gender?

Specifically, these questions were answered by analyzing the self-reported data collected via a survey instrument from persons across the country. Additionally, data related to degrees earned and current positions of men and women in the field of Higher Education were analyzed in order to effectively contrast position with qualifications.

**Research Hypotheses**

The four hypotheses listed below were tested in this study.

**Hypothesis 1 – Professional Success of Black Female Administrators**

H1: The number of Black female administrators in positions of professional authority at colleges and universities will be significantly lower than the number of administrators of another race and/or gender.

To test this hypothesis, descriptive statistics were reported to show the number of Black female administrators in positions of professional authority in contrast to those of another race and/or gender.

**Hypothesis 2 – Professional Stasis of Black Female Administrators**

H2: Black female administrators will be over-represented in entry level and mid-level positions in higher education administration.
To test this hypothesis, inferential statistics drawn from ANOVA were reported to show the number of Black female administrators in entry level and mid-level positions.

**Hypothesis 3 – Professional Success of Black female administrators and advanced degrees**

H3: Black female administrators who earn terminal degrees in Higher Education will be more likely to serve in senior level positions versus entry and mid-level positions in higher education administration.

To test this hypothesis, inferential statistics drawn from ANOVA will be reported. This will be done to show the number of Black female administrators in senior level positions and their degrees acquired versus those of other races and/or the other gender.

**Hypothesis 4 – Professional Success of Black male, White male, and White female administrators and advanced degrees**

H4: By contrast the acquisition of terminal degrees will be lower amongst those of other races and/or the other gender who have attained senior level positions.

To test this hypothesis, inferential statistics drawn from ANOVA were reported. This was done to show the number of Black female administrators in senior level positions and their degrees acquired versus those of other races and/or the other gender.

**Hypothesis 5 – Professional setbacks of Black female administrators**

H5: Black female administrators will report less social support than administrators of other races and/or gender.

To test this hypothesis, inferential statistics drawn from ANOVA were reported. This analysis was used to show the number of Black female administrators who reported social support versus those of other races and/or the other gender.

**Significance of the Study**

As previously discussed, Black women at colleges and universities across the country face a multitude of issues that are not faced by their White counterparts. Therefore, the educational significance of this study is to advance the existing body of knowledge in the field of education on cultural and diversity issues, Black female professional socialization, and professional development. Previous research has demonstrated these issues are problematic for Black students and Black faculty (Hughes & Howard-Hamilton, 2003), however, minimal research has focused solely on the
struggle that Black women administrators face as professionals in higher education institutions.

**Definitions of Key Terms**

To effectively frame this discourse, provide clarity, and define this study’s scope on Black women in higher education administration, it is important to identify key terms and their meaning in the context of this research. The terms and their subsequent definitions noted below are an indication of the particular lens through which the researcher intends to structure the literature reviewed, data collected, and findings discussed.

**Academic Success** – Attainment of Masters and/or Doctoral degree in Student Affairs or equivalent degree program specifically related to Higher Education Administration.

**Black** – As it relates to this research, the term, Black, is utilized to denote those persons of color who identify as Black, African American, African, Caribbean, or mixed race persons who identify as Black and currently reside and work in the United States.

**Deprived Consequences** - According to Harley (2008), this term describes the inherent effects of membership in a group (i.e., the Black race) that has been underprivileged in society.

**Gendered Racism** – According to Harley (2008) as White women’s use of discrimination against Black women in an attempt to keep them out of White spaces, e.g. PWIs.

**Higher Education Institutions** – Four-year institutions that award Bachelors, Masters and terminal degrees. For the purpose of this research community colleges will not be included in this definition. This term might also be used interchangeably with “colleges or universities.”

**Outsider-Within** – According to Collins (2000), the state of Black women being denied full group membership in varying arenas within the academy and beyond. Specifically the need for “Whiteness for feminist thought, maleness for Black social and political thought, and the combination for mainstream scholarship – all negate Black women’s realities” (p. 12).

**Positionality** – According to Johnson-Bailey & Lee (2005), “refers to the place assigned to a person based on group membership, such as gender, race, class, sexual orientation, and age… One major factor that affects positionality, particularly for women of color, is the stereotype assigned to women of color by our society” (p. 116).

**Professional Success/Authority** – Attainment of Senior Student Affairs positions, specifically Dean, Assistant/Associate Vice President, Vice President, or their respective equivalents.
Social Support – According to Cooke, Rossmann, McCubbin, and Patterson (1981), the four potential forms of social support include: Emotional support-providing empathy, caring, love, trust, esteem, concern, and listening; Instrumental support-providing aid in kind, money, labor, time, or any direct help; Informational support-providing advice, suggestions, directives, and information for use in coping with personal and environmental problems; Appraisal support-providing affirmation, feedback, social comparison, and self-evaluation.

Student Affairs Administrator - Those professionals who fit the description of current members of NASPA – Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education (2012), which includes: "vice president and dean for student life, as well as professionals working within housing and residence life, student unions, student activities, counseling, career development, orientation, enrollment management, racial and ethnic minority support services, and retention and assessment” (p. 1).

Theoretical Framework

The primary theory that guides this research is that of Patricia Hill Collins’ Black Feminist Thought. This theory is of particular relevance to the subject as a result of Collins’ outline of the specific way in which Black women in academic spaces have been marginalized. Additionally, her notation of the importance of Black women acquiring positions of power, directly connect with the overall goal of the research. Collins (2000) posits that:

Taken together, the supposedly seamless web of economy, polity, and ideology function as a highly effective system of social control designed to keep African American women in an assigned, subordinate place. This larger system of oppression works to suppress the ideas of Black women intellectuals… Denying African American women the credentials to become literate certainly excluded most African American women from positions as scholars, teachers, authors, poets, and critics. Moreover, while Black women historians, writers, and social scientists have long existed, until recently these women have not held leadership positions in universities, professional associations, publishing concerns, broadcast media, and other social institutions of knowledge validation. Black women’s exclusion from positions of power within mainstream institutions has led to the
elevation of elite White male ideas and interests and the corresponding suppression of Black women’s ideas and interests in traditional scholarship (p. 5).

Collins (2000) notes not all Black women intellectuals are found within the halls of academia nor are all Black women within academia automatically intellectuals. She argues that Black women intellectuals, those who engage in intellectual work that through a “process of self-conscious struggle on behalf of Black women, regardless of the actual social location where that work occurs” are the key carriers of the Black feminist movement (p. 15).

To outline the theory of Black Feminist Thought, it is important to note the six distinguishing features of the theory (Collins, 2000).

1. Black women’s group location in intersecting oppressions produces commonalities among individual Black women.
2. Black Feminist Thought emerges from a tension linking experiences and ideas.
3. Black Feminist Thought is concerned with the connections between Black women’s experiences as a heterogeneous collectivity and any ensuing group knowledge or standpoint.
4. Black Feminist Thought is concerned with the essential contributions of African American women intellectuals.
5. Black Feminist Thought is concerned with the significance of change.
6. Black Feminist Thought is concerned with its relationship to other projects for social justice.

Taking these distinguishing features into account, the particulars of Black Feminist Thought work well with the secondary theory, that of Symbolic Interactionism. Symbolic Interactionism begins with the three core premises that: (1.) humans act toward people or things according to the meanings they assign to those people or things, (2.) meanings arise out of the social interaction that people have with each other, and (3.) an individual’s interpretation of symbols is modified by his or her own thought processes (Griffin, 2009). This theory further notes that our self-concept is shaped based on how we believe we look or are perceived by others, rather than a more introspective approach to knowing who you are based on self-evaluation. This concept is referred to as the “looking glass self” (Griffin, 2009, p. 65).

Mead’s Symbolic Interactionism is useful in the evaluation of the experiences of Black women. Specifically, this theory provides a lens through which to understand the way Black
women, as outsiders-within, are continuously judged not by their actions, but by other’s perceptions of their actions and the meanings assigned to those actions. Additionally, this theory illustrates the way in which Black women also judge themselves not on who they are, but on who others perceive them to be. As a result, Black women are continuously involved in a cycle of misunderstanding and minimal meaningful connections to “others”. These two theories, Black Feminist Thought and Symbolic Interactionism work in tandem to effectively illustrate the experiences of Black women in general and are more than adequate to demonstrate the ways in which the experiences of Black women in higher education are unique. The two theories also present a case for the need to thoughtfully and critically bring attention to what could be a problem related to power-sharing in higher education administration. By combining the reality of the lived Black female experience with the way in which Black females are perceived and subsequently treated due to those perceptions, an overarching concept of “Black Female Social Interactionism” was developed and guided this study.

**Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework that will guide this study is illustrated below.

![Conceptual Framework](image)

Figure 1 – Conceptual Framework

This conceptual framework visualizes the way in which individual parts of each theoretical framework come together and inform the overall experiences of Black women. When those experiences are viewed through the lens of higher education
administration, the experiences of Black women in student affairs can be assessed to determine the true barriers, or lack thereof, to the professional success/authority of Black women in higher education. The finding of this research will be used to operationalize the concept of Black Female Social Interactionism. Specifically, the data collected will be used to draw inferences that provide a more clear understanding of the collective experience of Black female administrators and the meanings derived from interactions with Black female administrators.

**Assumptions**

In pursuing this research, some key assumptions related to respondent participation will guide the reporting of findings. It is assumed that those respondents who voluntarily participated in this study did so willingly and answered all questions honestly and to the best of their ability. In addition, it is assumed that the geographic regions targeted provided enough variation that respondent experiences can show marked consistencies or inconsistencies amongst or between those regions of the country. Finally, it is assumed that the use of Black women as the focus of this research will provide new information related to the experiences of a specific group and can serve as a catalyst for research of other groups.

**Limitations and Delimitations**

Limitations of the study include incorrect and/or outdated email addresses, limited responses from those who receive the survey, incomplete or inaccurate responses, and inability to verify the legitimacy of responses. Delimitations of the study include the researcher’s decision to obtain data from only two regions rather than the entire country. In addition, limiting the sample to student affairs practitioners rather than both faculty and staff is also a delimitation of this study.

**Summary**

Black female administrators continue to face unique challenges in their roles at colleges and universities across the country. Although there is research available specific to the experiences of Black female administrators, there is limited research that evaluates these experiences in comparison to other groups. This study asserts that the intersection of race and
gender serves to limit Black women’s opportunities to attain senior level administrative positions.

This dissertation includes five chapters. Chapter one presents an introduction to the problem, the purpose of the study, rationale, the research questions which will be addressed with research hypotheses, the significance of the study, definition of key terms, the theoretical frameworks and conceptual framework, assumptions, and limitations/delimitations. Chapter two is a literature review on the concepts of womanhood, historical experiences, and educational attainment of Black women. Chapter three outlines the methods used to conduct this study, including participant and survey information, and the statistical procedures employed to gather and analyze the data. Chapter four reports the results and findings based on the hypotheses testing through statistical analyses. Finally, chapter five summarizes the study and details implications of the findings for higher education.
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

_Ain’t I a Woman? Black Womanhood from Slavery to Freedom_

Black women have long understood that the intersection of race and gender places them in a unique position to be continuously misunderstood. Others in society seem to simply ignore the complexity of being both Black and female while simultaneously clinging to its importance in their lives. As a result, Black women in the academy often stand out while being pushed aside in their quest to simply do their work.

At the intersection of race and gender stand women of color, torn by the lines of bias that currently divide white from nonwhite in our society, and male from female. The worlds these women negotiate demand different and often wrenching allegiances. As a result, women of color face significant obstacles to their full participation in and contribution to higher education. In their professional roles, women of color are expected to meet performance standards set for the most part by White males… At the same time, they must struggle with their own identity as women in a society where “thinking like a woman” is still considered a questionable activity. At times they can even experience pressure to choose between their racial identity and their womanhood (Carter, Pearson, & Shavlik, 1996, p. 460).

What is “womanhood” to a Black woman? While racial identity may be easy to comprehend, the idea of womanhood in the Black community has historically proven to be different from White womanhood based on the deprivileged consequences associated with being Black. Davis (1981) noted that while Black women were indeed women, their experiences during slavery, i.e., hard field work alongside men, equal roles within their family, resistance to oppression, beatings, and rape, led to the development of personality traits that were very different from White women. Furthermore, the work of enslaved women varied depending on the size of the plantation, but rarely varied in terms of the amount of work that was expected. Jones (2010) noted, for example, a slave, Lizzie Atkins’ account of living on a farm with only three other slaves and being expected to clear land, cut wood, tend to livestock, hoe corn, spin thread, sew clothes, cook, wash dishes and grind corn; work that kept her busy daily until sundown. Enslaved women witnessed and experienced challenges to their “womanhood” that were so
contradictory to their purportedly inherent delicate female nature that Sojourner Truth was led to ask her infamous question “Ain’t I a woman?”

I have ploughed, and planted, and gathered into barns and no man could head me!
And ain’t I a woman? I could work as much and eat as much as a man – when I could get it – and bear the lash as well! And ain’t I a woman? I have borne thirteen children and seen them most all sold off to slavery, and when I cried out with my mother’s grief, none but Jesus heard me! And ain’t I a woman? (as cited in Davis, 1981, p. 61).

Indeed the experiences of enslaved women such as Harriet Tubman, Margaret Garner, Linda Brent, and the countless others like them shaped their character and subsequently their traits. In addition, the way in which enslaved women defined for themselves what or who a woman should be and do would have an immense impact on American history far beyond the formal institution of slavery came to an end (Jones, 2010). Many Black women may not fully understand the impact their ancestors continue to have on them today, for “it was those [enslaved] women who passed on to their nominally free female descendants a legacy of hard work, perseverance and self-reliance, a legacy of tenacity, resistance and insistence on sexual equality – in short, a legacy of spelling out standards for a new womanhood” (Davis, 1981, p. 29).

This unique heritage is both a source of pride and a source of persecution for many Black women who attempt to carry on the “legacy” of their foremothers. As early as 1868, the personality of Black women was called into question in a way that noted the obvious disapproval of White men. Jones (2010) cited that White males in positions of authority made known their disapproval of the personal style, attire, and what they perceived as the outspoken nature of Black women. Specifically, she noted

Defenders of the notion of early Victorian (White) womanhood could not help but be struck by Black women who openly challenged conventional standards of female submissiveness. Freedwomen were described as “growling,” “impertinent,” “imprudent,” “vulgar,” persons who “spoke up bold as brass” and, with their “loud and boisterous talking,” demanded fair treatment for “we people [left] way back.” In the process of ridiculing these women, Northerners often indirectly revealed their ambivalent attitudes toward Black men. Apparently an
aggressive woman existed outside the realm of “natural” male-female relationships… but ironically in such cases, male relatives were often perceived to be much more “reasonable” (that is, prone to accept the White man’s point of view) than their vehement womenfolk (p. 69).

Based on the above noted “undesirable” characteristics of Black women, it might appear that Black women who are overlooked for promotions and advancement in higher education is the very complex, yet simultaneously uncomplicated outgrowth of a historical notion that Black women, to put it simply, are unpleasant.

Freedwomen paid a significant price as a group or as individuals when they had the audacity to speak and act like free women (Jones, 2010). While this price may have been physical in 1868, i.e., the way in which Freedwomen like Maria Mitchell and Harriet Murray were punished with beatings at the hands of White men when they dared to speak up for themselves, it appears that Black women today are punished for being outspoken through the denial of opportunities.

**From Whence They Came: Black Women in the Academy**

Despite the slow changes made after desegregation, Black women have made many gains in higher education since entering those hallowed halls. However, many elements – such as curricular issues, the climate of the environment, the need for a supportive peer culture, the need for mentorship and role models, among others – still serve as obstacles to full development within many institutions (Collins, 2001).

As this topic of the full development of Black female professionals is explored, it is important to note what professional development in general looks like within the realm of higher education. Schwartz and Bryan (1998) noted the most common levels of professional development within this profession as: Individual – taking courses toward an advanced degree, attending workshops and conferences, or mentoring; Group or Program – clusters of staff who come together to learn a new skill, and participation in coffee hours or brown bag lunches centered around a topic of common interest to those who attend; Departmental – department initiated work groups organized for the purpose of addressing job-specific concerns and issues; Divisional – programs created to address broader issue across departments; and Professional
Associations – these associations provide local, regional, and national opportunities for
development and networking with those at other institutions within the field.

Based on this assessment of the many forms of professional development, it is important
to address the ways in which Black women in higher education are shut out from these
opportunities. As it relates to individual development, Black women are the most likely to be
able to take part in this because, barring any administrative interference, they are in control of
whether or not they register for courses or attend workshops. The area that might prove most
problematic for them would be that of finding mentors. Crawford and Smith (2005) defined a
mentor as “one who is further along in an educational career than you are, perhaps in
administration, and who counsels you and looks out for your career” (p. 60). In their study of
Black female administrators across New York state, none of their participants were able to
identify a person in their career who fit that description (Crawford & Smith, 2005).

Participation in group or program developmental opportunities may prove problematic
due to the isolation that many Black women in higher education face. In their qualitative study of
Black female administrators, Patitu and Hinton (2003) found that women in higher education
reported being shut out of groups at work due to their race, gender, or sexual orientation. One
example that stood out was that of a Director who noted that there was a period of time when her
supervisor (a vice president) refused to speak to her and would only give her information through
her male assistant. She specifically noted this as sexism because the assistant was Black (Patitu
& Hinton, 2003). In addition, Bonner (2001) found that Black women at Historically Black
Colleges/Universities (HBCUs) face the same isolation due to sexism as those at Predominately
White Institutions (PWIs). Specifically, “in terms of barriers to promotion, exclusion from the
curricula, a chilly climate in the workplace and classroom, and sexual harassment… addressing
the phenomenon of sexism is particularly critical for HBCUs because they lag behind the PWIs
in their capacity to systematically address gender in higher education” (Bonner, 2001, p. 188). In
addition, research has found that despite shared gender discrimination, White women “still have
a problem with minority students and minority perspectives. This is particularly true in
[discipline]. It is really dominated by Western European notions” (qtd in Viernes Turner, 2002,
p. 80). This is an indication that Black women also deal with gendered racism within higher
education when White women seek to or inadvertently exclude Black women from participating
fully as members of the university community.
Barriers to Black female administrators’ departmental and/or divisional development also relate back to professional isolation that goes beyond personal isolation. Clayborne and Hamrick (2007) in their study of the leadership experiences of African American women in midlevel student affairs positions noted that many respondents identified off campus resources such as church, family, and/or spirituality as the support structures that helped them make sense of work-related concerns. Typically, these women did not include work colleagues or supervisors as part of their support network. Additionally, Rosser (2000) noted that organized departmental or divisional development is not common within the realm of student affairs. She specifically asserts that a lack of career development and advancement opportunities is a major source of frustration amongst student affairs professionals. The combination of minimal departmental and divisional opportunities overall and the personal and professional isolation of Black women in student affairs creates an environment that is not conducive to overall professional development of Black female administrators.

As it relates to professional associations, there is limited research available to draw a legitimate conclusion on whether or not race and gender play a role in a person’s ability to develop through their participation in such organizations. Based on the personal nature of selecting conference attendance and whether or not to network with other attendees while at professional conferences, Black female administrators often do not feel that they have an equal opportunity to be successful in these environments.

Barriers to development through professional associations reflect the same isolating experiences that Black women find at their home institutions. Looking at the history of NASPA in particular, there has been very little advancement of Black women in key positions of senior leadership. Specifically, in the 94 year history of the organization, there have been seven (7) women and two “minorities” to hold the position of national president (History, 2012, p. 1). Of these nine (9) individuals, none were Black women. There are two Black women who are noted in NASPA’s history; Dr. Lenore Cole who became “the first woman (and the first minority person) to be elected a regional vice president”, and Dr. Gwendolyn Jordan Dungy who served for 17 years as the executive director (History, 2012, p. 1). NASPA describes itself as “the leading association for the advancement, health, and sustainability of the student affairs profession” (About Us, 2012, p. 1). With this being the case, Black women in this profession still have much more work to do to be accepted and appreciated as leaders in the field.
Education is the Key! Or is it?

In considering the education of Black women, it is important to remember that the current higher education system was created for wealthy White males and offered to Black women as a socialization tool to assist Black people after the Civil War through historically Black colleges and universities and a few exceptional predominantly White institutions (Collins, 2001). Oberlin College, located in Oberlin, OH is well known for being the first college in America to “adopt a policy to admit students of color (1835) and the first to grant bachelor’s degrees to women (1841) in a coeducational program” (Fast Facts, 2011, p. 1). According to Henle & Merrill (1979), prior to the abolition of slavery from 1833 – 1865, at least 140 of the Black students who attended Oberlin College were women (Henle & Merrill, 1979). Of those 140 women, many of them were enrolled in the preparatory school, however, 56 were enrolled in the literary course “or in the four year Bachelor of Arts program occasionally referred to as the ‘the gentlemen’s course’” (Henle & Merrill, 1979, p. 8).

In 1862, Oberlin granted a B.A. degree to Mary Jane Patterson, making her the first Black woman to earn such a degree. It was reported that by 1865, 12 Black women had received the literary degree and three had received the B.A. all from Oberlin (Henle & Merrill, 1979). To fully understand these accomplishments, it is important to note that while many of the White female students at Oberlin College came from poor or rural backgrounds, the Black female students were much more likely to have been born free and came from wealthy urban areas (Henle & Merrill, 1979). While this was the case for many, some of the Black women at Oberlin did have slave mothers and free, slave-owning fathers and it was their fathers who provided for their education. As a result, most of the Black female students were lighter-skinned due to their mixed race. It is presumed that this feature may have helped them become more easily accepted at Oberlin as it was a PWI (Henle & Merrill, 1979). In either case, most of the Black female students were from two parent households and these households were more likely to send their female children to college while encouraging their male children to take up the trade of their father (Henle & Merrill, 1979). This final point is of significance because it points to a history of Black women being encouraged to pursue their education whether or not Black men were doing the same.

While Oberlin was the first college to grant a B.A. degree to a Black woman, there were many other institutions that began or reorganized specifically to educate Black women; two of
those institutions are still in existence today – Bennett College and Spelman College. Although Bennett College was initially created in 1873 as a coeducational institution for Black men and women of all ages and grade levels, in 1926 the Women’s Home Missionary Society joined with the Education Board of the church that owned the school and made Bennett a college for women (History, 2011). Since that time, Bennett has graduated thousands of Black women and continues to boast a mission that “offers women an education conducive to excellence in scholarly pursuits; preparation for leadership roles in the workplace, society, and the world; and life-long learning in a technologically advanced, complex global society. As a United Methodist Church-related institution, Bennett College promotes morally grounded maturation, intellectual honesty, purposeful public service, and responsible civic action” (Mission & Philosophy, 2011, p. 1).

Spelman College is perhaps the most well-known institution for consistently graduating high caliber Black women. The current status of Spelman as an elite institution is as noteworthy as the interesting way in which it was founded and subsequently managed for the majority of its years in existence. The “founding mothers,” Sophia B. Packard and Harriet E. Giles, were two White women who were committed to the education of Black women primarily for the purpose of education rather than industrialization and domestication (Lefever, 2005). While these women realized the importance of industrial and domestic education, they felt these subjects should be offered as secondary to truly academic courses such as reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, etc. (Lefever, 2005). Spelman College was founded in 1881 as the Atlanta Baptist Female Seminary and was later named Spelman College in honor of the support and contributions of Laura Spelman (John D. Rockefeller’s wife), her sister Lucy Spelman and her parents Harvey and Lucy Henry Spelman, respectively (Lefever, 2005). It is also noteworthy that John D. Rockefeller himself contributed generously to the college and to date he, his family, and the Rockefeller Foundation have continued to contribute millions of dollars to Spelman College (Lefever, 2005).

Former Spelman College President, Johnnetta B. Cole (1993) noted that a major contributor to the success of Spelman women was that their basic needs are met, that they reside in a relatively safe environment and that they were not confronted by the racism and sexism they might encounter at a different type of university. This observation seems both true and particularly ironic due to what appears to be the many contradictions connected to the founding and subsequent leadership of Spelman. Specifically the fact that the founders of the college touted a mission of educating Black women to become leaders in their homes and communities,
however, it cannot be overlooked that while there were two Black men who served on the Board of Trustees of Spelman from its inception, the College did not employ any Black women as administrators for the college (Lefever, 2005). Moreover, this absence of Black female leadership remained a pattern for over a century; it was not until 106 years after its founding that Johnnetta B. Cole was named the first Black woman to serve as the college’s president in 1987.

The example of Spelman College is important in that it illustrates a distinct pattern of excluding Black women from leadership within the realm of institutional administration even in the unlikeliest of places. This type of exclusion from leadership continues to be common for Black women even though the academic success of Black women continues to increase. Despite the lack of opportunities for leadership, Black women continue to achieve academic success at increasing rates.

The past 30 years have seen continued growth in the numbers of Black women in college. Black women have continuously outnumbered Black men in most areas of college enrollment and degree attainment. Kaba (2005) reported that in 1976, 54.5% of all Black students enrolled in college were women and this trend continued toward a more dramatic majority in 1999 when Black women accounted for 63.2% of the 1.64 million Black students enrolled. As it relates specifically to degree attainment, Kaba (2005) reports that during the 1999-2000 academic year, Black women totaled 65.8% of Blacks who earned bachelor’s degrees; 69% of Blacks who earned master’s degrees; and 61.2% of Blacks who earned doctorates. More recent data confirms that Black women continue to outnumber Black men in the area of degree attainment. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2010), during the 2007-08 academic year Black women totaled 65.7% of Blacks who earned bachelor’s degrees; 71.8% of Blacks who earned master’s degrees; and 66.4% of Blacks who earned doctorate degrees.

While the above statistics lead most to ask questions related to Black male attrition, retention, and degree attainment, or the lack thereof, this information is presented as the impetus for a question that sparked this research: why do Black men still continue to out earn Black women monetarily if Black women achieve more in the realm of education and training? According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2011), the median income of Black men aged 15 and older in 2008 was $25,258/year while the median income for Black women aged 15 and older in 2008 was $20,197. Further, related to individuals with a bachelor’s degree or higher, according to the U.S. Census Bureau (2011), in 2009 the median income of Black men aged 25 and older
with bachelor’s degrees was $51,643/year while the median income for Black women aged 25 and older with bachelor’s degrees was $46,297/year. Further, in 2009 the median income of Black men aged 25 and older with master’s degrees was $61,037/year while the median income for Black women aged 25 and older with master’s degrees was $55,824/year. Although the data for the median individual income of Black men and women were not available, it would appear that this trend of Black men earning more than Black women would hold constant.

In addition to overall earnings, research also indicates that, as it relates to administrators, having an earned doctorate is perceived as necessary for advancement to senior level positions (Townsend & Weise, 1992). Although this finding is encouraging to those Black female administrators who intend to earn their doctorate, it is also important to note that in higher education specifically, while African Americans as a group struggle to be accepted, the professional status of men is significantly higher than that of women. Men are more likely to hold the rank of full professor, have terminal degrees, higher salaries, and be tenured (Thompson & Dey, 1998).

**Here and Now: The Black Female Administrative Experience**

Historically, the climate in academia for Black female administrators has been chilly at best. Moss (1989) found that most often, Black female administrators were concentrated in entry and midlevel positions and noted that they might be “stereotyped, resented, or even treated with disrespect because they are perceived as less qualified” (p. 14). Unfortunately, in the more than 20 years since Moss’ study, it appears that not much has changed in the experiences of Black female administrators. Clayborne and Hamrick (2007) indicated that Black female administrators in midlevel positions reported having minimal substantive interactions with senior level administrators and more often engaged with entry level professionals. Additionally, these administrators reported disproportionate allocations of resources which serve as a potential impediment to their ability to be successful in their job and subsequently their professional advancement (Clayborne & Hamrick, 2007). Beyond isolation, Black female administrators have been relegated primarily to entry level positions where they carry out rather than formulate policy (Crawford & Smith, 2005). This finding is particularly damaging because in a different study Jackson and Harris (2007) found that exclusion from informal networks and lack of preparation from superiors, among other factors, limited Black female educators from ascending
to top administrative roles. The areas identified by Crawford and Smith (2005) where Black female administrators have acquired the most professional success were in departments related to diversity, equal employment opportunity, and library sciences. These departments are considered among the perimeter of the institution and Black women’s confinement to these areas do not generally provide the needed interactions with colleagues to fully understand and engage in the campus culture (Crawford & Smith, 2005). In addition to this type of marginalization, “female stereotyping and preconceptions of women” were noted by Black female university presidents as the top experience impacting their presidency (Jackson & Harris, 2007, p. 131). One might assert that these would prove to be barriers to all Black female administrators. In their study of women university leaders, Tomas, Lavie, and Guillamon (2010) noted primary stereotypes held about women (in descending order of importance) including: “attention to family and the home, the rules of the game in our society that relegate women to an inferior position, socialization processes as an important conditioning factor, female stereotypes, the possibility of getting pregnant and lack of self-confidence” (p. 492). Other stereotypes were identified in Crawley’s (2006) research included joker, carer, flirt, siren, and inferior. She added that these stereotypes and labels marginalize and often render Black women invisible as people, only able to be seen as stereotypes and caricatures of their true selves.

To combat these types of barriers to professional success, Jackson and Flowers (2003) suggested formalized university mentorship programs that enable Black administrators to engage meaningfully with colleagues and administrators who have more experience and can provide advice and feedback to those seeking to advance within the institution. Further, Clayborne and Hamrick (2007) found that Black women were more likely to identify off campus resources as part of their support network rather than supervisors or work colleagues. Additionally, Black female administrators have sited their faith in God as well as their relationships with other Black women as the leading sources of support and wisdom. Specifically, they noted Black women in their lives as providing a safe place to laugh, cry, and pray about their experiences with “barriers associated with racism, sexism, and homophobia” (Patitu & Hinton, 2003). All of these external sources of social support, while advantageous and reliable personally, also serve to widen the gap between Black women and their institutional peers.
These forms of isolation and marginalization provide a lens by which the driving
theories, Black Feminist Thought and Symbolic Interactionism can be more fully understood as
theoretical guides for this research. The collective experiences of Black women as student affairs
administrators illustrates Collins’ (2000) assertion of a “highly effective system of social control
designed to keep African American women in an assigned, subordinate places. This larger
system of oppression works to suppress the ideas of Black women intellectuals…” (p. 15).
Further, these experiences, specifically those associated with how stereotypes of Black women
held by others emerge in the workplace, illustrate how the meanings assigned to and derived
from our social interactions, as well as the interpretations of those interactions coincide with
Griffin’s (2009) description of the Symbolic Interactionism that impacts the collective
experiences of Black female administrators.

Unlike other studies, this research will focus on the experiences of all people and will
extract those of Black women in order to compare their experiences to those of the larger
population. Instead of looking at their experiences in a silo, the researcher hopes to view Black
women within the context of the broader population and evaluate their experiences as they
compare to all other experiences. Further, the researcher aims to describe those experiences in a
meaningful way.

This data is additionally important because, often, Black people are studied as a
homogeneous group rather than as a group with two genders. Shange (2010) eloquently noted
“…bein a woman & bein colored is a metaphysical dilemma… do you see the point [?] my spirit
is too ancient to understand the separation of soul & gender…” (p. 59). Davis (1981) also
identified the tendency to view Black femaleness as an anomaly rather than womanhood. As a
result it may become easy to forget that Black women are indeed women, and face sexism in the
same way as all other women. Focusing only on the potential battles with racism denies Black
women their womanly voice and continues a cycle of oppression not only from those of other
races, but within their race as well.

**Summary**

The intersection of race and gender places Black women in a unique position to be
continuously misunderstood by others who are not “torn by the lines of bias that currently divide
white from nonwhite in our society, and male from female” (Carter, Pearson, & Shavlik, 1996, p.
In addition to the duality Black women face in general, as it relates specifically to Black female administrators, there has historically been limited opportunities for professional development and advancement. These limited opportunities have been pervasive for Black women in spite of historical achievement in the realm of educational attainment. Further the collective experiences of Black women in higher education administration paints a picture that warrants further review of these experiences within the context of Black Feminist Thought and Symbolic Interactionism.

In accordance with the experiences of Black women in higher education as indicated in the literature, this research is centered around the current status of Black women whose chosen career path is higher education administration. Specifically, years of service, social support, highest degree attained, annual income, and current title were evaluated to determine the extent of success through job title and promotions and inclusion that Black women are achieving in higher education institutions as administrators. The achievements of these women is contrasted with the achievements of men and women of varying races at their institutions and their degree completion to determine if there are discrepancies between academic success and professional success of Black women in the academy.
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This chapter will describe the research methods used within this study. The primary focus of the study was to review the extent to which Black women attain professional success in higher education institutions. This study analyzed Black women’s degree attainment, income, professional success, and social support in comparison to Black men, White women, and White men through a survey of Black and White professionals in student affairs/higher education administration in two select regions of the United States.

This chapter will describe in detail the design and population of the study. The development of the survey instrument will also be discussed, as well as efforts to guarantee validity and reliability through the utilization of a field test. Data collection procedures, the approach to data analysis, and limitations will also be described. Finally, this chapter will conclude with ethical considerations.

Research Questions

The purpose of this research was to explore the professional success of Black female administrators in higher education institutions. The term professional success refers to the attainment of senior student affairs positions, specifically positions with the title, Dean, Assistant/Associate Vice President, Vice President, or their respective equivalents. To evaluate this success, the study focused on the following research questions:

1. Are Black women numerically underrepresented in positions of administrative authority at colleges and universities in comparison to Black males, White females and White males?
2. Do Black women in positions of administrative authority earn advanced degrees in Student Affairs/Higher Education Administration?
3. How are the work experiences of Black women in Higher Education Administration similar to or different from those of a different race and/or gender?

Specifically, these questions were answered by analyzing the self-reported data collected from persons within two geographic regions to determine the current positions held by Black women in comparison to those of another race and/or gender. Additionally, responses to specific questions related to degree types earned, work experiences, and current positions held in the field
of Student Affairs /Higher Education Administration were analyzed in order to effectively contrast positionality with qualifications.

**Participants**

The population for this study included professionals who work as university administrators in student oriented positions. Specifically, those professionals who fit the description of current members of NASPA – Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education, which includes: “vice president and dean for student life, as well as professionals working within housing and residence life, student unions, student activities, counseling, career development, orientation, enrollment management, racial and ethnic minority support services, and retention and assessment” (About Us, 2012, p. 1).

By using this definition, the researcher was able to recruit more broadly rather than just relying on institutional designations which can vary greatly in describing similar positions. The survey was sent only to professionals employed in the selected states in the South and Midwest and included the states of Alabama, Georgia, Florida, North Carolina, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Ohio. Public and private college and university professionals at institutions of varying sizes were included in the sample population.

To identify potential participants, the researcher selected 11 colleges and universities in each of the above mentioned states. The researcher then went to the websites for each university and attempted to retrieve at least 20 publicly available email addresses of administrators in positions that matched the definition noted above. Since websites and staff listings vary, less than 20 email addresses were found on some institution websites while more than 20 email addresses were found on other institution websites. As a result, the researcher collected a total of 1,815 unique email addresses.

At the midpoint of the survey collection, when it became apparent that there was a deficit in the number of Black respondents, the researcher selected Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) in the targeted states that had not been previously included in the sample of institutions. From the addition of these institutions, another 71 email addresses were captured.

In addition to the email addresses collected by the researcher, snowball sampling was utilized. Snowball sampling is a process by which a respondent is asked to identify other possible respondents who might also participate in the research (Creswell, 2008). In this instance, respondents were asked to provide the email addresses of other professionals they knew who
might be interested in responding to the survey. As referrals from the "snowball" sample were received and compared to e-mail addresses already in the sample population, as well as those who did not fit the professional criteria of the survey population, the researcher gained an additional 136 email addresses. Based on these efforts, a final sample of 2,022 Student Affairs professionals received the survey instrument.

On January 9, 2012, an e-mail was sent to 1,815 Student Affairs professionals in the Southern and Midwestern regions of the United States containing a brief description of the purpose of the research and an invitation to participate in this study. In addition to the initial email list, email addresses collected after the survey launch through participant referrals and public searches were added to the overall sample population which resulted in e-mails being sent to a total of 2,022 student affairs professionals. A link to the survey was sent through the Qualtrics Survey Management System to provide access to the “Career Success in Student Affairs” survey. Survey reminders were sent on January 12th, 17th, and 24th. In addition, due to limited responses from White males, Black males, and Black females, specific emails were sent on January 26th and January 30th targeting those populations until it became apparent that no additional responses were likely to be received. “Thank you” emails were also sent to those who had completed the survey. The survey closed on February 6, 2012.

Once the survey was distributed, a total of 758 respondents answered at least one question on the survey and a total of 674 respondents completed the survey. Of that number, three (3) respondents had marked the “do not agree” to participate in the survey. The final sample included 671 completed survey responses. The breakdown of respondents based on race and gender can be found in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asian/ Asian American</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black/ African American</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic/ Latino or Other Spanish Origin</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native American/ American Indian Private</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White/ European American</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total respondents</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>382</td>
<td>671</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The focus of this survey was on Black females, Black males, White females, and White males because there were not enough respondents of other races to provide a viable sample for data analysis. In addition, based on the states that were chosen for the study, it was not believed that a targeted effort would be fruitful. As a result, 29 responses were eliminated as they did not indicate being Black (including Bi-racial) or White. Based on these eliminations, the final sample of respondents included 642 respondents.

Table 2 below describes the institutional demographics of the respondents included in the final sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race and Gender</th>
<th>Black Female</th>
<th>Black Male</th>
<th>White Female</th>
<th>White Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Institution Size</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;5,000</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,000-20,000</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;20,000</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Institution Type</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HBCU</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PWI</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public</strong></td>
<td>105</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Region</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwest</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total respondents</strong></td>
<td>142</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is important to note the differences in demographics that appear in Tables 1 and 2. Table 1 reflects the self-reported data of participants, and Table 2 reflects the data as coded by the researcher. Five (5) participants noted in Table 1 as White females were recoded as Black females based on their indication of being bi-racial and the definition of Black in use for this research which includes those “mixed race persons who identify as Black”. Also, two (2) participants noted in Table 1 as Black males were removed from the data set due to inconsistent survey responses.
Research Design

In this research study, there is one dependent variable, professional success. The independent variables vary based on the research question being answered and include: degrees earned, gender, race, and social support. Control variables also vary and include: years of experience, degrees earned, and social support. The research design employed in this study was quantitative.

To strengthen the results and to assess the large numbers of respondents, a web-based survey was utilized. The survey instrument was emailed to select Student Affairs/Higher Education administrators in the Southern and Midwestern regions of the country. These individuals were asked to complete the survey by a specified deadline date. Using a web based survey ensured ease of distribution to the intended recipients and reduced the time lag between respondents receipt and return of the survey (Evans, 2005).

Instrumentation

An original survey created by the researcher was used to collect the necessary data for this study. The research questions and hypotheses were used as a guide in the development of the survey instrument. Specifically, questions were formulated to ensure usable data would be gathered that could support or refute the research hypothesis. The dissertation committee also provided feedback that led to the inclusion of questions that enhanced the data. The instrument was sent via the Qualtrics Survey Management System licensed by Florida State University (FSU), an online survey service offered through the College of Education at no cost to faculty and students (see Appendix B).

Procedures

Field Test

Prior to the distribution of the survey, the survey items were field tested in a pilot study with 10 Student Affairs professionals to ensure the instrument would yield reliable response data. Specifically, respondents participating in the pilot test were asked to provide direct feedback related to the readability of questions, ease of understanding the information being requested, and any other feedback they could provide. Additionally, split-half reliability was employed to measure the consistency of the pilot test responses (Types of Reliability, 2011).
To test reliability, the survey questions were divided into two groups – demographic questions and opinion questions. Demographic questions were those that asked specifically about age, experience, race, gender, salary, position level, and institution. Opinion questions were those that asked about social support, race and gender disparities, and stereotypes. For demographic questions, the equal-length Spearman-Brown test gave a reliability coefficient of .84; the Cronbach alpha was .723, which indicates strong reliability. For opinion questions, the equal-length Spearman-Brown test gave a reliability coefficient of .026; the Cronbach alpha was .013, which indicates low reliability. Reliable pilot test responses guided all needed modifications to the demographic questions in the instrument to ensure its usefulness and understandability. Open ended segments were added to the opinion questions to allow respondents to clarify their answers and increase the likelihood of accurate interpretations of the responses. In addition, before distribution of the web published questionnaire, the researcher utilized colleagues and dissertation committee members to test the readability and usefulness of the survey.

**Data Collection**

Survey distribution was completed through electronic communication. Emails were gathered by the researcher through a process of collecting those publicly available on college and university websites. Participants self-reported information related to their race, gender, job status, and education level. By so doing, they provided the researcher an opportunity to evaluate the relevance of previously cited research that indicates the status of Black female Student Affairs administrators.

Those respondents who elected to do so also identified others who fit the criteria of the target population and provided their email addresses to the researcher. All written communications were archived for the purpose of maintaining accurate records related to correspondence. In addition, prior to participating in the research study, all potential participants were required to read the informed consent form and formally agree to participate in the web based survey. Upon the close of the survey and the receipt of completed surveys, all responses were assigned a numerical value, and input into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), which was used for statistical analysis of the data. Once the data was input, it was reviewed for errors and/or missing information. Any erroneous or incomplete data was removed from the data set. Data was considered erroneous or incomplete if responses fell outside of
acceptable ranges or were not consistent with questions asked (Creswell, 2008). A total of 116 responses were eliminated based on this review of the data.

**Data Analysis**

Descriptive analysis of the results were used to summarize the overall trends of the data. Descriptive statistics were used to find general tendencies displayed in the data (Creswell, 2008). Statistical analysis of the mean, and percentiles were used to provide a clear representation of how all responses were distributed (Creswell, 2008).

In addition to descriptive analysis, inferential statistics were used to analyze the data. Inferential analyses included t-tests, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and regression analysis. Inferential analysis was used to draw conclusions for larger populations based on the results provided by the sample (Creswell, 2008). The research hypotheses were tested and conclusions drawn based on the information derived from the statistical analysis of the data and provided insight into the ways in which scores compare with each other (Creswell, 2008).

In the following sections, a thorough discussion of the results of the data analysis is presented. The findings will be explained in detail and specific statistics will be included to emphasize those findings. Following the specific results, an overall summary of the results and their implications is described. Finally, limitations and delimitations, as well as suggestions for future research will be described to accurately describe the data and provide perspective (Creswell, 2008).

There is limited research on the wage and status disparities that may be prevalent amongst the diverse populations of student affairs professionals. Knowledge of the salaries and professional authority of those in administrative positions is important because it can help paint a full picture of achievement or explain the professional disparities that Black women in particular face as administrators. To that end, the following three research questions were answered through the testing of corresponding hypotheses.

**Research Question 1.** Are Black women numerically underrepresented in positions of administrative authority at colleges and universities in comparison to Black males, White females and White males?

**Corresponding hypothesis** - (H1) The number of Black female administrators in positions of professional authority at colleges and universities will be significantly lower than the
number of administrators of another race and/or gender. To test the first hypothesis, a cross tabulation was performed.

**Corresponding Hypothesis** – (H2) Black female administrators will be over-represented in entry level and mid-level positions in higher education administration. To further test this hypothesis, an ANOVA was performed to compare the demographic groups (Black females, Black males, White females, White males) by position level.

**Research Question 2.** Are Black women in positions of administrative authority earning advanced degrees in Student Affairs/Higher Education Administration?

**Corresponding Hypothesis** – (H3) Black female administrators who earn terminal degrees in Higher Education will be more likely to earn senior level positions in higher education administration. To test Hypothesis H3, the researcher conducted a frequency analysis controlling for race, gender, and doctoral degree earned.

**Corresponding Hypothesis** – (H4) By contrast the acquisition of terminal degrees will be lower amongst those of other races and/or the other gender who have attained senior level positions. To test Hypothesis H4, after controlling for those with senior level administrative positions, an ANOVA comparing the demographic groups, Black females, Black males, White females, White males, by highest degree earned. The variables for degrees were assigned numeric values as follows: Associates Degree= 1; Bachelors Degree = 2; Masters Degree = 3; Doctoral Degree = 4.

**Research Question 3 -** Are the work experiences of Black women in higher education administration positions similar or different to those of a different race and/or gender?

**Corresponding Hypothesis** – (H5) Black female administrators will report less social support than administrators of other races and/or gender.

To test Hypothesis H5, the variable “Social Support” was created by grouping a specific set of questions and assigning a numeric value to the corresponding answers. The questions included in the variable “Social Support” are as follows:

1. Do you believe your work and contributions are valued on your campus?
2. Do you believe you have sufficient opportunities to network on your campus?
3. Do you believe you are well liked by your colleagues?
4. Do you have mentors in the field of Student Affairs?
5. Do you have a support network within your institution?
6. Do you rely on colleagues and/or friends at work to vent about your work problems?

Positive responses to the above questions were given a numeric value of 1 and no responses were given a numeric value of 0. This coding resulted in a “Social Support” score of 0-6 for each respondent.

Research Study Timeline

A Human Subjects Application was submitted for review on December 4, 2011. Upon review by the Florida State University Institutional Review Board (IRB), and after required changes were made, the application was approved on December 21, 2011. To collect the data, the survey window was open for four (4) weeks to allow 30 days for adequate survey response. The researcher initiated the data collection window on January 9, 2012 and closed it on February 6, 2012 to ensure that those who might be most likely to provide useful responses were able to devote the needed time and attention to completion of the survey. This time period was selected due to its occurrence just after winter break and well before spring break. Starting at an intentional time in the academic year provided adequate timing to complete all necessary university requirements, including the application to the IRB.

Ethical Considerations

All potential respondents were treated with respect at all times and, as their participation was completely voluntary, maintained the option to withdraw from the study at any time up until the survey was completed. In addition, no personal identifiable information was collected and as a result their responses were kept confidential. Furthermore, the utmost integrity of the research process was upheld and the researcher took all necessary precautions to ensure the data was used and interpreted appropriately.

Summary

The research, data collection, and analysis was conducted for the purpose of evaluating the current status of Black female administrators in higher education and their potential for success. By uncovering the current standings of Black women in higher education administration, the researcher hopes to provide a catalyst for more in depth
analysis of the broader issues surrounding race and gender in academic institutions which include discrimination, fatigue, isolation, and eventual burnout. As was previously indicated, there is limited research that focuses solely on the difficulty of Black women administrators in their quest to be of service to students, their institution, and themselves.

This study is an original work that is not connected to any previously published or conducted research. The researcher reserves the right to use these findings as a springboard for future research.
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the current status of Black women higher education administrators in comparison to other higher education administrators of another race and/or gender. A sample of Student Affairs professionals from the Southern and Midwestern region of the United States were targeted for this research. The current work experiences and reported professional success of all participants were examined to determine what experiences, if any, were unique to the Black female administrators in higher education. This chapter provides a quantitative analysis of survey responses to answer the following three research questions:

1. Are Black women numerically underrepresented in positions of administrative authority at colleges and universities in comparison to Black males, White females and White males?
2. Do Black women in positions of administrative authority earn advanced degrees in Student Affairs/Higher Education Administration?
3. How are the work experiences of Black women in Higher Education Administration similar to or different from those of a different race and/or gender?

Survey Distribution

On January 9, 2012, an e-mail was sent to 1,815 student affairs professionals in the Southern and Midwestern regions of the United States containing a brief description of the purpose of the research and an invitation to participate in this study. In addition to the initial email list, email addresses collected after the survey launch through participant referrals and public searches were added to the overall sample population which resulted in e-mails being sent to a total of 2,022 student affairs professionals. A link to the survey was sent through the Qualtrics Survey Management System to provide access to the “Career Success in Student Affairs” survey. Survey reminders were sent on January 12th, 17th, and 24th. In addition, due to limited responses from White males, Black males, and Black females, specific emails were sent on January 26th and January 30th targeting those populations until it became apparent that no additional responses were likely to be received. “Thank you” emails were also sent to those who had completed the survey. The survey closed on February 6, 2012.
Survey Responses

Once the survey was distributed, a total of 758 respondents answered at least one question on the survey and a total of 674 respondents completed the survey. Of that number, three (3) respondents “did not agree” to participate in the survey. Some who received the survey indicated that they did not consider themselves to be student affairs professionals and as a result declined to participate in the study. After the deletions described above, the sample included 671 completed survey responses.

Data were screened for incomplete responses and outliers. Of the 2,022 surveys distributed, a total of 758 were returned for an overall survey response rate of 37.4%. Eighty four (11%) responses were eliminated due to missing or incomplete data, in addition to the three (0.39%) non-respondents noted above. The focus of this survey was on Black females, Black males, White females, and White males. There was a deficit of respondents from other races so a viable sample was not possible. An additional 29 responses (3.8%) were eliminated as they did not indicate being Black (including Bi-racial) or White. The final sample size included 642 respondents.

Analysis of the Research Questions and Corresponding Hypotheses

There is limited research on the wage and status disparities that may be prevalent amongst the diverse populations of student affairs professionals. Knowing the salaries and professional authority of those in administrative positions is important because it can help paint a full picture of achievement or explain the professional disparities that Black women in particular face as administrators. To that end, the following three research questions were answered through the testing of corresponding hypotheses.

Research Question 1. Are Black women numerically underrepresented in positions of administrative authority at colleges and universities in comparison to Black males, White females and White males?

Corresponding hypothesis - (H1) The number of Black female administrators in positions of professional authority at colleges and universities will be significantly lower than the number of administrators of another race and/or gender.
To test the first hypothesis, a cross tabulation was performed. The result of this analysis is indicated in Figure 2.

![Figure 2- Cross Tabulation: Position Level by Race and Gender](image)

The above figure states the percentage of Student Affairs professionals who reported being in entry, mid, and senior level positions. For the purpose of this research and responding to the research question, only senior level positions are deemed “positions of administrative authority”. Based on the data collected, the numbers and subsequently the percentages indicated above, support Hypothesis 1.

This finding suggests that in general, Black female administrators are the least likely of the groups represented within this research to serve in positions of professional authority at higher education institutions. The relatively low numbers of Black women in positions of professional authority combined with the high number of respondents who indicated that a common stereotype for Black women is that they are believed to be in their position as a result of affirmative action is very telling. It indicates that even though there are not very many Black female leaders, there is also a belief that the current Black female leaders should not be in their positions.

**Corresponding Hypothesis – (H2)** Black female administrators will be over-represented in entry level and mid-level positions in higher education administration.

Based on the information indicated in Figure 2 above, the percentage of Black female administrators who reported having acquired entry and mid-level positions is higher than that of
Black males, White females, and White males. Specifically, 24.6% of Black female
administrators self-reported being in entry level administrative positions and 59.8% of Black
female administrators self-reported being in mid-level administrative positions in contrast to
27.6% (entry) and 50.8% (mid) of White females, 19.2% (entry) and 50% (mid) of White males
and 21.1% (entry) and 45.5% (mid) of Black males.

To further test this hypothesis, an ANOVA was performed to compare the demographic
groups (Black females, Black males, White females, White males) by position level. The results
of this analysis were: $F (3, 638) = 4.05, p< .007$ which indicated that these values are statistically
significant and Black women are concentrated in Mid-level positions. This data supports
Hypothesis 2.

This finding supports current literature which indicates that Black female administrators
are often relegated to positions where they are forced to carry out policies, rather than be
involved in the creation of those policies (Crawford & Smith, 2005). Further, the relatively high
percentage of Black female administrators in mid-level positions in comparison to the other
groups studied, indicates that, while there is room for advancement for Black female
administrators, that advancement is limited to a certain career level. It is also important to note
that the within race disparities related to career level by gender is much more dramatic for Blacks
than Whites.

Research Question 2. Do Black women in positions of administrative authority earn
advanced degrees in Student Affairs/Higher Education Administration?

Corresponding Hypothesis – (H3) Black female administrators who earn terminal
degrees in Higher Education will be more likely to serve in senior level positions versus
entry and mid-level positions in higher education administration.

Corresponding Hypothesis – (H4) By contrast the acquisition of terminal degrees will be
lower amongst those of other races and/or the other gender who have attained senior level
positions.

To test Hypothesis H3, the researcher conducted a frequency analysis controlling for
race, gender, and doctoral degree earned. The result of this analysis is depicted in Figure 3.
Based on the results indicated above, the percentage of Black female (46%) administrators who had earned doctoral degrees and reported having acquired senior level positions is lower than that of Black males (75%), White males (56%), and White females (53%). In addition, Black females were the only group to show a lower proportion of participants who had acquired senior level positions versus mid-level positions after having received a doctoral degree. This data does not support Hypothesis 3.

This finding indicates that, while having the doctoral degree did greatly increase a Black female administrator’s chances of obtaining a senior level position (only 8% of Black female with less than a doctoral degree reported being in positions of professional authority in comparison to 16.1% of White females, 17.2% of Black males, and 24.1% of White males) the acquisition of the doctoral degree did not make Black females as a group more likely to serve in
a position of professional authority. Additionally, Black females were the only group who reported more administrators serving in mid-level positions than senior level positions after acquiring the doctoral degree. This data “makes sense” only when taking into account that many respondents reported stereotypes of Black women being poor leaders, less capable, and not working well with others.

To test Hypothesis H4, after controlling for those with senior level administrative positions, an ANOVA comparing the demographic groups, Black females, Black males, White females, White males, by highest degree earned. The variables for degrees were assigned numeric values as follows: Associates Degree = 1; Bachelors Degree = 2; Masters Degree = 3; Doctoral Degree = 4. This analysis produced mean data that indicated that Black female administrators in senior level administrative positions were, as a group, more educated than all other comparison groups, however that difference was minimal.

![Table 3 - Mean and Standard Deviation – Degree Earned](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparative Variables</th>
<th>Black Female</th>
<th>Black Male</th>
<th>White Female</th>
<th>White Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Degree earned - Mean</td>
<td>3.55a</td>
<td>3.5a</td>
<td>3.35b</td>
<td>3.38b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of this analysis were: F (3, 153) = 0.94, p< .422 which indicates that there is minimal statistically significant difference between the groups as it relates to degree attainment. In addition the Tukey Method of Multiple Comparison (MC) was conducted to compare the means of all four (4) groups. MC methods are used when “the researcher desires to compare each mean with each and every other mean” (Glass & Hopkins, 1996, p. 446). Different subscript letters indicate a statistical difference (however minimal it may be) in the means, and the same subscript indicates statistical similarities. As noted above, degree attainment was similar by race, but not gender. This data partially supports Hypothesis 3b.

These findings show that on average Black male and female administrators who are in positions of professional authority are more educated (by degree) than their White counterparts. However, the difference in education level is not statistically significant and, therefore, education
level between races is fairly similar. It is important to note that this is the only finding where there were more similarities among race rather than gender for both groups.

Research Question 3 – How are the work experiences of Black women in higher education administration positions similar to or different from those of a different race and/or gender?

Corresponding Hypothesis – (H5) Black female administrators will report less social support than administrators of other races and/or gender.

To test Hypothesis H5, the variable “Social Support” was created by grouping a specific set of questions and assigning a numeric value to the corresponding answers. The questions included in the variable “Social Support” are as follows:
1. Do you believe your work and contributions are valued on your campus?
2. Do you believe you have sufficient opportunities to network on your campus?
3. Do you believe you are well liked by your colleagues?
4. Do you have mentors in the field of Student Affairs?
5. Do you have a support network within your institution?
6. Do you rely on colleagues and/or friends at work to vent about your work problems?

Positive responses to the above questions were given a numeric value of 1 and no responses were given a numeric value of 0. This coding resulted in a “Social Support” score of 0-6 for each respondent. Reliability of this variable was tested and found to be p= .556 which indicates a low reliability of the variable score. The researcher attributes this reliability score to the short length of the Social Support scale based on the literature that indicates that the reliability of a measure can be linked to the overall length of the measure (Glass & Hopkins, 1996).

Once these variables were reviewed, an ANOVA comparing the demographic groups, Black females, Black males, White females, White males on the variable, Social Support was conducted. This analysis produced mean data that revealed that Black female administrators, as a group, indicated a lower amount of perceived social support than all other comparison groups. The mean social support of those in all administrative positions is as follows:
Table 4 – Mean and Standard Deviation – Social Support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparative Variables</th>
<th>Social Support -</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Black Female</td>
<td>Black Male</td>
<td>White Female</td>
<td>White Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.37a</td>
<td>4.9b</td>
<td>5.07b</td>
<td>5.08b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of this analysis were: $F (3, 638) = 11.183, p< .000$ which indicates that there is statistically significant difference between the groups as it relates to perceived social support. In addition the Tukey MC Method was conducted to compare the means of all four (4) groups. Different subscript letters indicate a statistical difference in the means, and the same subscript indicates no statistical difference. As noted above, perceived social support was similar for all groups except Black females. This data confirms Hypothesis 4.

These findings support existing literature that suggests that Black female administrators often do not find adequate support from colleagues and supervisors (Clayborne and Hamrick, 2007). Further it identifies a notable indication of Black women’s status as “outsiders within” academia as all other groups reported more similar levels of social support. Lastly, it is important to note that this is the only category where finding was unique to the Black female experience and suggests that in this area, regardless of race or gender, Black women would not be able to relate to any other group.

To further explore the concept of social support, questions related to promotion, perceptions of discrimination, and stereotypes were asked of all respondents. The results are as follows:

![Figure 5 - Response to “Do you believe you have ever been overlooked for a promotion?” by Race and Gender - All](chart.png)
In responding to this question, participants who believed they had been overlooked for a promotion were asked why they may have been overlooked. Overwhelmingly, the primary response by all, regardless of race or gender, was “politics” or supervisors hiring favorites even if those favorites appeared to be under-qualified. However, a large number of responses were also related to some form of discrimination. White males, in particular, tended to cite a desire for diversity as a primary reason they were overlooked. Examples of those types of response are located in Appendix D.

According to the findings of this research, perceptions related to race and gender vary depending upon race and gender. The figures below illustrate the differences in those perceptions.

Figure 6- Response to “In your opinion has your race ever impacted your colleagues’ perception of you?” by Race and Gender

Anecdotal responses help to provide context to the quantitative results. Overwhelmingly, the primary response by White females and White males was that their race was considered a negative as it relates to being equipped to oversee and/or participate in areas linked to diversity. Responses from Black females and Black males indicated their belief that they were not accurately or well received in general by their peers due to their race. Examples of these types of response are located in Appendix E.
A particularly interesting finding is that even though many of the results of this research are split along gender lines, Black females were far less likely to perceive gendered discrimination than White women. In their responses, Black women were also less likely to note specific examples of how their gender had impacted their colleagues’ perceptions. For those Black women who did provide concrete examples, there was a preponderance of responses that used terms that can be described as “overly emotional.” White females who responded to this question were more likely to note a perceived lack of skill, being emotional, or being less respected. Interestingly, White males were open about their gender impacting their colleagues’ perceptions in a positive way. Examples of these types of response are located in Appendix F.
While there were more than 400 responses to this question, a sample (see Appendix G), was selected that represented the consistent themes that appeared throughout the responses. Some responses that were very unique or unexpected responses are also reported here. In addition, it appeared that many respondents were reluctant to discuss specific stereotypes and preferred, instead, to give detailed descriptions of critical race theory or other descriptions of the psychology of race and racism. Additionally, it was noted consistently that “stereotypes exist about all people.” While these descriptions were interesting and true, they did not respond specifically to the opinion oriented aspect of the questions, nor did they provide true insight into the thoughts, feelings, and experiences of the respondents – which was the goal.

Based on these responses, a few stereotypes were reported consistently from all groups. To determine the frequency of certain words and themes, all responses were copied from the data set and pasted into a word document. The researcher then utilized the search function to determine the number of times certain words or phrases appeared. Each response was then reviewed for context. For example, a search for the word “mean” indicated that it appeared 16 times, however after reviewing each occurrence for context it was evident that the word appeared for various reasons, i.e. “that doesn’t mean…”, “demeanor…”, “they are mean to people”, etc.

As a result, the actual number of times the word “mean” appeared as a description of a stereotype was seven (7). Based on this frequency analysis and contextual review, the word “angry” appeared more than any other word/description.

Specifically, terms describing Black women as angry, aggressive, difficult, having a bad attitude, or being emotional appeared in 47% of all the responses. Perceptions of Black women being less capable due to being less educated, lazy, single mothers, or hired solely based on affirmative action appeared in 14% of all the responses. Comments related to Black women being loud or opinionated appeared in 12% of all the responses. Statements related to Black women being bossy, pushy, unfriendly, or a bitch appeared in 11% of the responses. “Compliments” such as strong or hard-working appeared in 9.5% of all the responses.

Responses seemed to be consistent depending on the group who was providing the response. While there were “complimentary” stereotypes from all groups regardless of race or gender, White males were the most likely to “cushion” their responses with statements like “I don’t believe this, but…” or to follow-up the stereotype with a compliment, i.e. “I believe others
perceive [Black women] as lazy and loud which is unfortunate because many work harder than any other group at the University,” or to skip the open-ended part of the question altogether.

For those White males who did submit stereotypes without qualifiers, their primary responses were related to “affirmative action hires.” Responses from White women were also more likely to use “affirmative action hire” but also included statements associated with being uneducated, unfriendly, not fair to all students, and overdressed/fashion oriented. Responses from Black men were more likely to include comments related to being mean, ambitious at the expense of others, and bossy. Responses from Black women were more likely to include comments related to being loud, angry, aggressive, or ambitious. Additionally, there was no variation in the types of responses given based on position level.

It is important to note that the response trends noted above should not be interpreted as the feelings or perceptions of the respondent or the group they are a part of unless they specifically used “I” statements. It is also important to note that various stereotypes were submitted and came from all groups. For example, all groups used the word, "aggressive" and all groups submitted complimentary stereotypes. The above statements related to trends are merely indications of within group similarities in responses, and is in no way a suggestion that certain groups hold particular stereotypes.

Additional Results

Due to the nature of the above research questions and the subsequent results, there is room for interpretation related to the cause and effect of the results reported above. Appendix H includes figures and tables which illustrate that regardless of education level, years of experience, or region of the country, Black women consistently earned less and advanced less in positions of administrative authority than Black men, White women, and White men.

Although the figures in Appendix H show very similar results, a regression analysis of income was revealing. Using income level as the dependent variable, with race/gender, education level, years of experience, and position level as independent variables, it appears that there is a difference between the correlations of race/gender depending on your race/gender. Specifically, while race/gender did not appear to be statistically significant for Black women in determining a
correlation with income, it was statistically significant for White men. These results are illustrated in the tables below.

Table 5 - Regression Analysis of Income for Black Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.797^a</td>
<td>.635</td>
<td>.628</td>
<td>.798</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), BlackWomen, How many years have you worked full-time? (In any capacity), What is your highest degree earned?, Is your position considered a(n):
b. Dependent Variable: What is your current income level from your position?

This table indicates the Adjusted R square is .628 which demonstrates that in this case, the regression explains 62.8% of the variation of income level and is a strong relationship.

Table 6 – Regression Analysis of Income for Black Women Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-1.212</td>
<td>.294</td>
<td>-4.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What is your highest degree earned?</td>
<td>.575</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td>.268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How many years have you worked full-time? (In any capacity)</td>
<td>.161</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>.203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is your position considered a(n): entry, mid, senior level</td>
<td>.979</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BlackWomen</td>
<td>-.122</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>-.046</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: What is your current income level from your position?
Table 6 indicates that race and gender, in this instance Black women, is the only independent variable that is negatively correlated with the dependent variable, income level, but it is also the only independent variable that is not statistically significant which indicates that the relationship between income and race and gender is most likely due to chance in this case. As it relates to income, race and gender is not directly connected to income levels. However position level was the variable that had the greatest positive effect on income.

Table 7 – Regression Analysis of Income for White Men

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.797(^a)</td>
<td>.635</td>
<td>.631</td>
<td>.865</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) Predictors: (Constant), WhiteMen, What is your highest degree earned?, How many years have you worked full-time? (In any capacity), Is your position considered a(n):

Table 7 indicates the Adjusted R square is .631 which demonstrates that the regression explains 63.1% of the variation of income level and is a strong relationship.

Table 8 – Regression Analysis of Income for White Men Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-1.526</td>
<td>.267</td>
<td>-5.706</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What is your highest degree earned? | .593 | .089 | .212 | 6.682 | .000 |

How many years have you worked full-time? (In any capacity) | .199 | .032 | .249 | 6.188 | .000 |

Is your position considered a(n): entry, mid, senior level | .996 | .083 | .492 | 11.996 | .000 |

WhiteMen | .248 | .086 | .086 | 2.874 | .04 |

\(^a\) Dependent Variable: What is your current income level from your position?
Table 8 indicates that all independent variables including race and gender, in this instance, White men, are positively correlated with the dependent variable, income level, and are all statistically significant. This finding is important to note because, while position level had the greatest positive effect on income, it also indicates that without any other variable, just being a White male increases income level.

Often it is position level that dictates income and these findings suggest that this is the case, so a regression analysis was run using position level as the dependent variable, and race and gender, education level, and years of experience, as independent variables. It appears that, as with income, there is a difference between the correlations of race/gender depending on your race/gender. Specifically, while race/gender was statistically significant for Black women in determining correlation with position level, it was not statistically significant for White men. These results are illustrated in Tables 10 & 12.

Table 9 - Regression Analysis of Position Level for Black Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.661(^a)</td>
<td>.436</td>
<td>.429</td>
<td>.508</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) Predictors: (Constant), How many years have you worked full-time? (In any capacity), BlackWomen, What is your highest degree earned?

Table 9 indicates the Adjusted R square is .429 which demonstrates that in this case, the regression explains 42.9 % of the variation of position level and is strong.
Table 10 – Regression Analysis of Position Level for Black Women Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.484</td>
<td>.184</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.628</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BlackWomen</td>
<td>- .193</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>-.141</td>
<td>-2.815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is your highest degree earned?</td>
<td>.238</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>4.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many years have you worked full-time? (In any capacity)</td>
<td>.222</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.545</td>
<td>10.432</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 indicates that race/gender in this instance, Black women, is the only independent variable that is negatively correlated with dependent variable, position level. All variables are statistically significant. This finding is particularly compelling because, while being a Black female did not statistically determine income, it does have a statistically significant negative effect on the variable that does have the greatest correlation with income, position level. As a result, race/gender has an indirect effect on income through position level.

Figure 9 – Direct and Indirect Effect of Race/Gender on Position Level and Income for Black Women
Further, the negative impact of simply being born a Black female almost completely negates the advantage you gain from degrees earned or experience. This regression also helps to further explain the previous finding which indicated that Black women were no more likely to attain a senior level position after acquiring the doctoral degree.

Table 11 – Regression Analysis of Position Level for White Men

Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.686(^a)</td>
<td>.470</td>
<td>.466</td>
<td>.514</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) Predictors: (Constant), White Men, What is your highest degree earned?, How many years have you worked full-time? (In any capacity)

This table indicates the Adjusted R square is .466 which demonstrates that in this case, the regression explains 46.6 % of the variation of position level and is strong.

Table 12 – Regression Analysis of Position Level for White Men Coefficients

Coefficients\(^a\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>.344</td>
<td>.158</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>2.176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is your highest degree earned?</td>
<td>.215</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>4.169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many years have you worked full-time? (In any capacity)</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.618</td>
<td>16.472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WhiteMen</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>1.525</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) Dependent Variable: Is your position considered a(n): entry, mid, senior level
Table 12 indicates that all independent variables including race/gender, in this instance, White men, are positively correlated with the dependent variable, position level. Interestingly, race/gender, in this instance White men, is the only independent variable that is not statistically significant. This finding indicates that it is probable that the relationship between position level and race/gender is most likely due to chance. This finding indicates that White men do not have an inherent advantage in regards to position level based on their race/gender. However, it can be argued that the fact that White men are judged solely on their merits becomes an advantage when taken into account the inherent disadvantage associated with being born a Black female.

Based on this research, Black women and White women, are far less likely than their male counter parts to report holding senior level student affairs positions. In addition, while White males numerically outnumbered all groups in those positions, proportionally, Black males were the most likely to report holding senior student affairs positions. As noted in Figure 19, 32.6% of Black males reported holding senior level Student Affairs positions in comparison to 30.8% of White males, 21.9% of White females, and only 14.6% of Black females.

The results of this survey indicated that gender is more of a factor than race as it relates to income. Participants in this study were asked to report their income solely from their Student Affairs position. As indicated in Figure 20, 26.4% of White males indicated earning more than $85,000 per year in comparison to 22.8% of Black males, 14.6% of White females, and only 12.4% of Black females. Conversely, on the lower end of the earning scale, 48.9% of White women reported earning $45,000 or less per year in comparison to 46% of Black women, 38% of Black males, and 31.3% of White males.

In each of the above named categories, gender is perceived to be the mitigating factor rather than the surface qualifications of degree attainment and experience. While a broad look at the findings might suggest that there is a connection between degree attainment, experience, and ascension to senior level positions, there is evidence within this research that indicates that after controlling for degrees earned and years of experience, the differences between position attainment and income still cut across gender lines. For example, only 15.9% of White females (Figure 23) reported having attained the doctoral degree in comparison to 18.2% of Black females, 22% of White males, and 29.3% of Black males. This could explain why White and Black female administrators are represented highly among the lower pay scales and position levels rather than the higher pay scales and position levels. However, Figures 8 & 9 below show
that after controlling for degree and years of experience, the pattern does not change. The information below only includes those respondents who reported having 10 years or more of experience and an earned doctoral degree.

**Figure 10** - Position Level of Respondents with 10 or more years of experience and an earned doctoral degree

**Figure 11** - Income of Respondents with 10 or more years of experience and an earned doctoral degree

These two figures show results that indicate that while gender is a negative factor in the attainment of senior level positions and earning higher income, race alone does not appear to be a negative factor in either category. Specifically, Figure 8 shows that 75% of Black men with 10 or more years of experience and a doctoral degree are serving as senior level Student Affairs
professionals in comparison to 58.1% of White women, 57.9% of White men, and 50% of Black women.

As it relates to income, Figure 10 shows that 70.8% of Black men with 10 or more years of experience and a doctoral degree reported earning more $85,000 or more per year, in comparison to 65.8% of White men, 54.9% of White women, and 54.2% of Black women. For this particular grouping, it is important to note that there was a higher percentage of White men who reported earning more than $100,000 per year (WM 47.4%, BM 45.8%), but once that figure was combined with those who earn $85,000-$100,000 per year (WM 18.4%, BM 25%), the percentage for Black men became higher. This finding seems particularly noteworthy because more Black men reported being senior level administrators, but White men report the highest earnings. Additionally, the comparatively similar income levels for women is also misleading in that there was a higher percentage of White women who reported earning more than $100,000 per year (WF 35.5%, BF 25%), but once that figure was combined with those who earn $85,000-100,000 per year (WF 19.4%, BF 29.2%), the percentage for Black women and White women became more on par.

Another telling finding is the percentages of Black women with 10 or more years of experience and a doctoral degree who earn between $45,000- $65,000 per year. Survey results show that 29.2% of Black women were at this earning level, compared to only 12.9% of White women, 8.3% of Black men, and 7.9% of White men.

Based on these discrepancies in income, both in this controlled sample and the overall sample as well as the discrepancy found in the larger sample population, it should not be a surprise that the group most dissatisfied with their salary range is Black females. What is interesting and probably most appropriate, the only group to have a majority of participants indicate that they believe their pay is adequate for their job function was White males.
Summary

The information provided in these results illustrates that there are clear discrepancies as it relates to both race and gender in promotion and pay grades, however these discrepancies most negatively impact Black women. This chapter has presented an overview of the quantitative analysis used to answer three research questions in this study, the summary of results, and provided limited examples of the anecdotal responses provided by the respondents. Chapter 5 will offer the discussion, inferences drawn from the results, comparison of findings to prior research, limitations, implications, recommendations for future research, and conclusion.
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The purpose of this quantitative research study is to examine the level to which Black women have obtained leadership positions as administrators at higher education institutions. While previous research has demonstrated that obtaining leadership positions is problematic for Black students and Black faculty (Hughes & Howard-Hamilton, 2003), little research focuses solely on the plight of Black women administrators. The research questions that guided this research are:

1. Are Black women numerically underrepresented in positions of administrative authority at colleges and universities in comparison to Black males, White females and White males?
2. Do Black women in positions of administrative authority earn advanced degrees in Student Affairs/Higher Education Administration?
3. How are the work experiences of Black women in Higher Education Administration similar to or different from those of a different race and/or gender?

Many studies that focus on race and/or gender tend to group Black women with Black men as “Blacks” or with White women as “Women.” The results of this study indicate that the experiences of Black women are varied and at times closely resemble the experiences of Black men, while at other times closely resemble the experiences of White women, but are unique enough to warrant their separation as a distinct group to be examined in full.

This chapter provides further discussion on the study’s findings, insight on their significance, and details how the findings may be useful in higher education administration and research. The first section of the chapter outlines the major conclusions as drawn from the results of the analyses. The second section discusses the specific findings outlined in Chapter 4 with interpretation of the results. The third section offers implications for these findings, and how they may be used by Student Affairs practitioners, faculty, and other higher education researchers. The fourth section discusses overall limitations with suggestions for how the study could be improved for future researchers. Finally, the chapter concludes with an examination of future research topics which emerged from this study.
Conclusions

This study investigated the current status of Black women whose chosen career path is higher education administration and found statistically significant results that indicate that Black women earn less, experience less social support, and are less likely to attain senior level administrative positions than their Black male, White female, and White male colleagues. More specifically, the results show that there is no single variable that improves the likelihood of “professional success” for Black women. This is important to note because for all other groups, report of possessing a doctoral degree increased the overall chance that a professional would report being a senior level Student Affairs administrator.

Based on the results of this study, there are a few inferences that can be drawn related to professional success for Black women. As noted by Carter, Pearson, & Shavlik, (1996) Black women are “torn by the lines of bias that currently divide white from nonwhite in our society, and male from female… As a result, women of color face significant obstacles to their full participation in and contribution to higher education” (p. 460). This statement is played out in full through the results that show Black women being negatively affected in any circumstance where those of the same race and/or gender are negatively affected. Although Black women share multiple experiences with those of the same race or gender, they are the only group to be impacted negatively in all categories.

For example, gender, rather than race seems to be the strongest factor contributing to decreased opportunities as it relates to senior level student affairs positions. The information provided in the results in the previous chapter illustrates that there are clear discrepancies as it relates to both race and gender in promotion and pay grades, however these discrepancies most negatively impact Black women. The question is "why". Why is it that Black men and White women with credentials similar to White males are more likely to serve in senior roles but Black females do not gain any advantage from either race or gender? Why is it that even when Black and White women can earn comparatively high incomes, Black women are still overly represented in lower pay rungs?

As a part of this study, participants were asked if they had ever been overlooked for a promotion. For those who answered "yes", they were asked to provide the reason they believed they had been overlooked. An overwhelming number of respondents, regardless of race or gender, attributed their lack of advancement to politics, supervisors choosing to promote friends,
and personality conflicts with supervisors. If these descriptions are accurate, then the low opinion of Black women in the workplace could be a hindrance to their professional success.

For example, one senior level administrator stated “… I have found many Black women leaders to be strong willed and controlling. They often tend to believe in a positional leadership model (I am the boss therefore what I say goes) and lack facilitative leadership skills.” Although this respondent may still be willing to promote a Black female administrator to a leadership role, based on this generalization, it would be fair to assert that if given another option, they might choose someone whom they believe has a stronger leadership skill set. Another respondent remarked “the biggest stereotype that I see on a regular basis, is that black women are ‘angry’ and ‘combative’ in working relationships. I supervise a black female employee, and cannot believe the comments and reactions that others in our department have to her perceived work style.” While this respondent seems shocked by others’ perceptions, he does acknowledge that they are held and shared by others. In addition to comments made by others, Black women indicated an awareness of and frustration with these stereotypes and their personal experiences. For example, one Black female respondent stated, “[others think] that we are condescending, mean, unprofessional and harsh. Sometimes I feel that a majority of black [women] feel they can't be their real selves at work because they will be judged.” Another Black female respondent indicated a belief that Black women are “not interested in connecting with colleagues,” while another expressed that she is “worn out with defending myself and others against the ‘Angry Black Woman’ tag assigned to any woman of color wishing to advance herself”. Further, even when Black women acknowledged that they have not been able to develop specific relationships at work, they are often more frustrated by not having their work product appreciated. In response to being overlooked for a promotion, one Black female administrator remarked, “Absolutely! I feel that I am not a part of the ‘club.’ I'm not white and I'm not male. They are given praise and recognition. They are asked to sit on committees and I KNOW that I work harder, am more productive, and [more] talented than they are…” These and similar comments provide insight into the lived and perceived experiences of Black women and others who interact with them. While the numerical data shows what is happening in the professional lives of Black female administrators, these responses can be used to offer possible explanations related to why these things are happening.
The conceptual framework illustrated in Chapter 1, “Black Female Social Interactionism” can be used to explain the unique experiences of Black women. Specifically, perceptions related to Black women, work-related stereotypes, and less social support negatively impact Black women’s ability to attain professional authority in higher education administration.

Based on the data from this research and the responses to questions within the study as reported herein, the following are the six primary inferences drawn related to the Black female experience. These inferences will serve to explain the concept of “Black Female Social Interactionism” in higher education institutions that emerged from the theoretical framework used for this study:

1. **Collective Experience** - Black women share a collective experience of isolation and marginalization in higher education.

2. **Community Disengagement** - The experience of isolation and marginalization leads Black women to disengage from the broader campus community.

3. **De-feminization** - Black women were deemed to be highly emotional. However, the primary emotion associated with Black women is aggression (masculine) and referred to negatively as anger whether or not it is actually anger or aggression, and whether or not it is in response to an upsetting interaction. Women in general are weak and fragile, but Black women are strong and forceful. As a result, a trait that society associates with femininity (being emotional), is portrayed in a masculine way that evokes an image of a rough or tough woman, rather than a delicate or soft woman.

4. **Negative Perception** - As a group, Black women are not trusted as leaders due to a perceived lack of knowledge/ability, unproven leadership competency, and/or fear of being subjected to their anger. While Black women work to demonstrate their knowledge, skills, and abilities, they reject “defending” their personality unnecessarily and to the point of exhaustion.

5. **Professional Priorities** - Although many Black women are aware of the negative perceptions of themselves and their behavior, their focus as a group is primarily on the work they produce. As a group, they believe their product in the workplace to be more important than interpersonal relationships at work. This “prioritization” of work-product over relationships perpetuates a perception of being anti-social rather than committed to their job.
6. **Relative Strangers** - “Others” perception of Black women as angry and/or anti-social combined with Black women’s prioritization of work-product over interpersonal relationships creates a barrier to Black women’s full participation in the broader campus community. As a result, Black women as a group and their potential contributions are not fully understood or accepted.

Each individual may have unique experiences. Not all Black women will have or have had difficulty maneuvering through their career in higher education administration. The above noted depiction of the Black female experience in higher education seeks to explain the phenomena of Black women administrators as a group being paid less, professionally less advanced, perceiving less social support, and being viewed through a lens of fear and inferiority based on the results of this quantitative analysis.

The six components of “Black Female Social Interactionism” which emerged from this study provides a perspective on the Black female experience in higher education guided primarily through the framework of Black Feminist Thought and Symbolic Interactionism (see Diagram 1). It is the hope of the researcher that these components will help both Black female administrators and those who interact with Black female administrators, better understand these interactions and actively work towards improved communication and working relationships. It is an added goal that Black female administrators will be able to utilize this information to be aware of and improve their collective status within higher education.

**Discussion**

This study adds to the existing literature on the experiences of all Student Affairs administrators with a focus on Black female administrators and the findings are consistent with those in previous literature that indicate that Black female administrators face unique challenges in the realm of higher education. Specifically, Hughes and Howard-Hamilton (2003) note that the perception of Black women as strong and independent is detrimental to their professional success and is a byproduct of “inadequate support systems and isolation” (p. 100). Further, this research adds to the body of knowledge because, in addition to describing the experiences of Black female administrators, it also provides anecdotal evidence that helps to explain why Black women have the experiences indicated by the data.

This study indicates that Black female administrators as a group are less likely to ascend to senior level positions and the most likely group among Black women, Black men, White
women and White men to be dissatisfied and feel unsupported. These negative experiences could impact their ability and desire to fully engage with colleagues or in the campus community, which could perpetuate the cycle of misunderstanding and disengagement. Further, this study indicates that gender is an even larger barrier than race in higher education and that much work remains to be done to ensure that the contributions of women, regardless of race, are valued at our institutions of higher learning.

In their study of women university leaders, Tomas, Lavie, and Guillamon (2010) noted that “[regarding] the motives for the exclusion of women in management, our data suggest the following as the most outstanding (in descending order of importance): ‘attention to family and the home’, ‘the rules of the game in our society that relegate women to an inferior position’, ‘socialization processes as an important conditioning factor’, ‘female stereotypes’, ‘the possibility of getting pregnant’ and ‘lack of self-confidence’” (p. 492). Based on these motives, many women may be disqualified for positions of leadership before they apply. As a result, it is imperative that women understand the barriers they face and work intentionally to create diverse and fruitful opportunities for themselves.

Implications for Practice

This study sought to provide evidence that Black women face unique and varied obstacles as administrators in higher education. The findings indicate that the totality of experiences shared by Black female administrators as a collective group are not faced by any other group within the study. Consequently, this study provides implications for higher education administration that can improve work environments and relationships.

Those administrators who interact with Black female administrators are reminded to disregard stereotypes and to judge all colleagues based on the content of their character regardless of race, age, gender, and/or sexual orientation. In addition, whether or not personalities mesh well together, Black female administrators, like most administrators, desire to be evaluated based on their contribution in the specific role to which they are prescribed on campus as defined by their position description. As such, if a colleague is being effective, then they should be respected and their contribution should be valued. If the colleague is not being effective then that ineffectiveness should be addressed directly in a professional way.
In addition, for those Black female administrators who seek to attain senior level positions, it is important to not only be aware of the stereotypes that others may hold, but to actively engage colleagues in an effort to dispel myths and create bonds. This is not a suggestion to create disingenuous relationships, but to simply participate in the types of conversations that would help colleagues be able to relate to and better understand each other.

Finally, the vast majority of participants in this survey held at least one advanced degree. The stereotypes presented by respondents in the study indicate that regardless of the number of degrees we earn and diversity trainings we may have participated in, that the subject of race and gender is an area where many of us remain ignorant. As a result, it is imperative that institutions discover ways to approach the topic of diversity in truly meaningful ways so that practitioners of all races and genders truly begin to embrace the concept of inclusion (*engaging* those with different views and experiences) rather than what appear to be high levels of tolerance (*enduring* those with different views and experiences). Until we all begin to respect each other’s differences and disregard archaic ideas that connect abilities to arbitrary factors such as gender and race, there will continue to be misunderstandings and lost opportunities for collaboration.

**Limitations of the Study**

There are several limitations to this study that may have prevented more significant findings related to the experiences of all student affairs administrators. The most obvious limitation is focusing only on four specific groups, Black females, Black males, White females, and White males. Further, the study is limited to those who took the time to respond to the survey and the study surveyed respondents in a select group of states located in the South and Midwest, not a national sample. While generalizations are made based on those responses, there is no guarantee that these respondents represent the full population in any of the categories selected. As the nation and university administration continues to become more and more diverse, it is imperative to include all voices and experiences in order to truly bring more understanding and appreciation of unique experiences.

Second, while specific stereotypes related to Black women were helpful in addressing the research questions, knowing the stereotypes associated with all other targeted groups could have provided a stronger basis for comparison of experiences and understanding biases. For example,
it could be that stereotypes held about Black women are very similar to stereotypes held about other groups, but that question was not asked, and therefore, cannot be identified or confirmed.

Finally, definitions of terms were not provided for respondents. As a result, it became apparent upon review of the data that some respondents held different views related to what constitutes an entry, mid, or senior level position. Based on this lack of definition across the survey respondents, the data may be slightly skewed. In addition, there were those who received an invitation to participate in the survey but declined to do so because they did not consider themselves to be “Student Affairs” professionals. Providing the “definition in use” and/or removing the term “Student Affairs” may have resulted in more survey participation.

**Future Research**

This study highlighted important information related to the collective experiences of Black female administrators. While the data provided unique insight, it also led to additional questions related to the experiences of additional populations. Thus, several recommendations are made for future research:

1. A duplication of this research study which targets populations that were not represented in the results.
2. A mixed method research study which collects demographic data via a survey instrument and involves making contact with respondents to get more in-depth responses related to personal experiences, feelings, and opinions.
3. A qualitative study that focuses on the apparent backlash regarding affirmative action. Specifically speaking with those who believe that the desire for more diversity on campuses across the country is resulting in the disenfranchisement of White males.
4. A qualitative study of the Black and White female experience to determine why, although White women face wage and advancement disparities similar to those of Black women, they were less disappointed with their income and more likely to feel social support.
5. An in-depth study of Black male administrators to determine how and when they began to be more successful in the realm of higher education administration. A review of the trend of Black male attrition research compared with the rise of Black male administrators could prove interesting.
Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the level to which Black women have been successful in obtaining leadership positions as administrators at higher education institutions. The findings suggest that Black women have a significant and unique experience with respect to advancing professionally as administrators. Further, the findings allude to an idea that elements that lead to success for most administrators do not yield the same outcomes for Black female administrators. Significant and intentional changes will be needed in order to move towards more equity within the realm of university administration. Future research needs to be conducted to further investigate the experiences of all other groups, but this study provides sufficient evidence that the experiences of Black female administrators is distinctive enough to warrant the scrutiny this study has been able to provide. Finally, this study supports current available literature which has suggested that the Black female experience is both distinctive and potentially damaging to this population.
APPENDIX A

Human Subjects Approval
APPROVAL MEMORANDUM

Date: 12/21/2011

To: Sandra Miles
Address: EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

From: Thomas L. Jacobson, Chair

Re: Use of Human Subjects in Research
LEFT BEHIND: THE STATUS OF BLACK WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION

The application that you submitted to this office in regard to the use of human subjects in the proposal referenced above have been reviewed by the Secretary, the Chair, and one member of the Human Subjects Committee. Your project is determined to be Expedited per 45 CFR A§ 46.110(7) and has been approved by an expedited review process.

The Human Subjects Committee has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval does not replace any departmental or other approvals, which may be required.

If you submitted a proposed consent form with your application, the approved stamped consent form is attached to this approval notice. Only the stamped version of the consent form may be used in recruiting research subjects.

If the project has not been completed by 12/18/2012 you must request a renewal of approval for continuation of the project. As a courtesy, a renewal notice will be sent to you prior to your expiration date; however, it is your responsibility as the Principal Investigator to timely request renewal of your approval from the Committee.

You are advised that any change in protocol for this project must be reviewed and approved by the Committee prior to implementation of the proposed change in the protocol. A protocol change/amendment form is required to be submitted for approval by the Committee. In addition, federal regulations require that the Principal Investigator promptly report, in writing any unanticipated problems or adverse events involving risks to research subjects or others.
By copy of this memorandum, the Chair of your department and/or your major professor is reminded that he/she is responsible for being informed concerning research projects involving human subjects in the department, and should review protocols as often as needed to insure that the project is being conducted in compliance with our institution and with DHHS regulations.

This institution has an Assurance on file with the Office for Human Research Protection. The Assurance Number is FWA00000168/IRB number IRB00000446.

Cc: Robert Schwartz, Advisor
HSC No. 2011.7496
APPENDIX B

FSU Human Subjects Training Certificate
This course included the following:

➢ Key historical events that impacted guidelines and legislation on human subjects protection in research.
➢ Ethical principles and guidelines that should be followed in research with human subjects.
➢ The use of key ethical principles and federal regulations to protect human participants at various stages in the research process.
➢ A description of guidelines for the protection of special populations in research.
➢ A definition of informed consent and components necessary for a valid consent.
➢ A description of the role of the IRB in the research process.
➢ The roles, responsibilities, and interactions of federal agencies, institutions, and researchers in conducting research with human participants.
APPENDIX C

Survey
Informed Consent

Florida State University
Consent to Participate in a Research Study

HSC # 2011-746

Principal Investigator: Sandra Miles, ABD
Florida State University: College of Education
PI Contact telephone number: [红acted]
PI Contact email: [红acted]

Major Professor: Robert Schwartz, PhD
Major Professor Contact telephone number: [红acted]

What are some general things you should know about research studies?
You are being asked to participate in a research study. Your participation in this study is completed voluntary, so you may refuse to join, or you may withdraw your consent to be in the study, at any time and for any reason, without penalty. Research studies are designed to obtain new knowledge. This new information may help people in the future. You may not receive any direct benefit from being in the research study. There also may be risks to being in research studies. Details about this study are discussed below. It is important that you understand this information so that you can make an informed choice about being in this research study. You will be able to print a copy of this consent form. Please ask Sandra Miles any questions you have about this study at any time. You can also contact her at symo7@my.fsu.edu.

What is the purpose of this study?
The goal of this research project is to obtain information from all student affairs professionals regardless of race or gender. You are being asked to take part in this research study to gain information on the successes and challenges of being a university administrator. Ultimately the experiences of Black female administrators will be compared with those of all respondents to determine if there is indeed a difference in their experiences. Your experience can help provide a clearer picture of the status of Black women in higher education.

How many people will take part in this study?
If you decide to be in this study, you will be one of approximately 600 participants in this research.

How long will your part in this study last?
The survey process will take no more than 15 minutes.

What will happen if you take part in the study?
You are being asked to respond to an email survey. Once the survey is opened you will be asked to provide your consent to participate before the survey begins. The survey will consist of no more than 30 questions that will gain information about your background, experiences you have had as a professional, interpretations of your successes and challenges, and your thoughts related to Black female professionals in higher education.

What are the possible benefits from being in this study?
Research is designed to benefit society by gaining new knowledge. You may not benefit personally from being in this research study.

What are the possible risks or discomforts involved from being in this study?
There will be minimal risk in participating in this study. The questions outlined in the survey could garner negative responses as the principal investigator will ask questions about difficulties you have faced.

How will your privacy be protected?
Every effort will be taken to protect your identity as a participant in this study. Your participation in this study will be kept confidential to the extent allowed by law and any information you share will remain anonymous. You will not be identified in any report or publication of this study or its results.

Will you receive anything for being in this study?
You will not receive anything for taking part in this study.

Will it cost you anything to be in this study?
There will be no costs for being in the study.

What if you have questions about this study?
You have the right to ask, and have answered, any questions you may have about this research. If you have questions or concerns, you should contact the researcher listed on the first page of this form.

**What if you have questions about your rights as a research participant?**
All research on human volunteers is reviewed by a committee that works to protect your rights and welfare. Your participation is strictly voluntary and there is no penalty for nonparticipation. If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a research subject you may contact, anonymously, if you wish, the FSU Institutional Review Board at 850-644-9681.

If you are 18 years of age or older, understand the statements above, and freely consent to participate in the study, click on the "I Agree" button to begin the survey.

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**Survey Intro**

Survey Description - I am a doctoral candidate at Florida State University and I am currently a full-time student affairs professional at Indiana University Purdue University Columbus in Columbus, IN. My dissertation will examine the career aspirations and achievements of student affairs professionals. You are invited to participate in a survey of university staff and professionals. This survey is intended to gather information from all student affairs professionals regardless of race or gender. You are being asked to take part in this research study to gain information on the successes and challenges of being a university administrator. The survey should take no more than 15 minutes to complete.

**Work experiences**

Do you believe your work and contributions are valued on your campus?

- Yes
- No

Do you believe your pay is adequate and/or fair for your job functions?

- Yes
- No

Do you believe you have sufficient opportunities to network on your campus?

- Yes
- No

Do you believe you are well-liked by your colleagues?

- Yes
- No

In your opinion, has race ever impacted your colleagues' perception of you?

- Yes
- No

You answered "Yes" to the question "In your opinion, has your race ever impacted your colleagues' perception of you?" Please explain your answer.


In your opinion, has your gender ever impacted your colleagues' perception of you?

- Yes
- No
You answered “Yes” to the question “In your opinion, has your gender ever impacted your colleagues’ perception of you?” Please explain your answer.

Do you believe you have ever been overlooked for a promotion?
- Yes
- No

You answered “Yes” to the question “Do you believe you have ever been overlooked for a promotion?” What do you believe to be the reason you did not receive the promotion?

Do you believe work-related stereotypes exist about Black women in particular?
- Yes
- No

You answered “Yes” to the question “Do you believe work-related stereotypes exist about Black women in particular?” Please list and/or explain those stereotypes.

Support Systems
Do you have mentors in the field of Student Affairs?
- Yes
- No

Do you have a support network within your institution?
- Yes
- No

Do you rely on colleagues and/or friends at work to vent about your work problems?
- Yes
- No

Do you rely on family and/or friends outside of work to vent about your work problems?
- Yes
- No

Institution Demographics
What is the size of your current institution?
- Less than 5,000 students
-
5,000 – 20,000 students

More than 20,000 students

What is your institution type?

- Historically Black College/University (HBCU)
- Predominantly White Institution (PWI)

Is your institution public or private?

- Public
- Private

In what state is your institution located?

- Alabama
- Florida
- Georgia
- Illinois
- Indiana
- Michigan
- North Carolina
- Ohio

Demographic Questions

What is your race/ethnic background? (Choose all that apply)

- Asian/Asian American
- Black/African American
- Hispanic/Latino or other Spanish Origin
- Native American/Alaskan Native
- White/European American
- Other

Are you male or female?

- Male
- Female

What is your age?

- Younger than 24
- 25-29
- 30-34
- 35-39
- 40-49
- 50-59
- 60 or older

What is your highest degree earned?

- Associate
- Bachelor
- Master
- PhD


Destined
- No degree earned

What degree program was this degree obtained through (i.e. Higher Education, Public Administration, Communications, etc.)?

How long have you been an employee of your current college or university?
- Less than 2 years
- 2-4 years
- 6-10 years
- 10-15 years
- 15-20 years
- 20 or more years

How many years have you worked full-time? (In any capacity)
- Less than 3 years
- 3-6 years
- 6-10 years
- 10-15 years
- 15-20 years
- 20 or more years

What is your current title at your institution? (You can be general or specific)

Is your position considered as:
- Entry Level Student Affairs Position
- Mid-Level Student Affairs Position
- Senior Student Affairs Position

What is your current income level from your position?
- Less than $25,000
- $25,000 - $41,000
- $42,000 - $65,000
- $66,000 - $85,000
- $85,000 - $100,000
- $100,000 or more

Please provide the email address of any colleague(s) you think might also be willing to contribute to this research study.

Thank you for assisting with my dissertation research!
APPENDIX D

Anecdotal Responses to the question: Do Believe you have ever been overlooked for a promotion?
1. “The politics of the campus.”
2. “Sabotage and not doing enough self-promotion to claim credit for my work.”
3. “For affirmative action purposes.”
4. “I have been ‘discouraged’ by my supervisor from applying for a position that I was qualified to do because I have a different personality type from her and possibly because I am almost 60.”
5. “I believe that I do not fit my supervisor's idea of what a successful Associate Vice Chancellor of Student Affairs looks like, even though he has suggested that Associate/Asst. Vice Chancellor, Dean/Asst. Dean of Students positions are what I should be looking for at this point in my career.”
6. “I have been passed over for a promotion b/c I ‘didn't get sorority recruitment b/c I was a man.’ However, my professional records indicates that I am more than capable to oversee the sorority recruitment process.”
7. “Lack of personal relationship with VPSA”
8. “This was because of my gender/race; campus was looking to go more diverse. It has never been a factor with anything else.”
9. “My supervisor did not like me.”
10. “White men dominate the field. I fully support affirmative action, but also recognizes that, at times, it makes advancement for white men more difficult.”
11. “Black professional with substantial experience are sometimes marginalized because an admin fears they cannot be controlled.”
12. “I admit that I may not have been prepared for a promotion but when a previous supervisor was dismissed, a new person was brought in with way less experience than I had. She later proved to be incompetent for the job.”
APPENDIX E

Anecdotal responses to the question: In your opinion has your race ever impacted your colleagues’ perception of you?
1. “I am a white woman who works in diversity issues and I find that some of my colleagues do not understand the concept of intersectionality and... see only my whiteness or only my femaleness.”

2. “Because I am white, I feel that some co-workers don't feel that white people can facilitate diversity programs/workshops.”

3. “I believe I have received unearned benefits at times from being a member of the majority. I also believe that some members of historically underrepresented groups may have been uncomfortable approaching me based on my race until they had the opportunity [to] take my measure through my actions and words.”

4. “As a younger African American male, I think that I often have to validate my presence with an overabundance of information pertinent to a given topic. I also have to be aware of my language and enunciation. This may be from my lenses only. However, I [have] had several instances where individuals in a professional setting have called me “brother” and have also attempted to shake my hand in non-traditional ways. I usually stop this action; however, it makes me wonder if this kind of behavior happens [with] my Caucasian colleagues when they shake on another’s hands.”

5. “As a Caucasian working at an HBCU, my views and philosophies are not taken into account when dealing with the general student population. The reality of things are ‘how can a Caucasian male know anything regarding the student population’ comes into play [when] in meetings with deans and vice presidents. Even though I have the requisite credentials and higher degrees, my views are considered that of an ‘outsider’.”

6. “I'm biracial. My perceived race has been literally every race under the sun. I think people don't quite know how to take me.”

7. “Most people look at me as being toooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooo BLACK! Plus, I have been one of the major individuals to fight institutional white supremacy during my [career].”

8. “In some situations, it seems like my ideas are challenged more often than my white counterparts.”

9. “As an African American woman, I think there have been ‘perceptions’ of me that have ‘entered’ before I appeared. Perhaps, I should call these mis-perceptions, or ‘notions’ that people had of women of color in ‘positions of power’--i.e., sassy, aggressive bossy; and,
then applying them to me--before they had the opportunity to get to know me, or my work.”

10. “I am an African American working at a Historically Black College/University. I am treated more favorably here than some of my white counterparts. When I worked at Predominantly White Institutions I never felt like my race mattered much. I was [recognized] for my skills and not my skin color. It's sad, but true that I feel a sense of ‘Black Privilege’ at a HBCU.”

11. “I have heard staff members (yes, these are people with Higher Education/Student Affairs Degrees) make derogatory comments about people of color and act as though they are terrified of driving through areas with a high Black population. I have heard these [same] people make stereotypical comments. These are the same individuals who are quick to accuse people of color of pulling the ‘race card’. It is difficult to work with ‘professionals’ like this because they maintain a high level of ignorance and fail to [see] the error of their ways. They can make jokes about race but if anyone of color is offended then the person of color is the one who is being ‘too sensitive’. Others then begin to think the person of color is hostile but no one wants to connect the dots ad accept that certain staff members with ignorant belief systems are the ones who are causing a rift on staff-not the staff members who are offended by the comments.”
APPENDIX F

Anecdotal responses to the question: In your opinion has your gender ever impacted your colleagues’ perception of you?
1. “I’m trans so I think most people see me as ‘that trans guy’.
2. “I work in a male dominated segment of student affairs and in a division of student affairs with little female leadership. I am often seen as ‘not as tough’ even though students perceive me as ‘tougher’ than other deans.”
3. “I am a 60 year old white woman with extensive experience running complex multi-site health care orgs. I came to the university in a staff position as a second career. I find the university male-centric and some of my colleagues and my superiors are uncomfortable with my directness and capabilities.”
4. “I think I am paid less than a man at a similar level and with similar education and work experience.”
5. “Perception that women are weaker emotionally.”
6. “Males - particularly large white males - simply are not PC on this campus.”
7. “I am one of the more vocal feminists in the student affairs division, to the extent that others do roll their eyes and smile when I point out that we ‘staff’ tables and not ‘man’ them, or ask them to sing ‘peace to all on earth’ rather than ‘peace to men on earth’. I prod colleagues on gender neutral language all the time. For some, their perceptions are enhanced, for others their perceptions are less positive. But most perceptions are affected by this.”
8. “I feel that because I am a woman, there have been several times that males in higher positions don’t respect my ideas.”
9. “Decisions were questioned because of my position in a Student Affairs area dominated by men. I had to work harder, do more research and be better prepared [than] the men in the organization.”
10. “As a male, my input is clearly valued over female colleagues.”
11. “I am a female with male characteristics and when I behave masculine I’ve been feeling ostracized for not keeping the peace like the other females in the office. I am usually the one to challenge thinking within the office and have a tendency to raise my voice if I feel I’m not being heard. I believe that if these same characteristics were done by a male, he would not be "disciplined" for the behavior as I have been in the past.”
12. “As the director of our student union and a female, I need to be able to work effectively with male counterparts. This is more challenging when they are in higher administrative
positions or when their work deals with the physical aspects of our building -
maintenance, utilities, etc.”

13. “Male employees at most HBCUs are considered superior to females even if they have
the equivalent experiences and education.”

14. “As a female administrator, I have experienced issues with male colleagues that indicate
their lack of respect for me in my role.”

15. “Being male comes with the usual amount of privilege that comes from that. However,
I'm a shorter male, and I think people respond to shorter males with less respect and
authority.”

16. “I feel that as a male I may not be given an equal opportunity, in the interest of ensuring
women are comparably compensated/promoted.”

17. “Because I am a confident woman in a position of authority I have had colleagues
perceive me as a "bitch" when a male counterpart would have just been seen as
confident.”

18. “As a woman, particularly an African American female in higher education, the
opportunities for upper level management position are typically male dominated.
Regardless of equal credentials, it is not always equal when it comes to placing females
in those positions.”

19. “Being a young black woman, my experience and qualifications are often questioned by
the older staff.”

20. “Being a Baby Boomer white male, it is not uncommon for perceptions to be that I am
sexist or prejudice. Once people get to know who I am, they find out that having grown
up with 4 sisters, and being a father of 3 daughters I am an activist for gender equality. I
also have a personal philosophy of inclusiveness, with close and trusted friends in the gay
and lesbian community, as well as many ethnic communities. As an administrator I see
my role as supporting any student or staff to help in their creating a better future for all. It
may sound like a line, but it is indeed how I live my life.”
APPENDIX G

Anecdotal responses to the question: Do you believe work-related stereotypes exist about Black women in particular?
1. “I've heard that ‘they’ are: loud, rude, obnoxious, lazy.”
2. “I think that Black women are occasionally not always approached for input, or where there is potential for disagreement, for fear of an argumentative or seemingly overly opinionated response.”
3. “Favor Black students, only got their positions because of their race/gender, not hard working.”
4. “they are limited in their work by lack of education; they may have family obligations; they may not be professional and use good work ethics.”
5. “Hard working, no nonsense, eager to prove their value.”
6. “Some stereotypes include they are not feminist, they are difficult, they evidence ‘drama’ in the workplace.”
7. “Unfortunately, I think this exists but MORE for our hourly support staff than our professional staff.”
8. “I have no doubt that there are some workplaces where various stereotypes of Black women (angry, maternal, sexual, or other) play themselves out.”
9. “I think Black women who are ambitious are stereotyped as aggressive and verbose. I think there is the stereotype that they try to use impressive language and wordiness that isn't needed and get loud when in conflict.”
10. “Definitely....I am worn out with defending myself and others against the ‘Angry Black Woman’ tag assigned to any woman of color wishing to advance herself.”
11. “That Black women aren't intelligent, and don't have a good work ethic.”
12. “I’m not sure. I don’t think there is a universal stereotype for most people and Black women are no exception. That said I have found many Black women leaders to be strong willed and controlling. They often tend to believe in a positional leadership model (I am the boss therefore what I say goes) and lack facilitative leadership skills.”
13. “The biggest stereotype that I see on a regular basis, is that black women are ‘angry’ and ‘combative’ in working relationships. I supervise a black female employee, and cannot believe the comments and reactions that others in our department have to her perceived work style.”
14. “I think in general black women are thought of as aggressive, with a chip on their shoulder, in professional settings. Too often they are handled with fear in case ‘they'll
sue’, or not hired at all for fear of having to deal with something like that. And too often there is a perception that they were hired because they were ‘black’. As a result they are sometimes treaded lightly around, so as not to offend.”

15. “Stereotypes such as ‘emotional’, ‘late’, ‘lazy’ and ‘unable to separate management directions from personal attacks’ are present in this particular environment. Unfortunately, there are Black females who act in ways that support the stereotype which cause challenges when women, men and other races deal with those who do not fit the stereotype.”

16. “I think it is especially hard for black women who have not adapted or who are not stylistically operating like the white women around them to [be] perceived as fair to all students, emotionally balanced and equally competent. Especially true if a black [woman has] an especially assertive personality.”

17. “… If a Black woman is [not] married, she is looked [at] as not committed because more than likely she is the primary provider due to probably being a single mother or will be a single mother. Thus, she does not have time for the job because she has to take the role of both parents.”

18. “If a Black woman has her hair relaxed or processed, speaks proper, and does not associate with mostly other Black people, she is viewed as an ‘Uncle Tom’ or ‘sell out’ or ‘might have slept her way up the employment ladder’.”

19. I think one is that Black women are sometimes seemed as "overly aggressive" in trying to make it in the work place. Although I don't think this is true.

20. “Overly complimented, remarks made about style, clothing; assumptions they are one of, different, or ostracized by their families; and seen on the extremes - either working much harder or much less than peers.”

21. “Among successful Black women, I think they are occasionally stereotyped as aggressive, rather than assertive.”


23. Being loud, bossy, does not support black males under them, overdressed, driven- but at the expense of others.

24. “I think that there is a perception that Black women sometimes are not as qualified/professional as non-Black women and males and that they tend to be unreliable.
In my experience, I have encountered some Black women who are extremely qualified and professional and others who did in fact represent an example [of] the negative stereotype.”

25. “Maternal; Angry; Domineering; ‘Affirmative Action’ hire - therefore not as competent as other professionals”

26. “Most are considered more educated than black males, but less than their white counterparts.”

27. “That we are condescending, mean, unprofessional and harsh. Sometimes I feel that a majority of black woman feel they can't be their real selves at work because they will be judged.”

28. “I work at an HBCU. Some folks, including Black people, label Black women as aggressive, confrontational, and self-serving.”

29. “I think they're pretty well known. Black women are perceived as angry, less effective, judgment clouded, distracted, and ultimately less professional.”

30. “I think that some people believe Black women, particularly in higher positions, are there because they are ‘tokens’”

31. “It blows me away but as I talk with other co-workers I still here things like, ‘well she's black’ as if that should explain certain behaviors.”

32. “I feel that many professionals look at Black women as a necessary component for entry and mid-level positions, but not necessarily for Sr. level positions.”
APPENDIX H

Additional Results – Figures and Tables
Additional results of interest include the mean scores and standard deviations for overall reported income and position level. These figures are indicated in Table 9. The variables were assigned numeric values as follows:

**Income**
Less than $25,000 = 1  
$25,000- $45,000 = 2  
$45,001 - $65,000 = 3  
$65,001 – $85,000 = 4  
$85,001 – $100,000 = 5  
$100,001 or more = 6

**Position Level**
Entry level Student Affairs Position = 1  
Mid-level Student Affairs Position = 2  
Senior level Student Affairs Position = 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparative Variables</th>
<th>Black Female</th>
<th>Black Male</th>
<th>White Female</th>
<th>White Male</th>
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<tr>
<td>Income - Mean</td>
<td>2.92a</td>
<td>3.3b</td>
<td>3a</td>
<td>3.53b</td>
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<tr>
<td>SD</td>
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<td>1.49</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>1.54</td>
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<tr>
<td>Position Level - Mean</td>
<td>1.91a</td>
<td>2.12b</td>
<td>1.94a</td>
<td>2.12b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>0.629</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
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</table>

In taking into consideration income and years of experience as it relates to acquisition of senior student affairs position, a frequency analysis was run controlling for race and gender and self-reported senior level student affairs position. Following that analysis, doctoral degree earned was added as a control variable to determine if any differences emerged. The results of these analyses are depicted below. These depictions are in real numbers rather than percentages.
Figure 13 – Income of Senior Student Affairs Officer (SSAO) w/out Doctorate

Figure 14 – Experience of SSAO w/out Doctorates
Respondents who indicated they worked in Alabama, Georgia, Florida, or North Carolina were assigned a numeric value equal to 1 and a regional variable titled “Southern”. Those who indicated that they worked in Illinois, Indiana, Michigan or Ohio were assigned a numeric value equal to 2 and a regional variable titled “Midwest.” A T-test was conducted to determine if there was any statistical difference between responses related to income, social support, highest degree earned, or position level, yielded the following results: $t(669) = 0.22, p < .343$. This result indicates that there is no difference between regions.

While there were some noticeable differences in the percentage distributions within each category, the general trends in each geographic region were the same. The primary difference by
region was degree attainment. Overall, there was a higher propensity for those of both races and genders in the Southern region to pursue and attain the doctoral degree. Additionally, only Black males in the Southern region were more likely to believe they had been overlooked for a promotion and were also the group most likely to have acquired a doctoral degree.

Figure 17 - Position Level by Race & Gender – Southern Region

Figure 18 - Position Level by Race and Gender – Midwest
Figure 19 - Position Level by Race & Gender – All

Figure 20 - Income by Race and Gender – Southern Region

Figure 21 - Income by Race and Gender – Midwest
Figure 22 - Income by Race and Gender – All

Figure 23 - Degree Attainment by Race and Gender – Southern Region

Figure 24 - Degree Attainment by Race and Gender – Midwest
Figure 25 - Degree Attainment by Race and Gender – All

Figure 26 - Experience by Race and Gender – Southern Region

Figure 27 - Experience by Race and Gender – Midwest
Figure 28 - Experience by Race and Gender – All

Figure 29 - Response to “Do you believe you have ever been overlooked for a promotion?” by Race and Gender – Southern Region

Figure 30 - Response to “Do you believe you have ever been overlooked for a promotion?” by Race and Gender – Midwest
REFERENCES


History. (2012). NASPA. Retrieved from [http://www.naspa.org/about/history.cfm](http://www.naspa.org/about/history.cfm)


BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Sandra Miles was born and raised in Jacksonville, FL. by a loving mother, Cheryl S. Miles from whom she gets her positive outlook, love of reading, and belief that she can do anything she wants; a loving father, Lionel E. Miles from whom she gets her drive, determination, and work ethic; and two older sisters, Trace and Cherae from whom she learned that there is no game called “astronaut” and a person should never willingly get into a clothes dryer. She is the product of Duval County Public Schools and is a graduate of Paxon School for Advanced Studies where she began her habit of “doing it all at the same time”. Following high school, Sandra attended the University of Central Florida where she was heavily involved in student activities, earned a Bachelor of Arts degree in Political Science, completed an Honors Thesis for Honors in the Major, and earned a Master of Arts degree in Student Personnel Administration. In addition, she is very proud to have received the Order of Pegasus, the universities highest honor.

Sandra began her professional career in 2005 as the Assistant Director of Student Activities at Florida State University. She then became an SGA Advisor and had the opportunity to work with some of the most dynamic and driven students she has ever had the privilege of meeting. It was during this time that she enrolled as a full-time doctoral student in the Higher Education program while continuing to work as a full-time administrator. Currently, Sandra is the Director of Student Services and University Ombudsman at Indiana University-Purdue University Columbus in Columbus, IN. She is also proud and humbled to serve as the National Director of the Black Female Development Circle, Inc.