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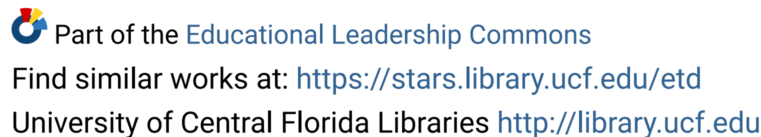

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A STUDY OF GENDER EQUALITY AT PRIVATE AND PUBLIC TWO-YEAR AND FOUR-YEAR FLORIDA INSTITUTIONS

by

STACEY LAZENBY MALARET
B.A. University of Southern Mississippi, 1996
M.A. University of Central Florida, 1998

A dissertation proposal submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education
in the Department of Educational Research, Technology, and Leadership
in the College of Education
at the University of Central Florida
Orlando, Florida

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2007

Major Professor: LeVester Tubbs

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to examine the perception of gender equality from the viewpoint of women administrators at Florida public and private two- and four-year institutions. Potential respondents were chosen from American College Personnel Association and/or National Association of Student Personnel Administrators databases.

The data used for this study were obtained from 32 female administrators (50% response rate) who completed a self-administered online questionnaire, distributed to potential respondents in August and September, 2007. Collected data were entered into an SPSS database. Through data analysis, confidence intervals were reported for each survey item. Comparable means were studied for each of the six independent variables used in the survey.

A broad array of gender equality information was disclosed in the data and literature. This information provided a basis for further research topics on perception on gender equality in higher education administration.

I dedicate this dissertation to my loving husband, Pedro Malaret; my parents, John and Nancy Lazenby; my brother, Johnny Lazenby; and my entire family who have supported me during the years.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge The University of Central Florida and Student Leadership Development for granting me the opportunity to pursue this degree. I greatly appreciate the help from my dissertation consultant, Dr. Mary Ann Lynn who helped edit this entire document.

I am also thankful for the guidance from my committee members, Dr. Alison Morrison-Shetlar, Dr. Stephen Sivo, Dr. Craig Ullom and Dr. Ken Murray. However, I especially want to thank my dissertation committee chair, Dr. LeVester Tubbs, whose patience and advice will never be forgotten.

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CHAPTER 1
THE PROBLEM AND ITS CLARIFYING COMPONENTS

Introduction

According to an American Association of School Administrators document (2000), Ella Flagg Young, the first woman superintendent of a major city school system, stated as early as 1909 that "In the near future, we will have more women than men in executive charge of the vast education system" (p. 1). It was inferred that she believed that it was a woman's natural field and that women should not be required to do the larger part of the work and be denied leadership positions.

Unfortunately, Young's words have, as yet, not rung true in America. Women in the higher education profession have, historically and currently, faced difficulty in achieving upper level administrative and faculty positions. In 2001, women made up more than 50% of students nationwide, but a representative number of women in upper level administrative or tenured faculty positions did not appear likely in the near future (Wenninger & Conroy, 2001).

Statement of the Problem

Women in the higher education profession have historically faced difficulty in achieving upper level administrative and faculty positions. At the time of the present study, women represented more than 50% of the college student population; however, women and men were not equally represented in senior level higher education administration positions or as full professors. Only an estimated one-third of university

department chairs were women. According to Wenninger & Conroy (2001), men have continued to hold the great majority of full-time tenured positions in colleges and universities. They reported that in 1998, men held 74% of all tenured positions and "from 1925 to 2000, the percentage of full-time faculty that is female has increased just 5 percent, from 19 percent to 24 percent" (p. 5). The present research study was intended to add to prior research and provide information on current trends regarding women in higher education administration in the state of Florida.

Definitions

Affirmative action--A set of public policies and initiatives was designed to help eliminate past and present discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. (National Organization for Women, 2004). Affirmative action "requires a contractor to go beyond the passive stance of not discriminating; it requires him to seek to employ members of groups which have traditionally been excluded, thereby mitigating the effect of discrimination in the society at large." Executive Order 12246, published in 1961, allowed federal employees to implement affirmative action to make certain that all applicants were treated equally. (Furniss & Graham, 1974, p. 208).

Defensive/aggressive traits--Assigned traits expected of men that include being (a) highly regulated, (b) conformist, (c) normative, (d) competitive, (e) evaluative, (f) disciplined, (g) objective, and (h) formal (Gray, 1993).

Discrimination--"Treating one person unfairly over another according to factors unrelated to their ability or potential, such as age, disability, sex, or national origin" (Legal Definitions, 2004).

The Equal Pay Act of 1963--Act prohibiting gender-based salary discrimination between men and women who work in the same environment with similar duties (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2004).

The glass ceiling--A barrier defined as an "invisible, yet powerful obstruction to women who seek top-level positions in their organizations" that women have encountered in higher education administration (Manuel et al., 1999, p. 3).

The good ol' boy system--An "informal network of communication among departments, institutions and disciplines, which were often the source of essential social, political, and intellectual conversations" (Glazer-Raymo, 1999, p. 163).

Mentor--An older professional in a mentoring relationship. Mentors are known to have counseled women and given wise insight which in turn may help them gain tenure (Gruber, 2002).

Nurturing traits--Assigned traits expected of women that include being (a) caring, (b) creative, (c) intuitive, (d) aware of individual differences, (e) non-competitive, (f) tolerant, (g) subjective, and (h) informal (Gray, 1993).

Pay Equity--Equality of pay for men and women in similar positions (Carnegie Commission for Higher Education, 1973).

Protégé--The new professional in a mentoring relationship (Gruber, 2002).

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964--Legislation prohibiting "employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex and national origin" (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2004, p. 1).

Sexual harassment--"Unwanted sexually oriented behavior in a work context" (Riger, 1991, p. 497). In 1980, sexual harassment was deemed illegal, based on Title VII, as a form of discrimination (Schur, 1983).

Tenure--The "method to protect academic freedom of the individual professor" (Chamberlain, 1988, p. 178). "Tenure/permanent status guarantees annual reappointment for the academic year until voluntary resignation, retirement, removal for just cause in accordance with the provisions of Article 16, Disciplinary Action and Job Abandonment" (Collective Bargaining, 2004, p. 7).

Trailing partner--One partner following another partner to a new geographic position or institution for a new job or position (Mangan, 1989).

Woman administrator--A woman in higher education who holds the title of assistant dean, associate dean, dean, assistant vice president, associate vice president, vice president, assistant provost, provost, and president.

Delimitations

This study was delimited to women employees in public and private Florida institutions of higher education during 2007. The study was focused on women whose names were included in the American College Personnel Association (ACPA) and National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) listserv databases.

Women administrators outside of Florida and non-members of the stated associations were excluded from the survey population. Also, only women who held titles of assistant dean, associate dean, dean, assistant vice president, associate vice president, vice president, assistant provost, provost, and president were considered in this population.

Limitations

There were several limitations in this specific study. All respondents to the survey instrument were employed in the state of Florida; therefore, there was a lack of geographic diversity of the population. All women were also identified using two specific education association listserv databases that catered to the student personnel field in higher education, the American College Personnel Association (ACPA) and the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA). Student Personnel administrators typically worked in fields of student development, campus life, or student affairs. Women who were not listserv members of these associations were omitted from the research. The number of women researched was small due to the number of women who were members of the named associations. Results of this study were limited by the accuracy of the responses obtained on the questionnaire and the data which could be quantified.

Significance of the Study

The researcher sought to determine if women administrators in Florida institutions of higher education had been subjected to discrimination during their progression in

higher education administration. The survey instrument designed for the study was intended to assess the status of women administrators in Florida institutions with regard to issues related to discrimination, diversity, and equity. The researcher also proposed to enhance awareness of gender issues and, lastly, recommended enabling mechanisms to institutionalize equal opportunity for women.

The researcher believed the significance of the study included giving younger female administrators hope for opportunities in higher education administration, based on the relatively positive perceptions from the respondents. This study also was significant in regards to the positive perceptions of female administrators in the state of Florida. Results from this study could also be used as a recruitment tool for potential faculty and administrators in Florida.

Research Questions

Six research questions were formulated to guide the study. Demographic data utilized in the research included gender, age, ethnicity, administrative position, income, and type of institution in which the respondents were employed.

1. To what degree do women administrators report discrimination at Florida higher education institutions?
2. To what degree do women administrators report the importance of a mentor at Florida higher education institutions?
3. To what degree do women administrators report discrimination in promotion or tenure advancement at Florida higher education institutions?

4. To what degree do women administrators report cases of sexual harassment at Florida higher education institutions?
5. To what degree do women administrators report pay inequities for women at Florida higher education institutions?
6. To what degree do women administrators report discrimination in regard to professional development at Florida higher education institutions?

Methodology

Population

The population for this study was comprised of 74 women administrators in Florida at 2-year and 4-year public and private colleges and universities who held the titles of assistant dean, associate dean, dean, assistant vice president, associate vice president, vice president, assistant provost, provost, and president. All women administrators, whose membership in the American College Personnel Association and/or National Association of Student Personnel Administrators could be verified using listserv databases, were afforded the opportunity to participate in the study.

Instrumentation

The survey instrument that was used in this study was modified based on a 2000 University of Central Florida Faculty Experiences Survey. The survey was originally constructed by the University of Central Florida President's Commission on the Status of

Women and was used to collect the data. The results of the survey were reported in the Women at UCF: Status 2000 Executive Summary Report.

Data Collection

Approval to conduct the research was granted the researcher by the University of Central Florida's Institutional Review Board (Appendix A) The cover letter (Appendix B) and survey instrument (Appendix C) were sent via email to 74 potential respondents in August, 2007. Potential respondents (Appendix D) were assured that confidentiality of results would be maintained and that only group data would be reported. After one week elapsed, a follow-up cover letter (Appendix E) and survey instrument were sent via email to non-respondents to the survey. All surveys were administered during August and September, 2007.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variable in this study was the reported discrimination of respondents. Reported discrimination was analyzed using the responses to 15 Likert-type scale survey items. Respondents were afforded the opportunity to expand their responses through summary comments.

Independent Variables

The independent variables used in this study were gender, age, ethnicity, administrative position, income, and the type of Florida institution in which respondents

were employed. Data for all independent variables were gathered from a series of items requesting demographic information in the final section of the electronic survey.

Data Analysis

A questionnaire was emailed to the identified administrators in order to collect information related to gender discrimination and demographic information via www.surveymonkey.com. Data were collected electronically; individual responses were compiled, recorded, and then summarized in tabular form supported by accompanying narratives. Using a Likert-type scale of 1-5 rating, administrators ranked their reported perceptions in response to survey items. The researcher studied confidence intervals for each survey item and comparable means and for each independent variable group.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 focused on the purpose and rationale of this study including research questions to be answered. Chapter 2 presents a review of literature related to the research questions which guided the study. Chapter 3 describes the methods and procedures that were used in conducting the research. Chapter 4 provides a summary of the analysis of data and presents the results of the study. Chapter 5 offers a summary of the findings and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

According to Wenninger & Conroy (2001), higher education was born of a tradition of patriarchy and populated by a society disrespectful towards women. The Bill of Rights for Women in Higher Education edited by Wenninger & Conroy presented a succinct list of rights that all women in higher education should be granted.

1. We have the right to be taught as we want to learn, respecting that there are multiple, valid paths to wisdom-not only the classical, hierarchical, step-by-step method-in both careers and classes on campus.
2. We have the right to have our opinions and our life experiences valued and respected.
3. We have the right to enjoy classes and jobs free of sexism and gender discrimination.
4. We have the right to enjoy classes and jobs free of sexual harassment.
5. We have the right to expect opportunities to be unrestricted by our gender in all things on campus, including but not limited to administration, admissions, financial aid, health services, degree requirements, funding, career advice and job placements, tenure, promotion, salary, decision making, research, teaching in the classroom and elsewhere, and sports participation and administration.
6. We have the right to place a value on family and personal life without deprecating our commitment to our careers.
7. We have the right to support those actions that reflect our values and reject those actions that contradict them.
8. We have the right to conduct research in a manner harmonious with both the discipline and subjects, rejecting arbitrary standards that undervalue qualitative and participative studies.
9. We have the right to value cooperation and collaboration to the same extent that we value individual competition and aggression.
10. We have the right to be judged by equitable standards that favor neither gender. (p. xxi)

The need for a bill of rights for women in the higher education field emerged due to the many barriers placed before women throughout history. Several different

discrimination practices by colleges and universities have been the cause of these barriers. This review of the literature and related research has been focused on the following topics related to discrimination against women in education: (a) gender differences; (b) gender stereotypes; (c) hiring/firing practices and legal issues; (d) promotional and tenure advancements; (e) mentoring and networking; (f) balancing of home and family life; (g) feminist theory; (h) sexual harassment; (i) career paths; and (j) barriers for multicultural, lesbian and Catholic women.

Gender Differences

This section provides an analysis of higher education administration and addresses the differences between male and female leadership styles including leadership abilities of female and male higher education administrators. Also presented are obstacles women have faced in obtaining administrative positions. According to Rosener (1990), females and males have exhibited inherently different leadership styles. This has resulted in differing views on what leadership means.

Gender paradigms of personality traits have been separated by some researchers into nurturing (feminine) and defensive/aggressive (masculine). Nurturing traits included caring, creative, intuitive, awareness of individual differences, non-competitive, tolerant, subjective and informal. Defensive/aggressive traits included highly regulated, conformist, normative, competitive, evaluative, disciplined, objective, and formal. The latter traits helped individuals protect themselves from being emotionally exposed. These

defensive or aggressive traits tended to be directed toward others rather than internally directed (Gray, 1993).

Female leadership practice has been connected to transformational leadership and communal characteristics. Female leaders have tended to practice transformational leadership, a form of leadership that was not seen as traditional. Major theories of male leadership practice have more often included descriptors such as transactional leadership and agentic characteristics (Bem, 1974; Rosener, 1990; Ruble, 1983). Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) discussed agentic characteristics and behaviors:

> Agentic characteristics, which are ascribed more strongly to men than women, describe primarily an assertive, controlling, and confident tendency-for example, aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, daring, self-confident, and competitive. In employment settings, agentic behaviors might include speaking assertively, competing for attention, influencing others, initiating activity directed to assigned tasks, and making problem-focused suggestions. (p. 783)

This difference in leadership style may have been seen as detrimental to female leaders by some people, for their leadership style did not follow the stereotypical definition of leadership. Consequently, historical male leadership behaviors exhibited by males and females have been viewed less positively when performed by a woman (Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky, 1992).

Feingold (1994) performed four meta-analyses regarding gender differences in personality. He found that “Males were found to be more assertive and had slightly higher self-esteem than females. Females were higher than males in extraversion, anxiety, trust, and, especially, tender-mindedness (e.g., nurturance)” (p. 429). He also stated that males had higher scores than females on agentic traits and that females scored higher than

males on communal traits, indicating in his words that "The personality dimensions that most strongly differentiated between the sexes were assertiveness and tender mindedness, which are nearly pure measures of agency and communality, respectively" (pp. 449-450). Men have also been more likely to be boastful and promote themselves ("Getting Recognized," 2001). For administrators, this type of behavior may have included competing for attention, influencing colleagues, and speaking assertively (Eagly, Wood, & Diekman, 2000).

Females have tended to reflect a communal style of leadership. This included a cultivation of strong interpersonal relationships, flexibility, shared decision-making, and reflection (Burns, 1978). Other qualities included a concern for the welfare of others, sensitivity, and compassion (Chemers, 1997). In the workforce, communal characteristics may include speaking tentatively, not focusing attention to oneself, following the direction of others, supporting and comforting colleagues, and solving problems among group members (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) stated that there have often been inconsistencies with the communal qualities that have been associated with the female gender and the agentic and male-dominated qualities that were commonly associated with successful leadership. When men and women lead in a similar way, they have often been perceived differently. This incongruity between the gender characteristics that females tended to maintain and the roles ascribed to typical leaders may have created prejudice toward female leaders despite their success. For example, when a female and male

administrator walked into a room, one often mistook the female for the male's support person or junior colleague (Sandler, 1986).

Traditional masculine behaviors such as aggressiveness and authority have been considered to be desirable leadership qualities but have not been associated with being feminine. Hence, women not exhibiting these qualities may not have appeared to be good candidates for executive positions and may have been passed over for positions (Mitchell, 1993). Chliwniak (1996) summarized that it might not be the ability or the behavior of the woman that created the gender gap but rather the leadership and stereotypical gender norms that society maintained towards the traditional definition of leadership.

Women may have received less favorable evaluations in leadership potential and leadership ability because leadership ability was more stereotypical of men than of women. This prejudice was drawn from two norms. The first norm was that the characteristics were unlike the qualities expected and desired in leaders. The second norm stemmed from gender roles or the activation of beliefs of how women should have behaved. Hence, if women conformed to their gender role, it may have produced a failure to meet the requirements of their leadership role and vice versa (Eagly & Karau, 2001). As a result, women may have been thought of as more blunt, transparent, less objective, less flexible, more forthright, and having lower emotional control than men (Hagberg Consulting Group, 1998).

Male leaders tended to describe their job performances as a chain of transactions in which staff members were punished or praised according to their poor or exceptional behavior and/or performances. Female leaders conversely supported collective

participation, sharing power and respect with others. (Rosener, 1990). Sandler (1986) observed that due to these less aggressive traits, women were more likely to be interrupted than males. In discussion groups, people were more likely to respond longer to a male's remarks than to those of a female. People were also more attentive when a male was speaking in a group and were more likely to recognize men in non-verbal mannerisms than women.

As a result of gender stereotypes and differences in leadership styles, women have encountered more obstacles than men in their quest to be seen as effective leaders. Koesler (1994) stated that when females learned they did so first by observation and then by doing, whereas males tended to learn first by immediately having engaged in the task before them. This may be caused by competitive differences with males having been internally driven by competition while females were driven by a sense of personal skill development. Women may have been seen as more passive due to this difference. Differences in learning styles may also provide an explanation for the observation of Carli & Eagly (2001) that "Females are generally presumed to be less competent than males and therefore less credible as influence agents" (pp. 632-633).

In a research study by Koesler and Tyson (1996), it was shown that men were more commanding when they were showing leadership traits and often challenged the effectiveness of the leadership abilities shown by the females in the group. Also, the men in the group often refused to recognize their female colleagues as equals. Women showed fewer hierarchical traits, were more cooperative and collaborative, and enhanced each other's self-worth (Book, 2000; Helgesen, 1990; Rosener, 1995).

Peters (2002) suggested that women had tendencies to not put on a “game face” in tough situations and that they did not take risks as often as men, being more cautious in their leadership style. Peters believed that women would be more successful if they learned to present their proposals and ideas with less passion.

McGinty (1995) noted that women could increase their confidence and marketability in reaching higher leadership roles by learning how to become successful networkers, volunteer for difficult assignments, and position themselves so that they would be viewed as a central player within the organization. This included meeting as many other people as possible from all types of positions and industries. Women have been encouraged to keep track of their work successes, complimentary letters, and important letters; to discuss their accomplishments, committees and women organizations that they served in public to boost their resume (“Getting Recognized,” 2001).

In reviewing survey results of female and male leaders, female leaders’ styles have often been determined to be more effective than those of males. Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) surveyed a large sample of predominantly USA managers using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Of the 9,000 questionnaires received, 2,874 were answered by female managers, while 6,126 questionnaires were answered by male managers. These managers were rated by superiors and subordinates and also completed the survey themselves. The researchers summarized their findings as follows:

> Women exceeded men on three transformational scales: the attributes version of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration. These findings suggest that the female managers, more then the male managers, (1) manifested attributes that motivated their followers to feel respect and pride because of their association with them, (2) showed optimism and excitement

> about future goals, and (3) attempted to develop and mentor followers and attend to their individual needs. (p. 791)

Women also ranked higher then men in one area of transactional rewards, that of rewarding subordinates for good performance. The communal characteristic that showed the highest difference between male and female performance was individualized consideration of others. Females outperformed males in this area.

On the other hand, male managers scored higher than females in most transactional areas of management. “These findings suggest that male managers, more then female managers, (1) paid attention to their followers’ problems and mistakes, (2) waited until problems became severe before attempting to solve them, and (3) were absent and uninvolved at critical times” (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001, p. 793).

Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt further elaborated on their findings in the following statement:

> Both women’s higher scores on the transformational subscales and contingent reward and men’s higher scores on passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire leadership suggest that the female managers in this norming sample were more effective than the male managers. In support of this conclusion, the women in the norming sample scored significantly higher then the men on a measure of perceived effectiveness. (p. 791)

In building and structuring leadership organizations, women leaders tended to have a more participative style of leading others and thus created a web of inclusion rather than the transactional, male-dominated hierarchical leadership style. (Helgesen, 1990). Overall, women were counseled to not ask how they could change themselves to fit the leadership role. Rather, they were encouraged to ask how their talents and abilities

as a female leader could match the needs of the organization and benefit all involved (Wenninger & Conroy, 2001).

Hiring/Firing Practices and Legal Issues

Much has changed since 1933 when Franklin D. Roosevelt supported the premise that married women should be fired before men in the federal workplace (Gruber, 2002). One change that assisted women to improve their status in the workforce was affirmative action. Affirmative action began with Executive Order 12246 in 1965 in conjunction with Title VII under the Civil Rights Act, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. This act, however, specifically exempted faculty and administrators. Employees of educational institutions were included in the population only after President Nixon amended Title VII in 1972 with the Equal Opportunity Act. This order allowed federal employees to implement affirmative action to make certain that all applicants were treated equally. Affirmative action was used as a voluntary effort to relieve the effect of societal discrimination (Furniss & Graham, 1974).

Beginning in 1968, colleges and universities began to sense pressure to develop policies regarding affirmative action that would improve employment opportunities for females at their institutions. Institutions had previously received pressure to construct policies regarding minority groups, but these policies for minorities did not include employment opportunities for women. For instance, anti-nepotism rules, were not especially detrimental to men, but they were for women, specifically those who were

married to men in the same field (The Carnegie Commission for Higher Education, 1973).

In 1970, 18 colleges and universities were being investigated by the Office for Civil Rights in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW). As a result, HEW issued nine requirements with which colleges and universities would have to comply in order to receive federal funds. First, institutions needed to have salary equity in every job class on campus. Second, every female who had lost salary money, due to discrimination, would be awarded back pay. Third, the ratio of female employees in positions needed to be equivalent to the number of qualified female applicants for these positions. Fourth, female admissions to all doctoral graduate programs needed to increase. Fifth, a larger number of female members was needed to serve on committees charged with the selection and treatment of institutional employees. Sixth, nepotism policies needed to be written. Seventh, institutions were required to retroactively pay damages to females who suffered from anti-nepotism policies. Eighth, separate female and male job descriptions were to be erased, and all females were to be given equal consideration for jobs that matched their qualifications. Ninth, all female employees in nonacademic positions who possessed qualifications equal or superior to those of males in higher positions were to be given first consideration for advancement (The Carnegie Commission for Higher Education, 1973).

Pressure initially sensed by institutions for female equality largely came from female activist groups on campus or in the community. In 1970, the federal government increased its role in affirmative action for women when a women’s civil rights group,

The Women's Equity Action League (WEAL), filed a suit against all academic institutions. WEAL filed suit by having stated that the academic community discriminated based on gender across the entire industry (The Carnegie Commission for Higher Education, 1973). Dr. Bernice Sandler, the chair for the WEAL Action Committee for Federal Contract Compliance, was instrumental in charging more than 250 institutions with discrimination (Chamberlain, 1988). This action was the first major breakthrough regarding anti-discrimination for women in education administration (Konek, Kitch, & Hammond, 1980).

Women in academia responded with much enthusiasm to the WEAL efforts. In the 1970s, women faculty were part of a pyramidal ranking system and were given less money than their male counterparts for equal work. Also, only 42% of women held tenure in comparison to 60% of men (Chamberlain, 1988).

A revised Executive Order, in 1971, stated that all institutions employing 50 or more persons, and receiving $50,000 or more in federal funds, were required to have affirmative action plans. Initially, this order only applied to private institutions, but in 1973 this order was amended to include public institutions as well. These orders were enforced by HEW. HEW had the power to deny funds from being granted to any institution that did not comply with the orders (The Carnegie Commission for Higher Education, 1973). Since these governmental policies were passed, affirmative action has expanded career opportunities and resulted in higher wages and promotional opportunities for qualified women.

In the early to mid 1970s, anti-nepotism rules were dropped from many colleges and universities largely because of the increased need for qualified teachers, compliance with affirmative action rules, and pressure from feminists (Dagg, 1993). Few colleges and universities expressly forbade hiring females who were married to male employees, although schools may have forbidden one partner to directly supervise another partner or to be involved with tenure, promotion, or salary increases of their partner (Burgan et al., 1991; Mangan, 1989). Hiring trailing partners served the affirmative action need of recruiting women, for one member of the recruiting partnership was usually a woman; but when a female was the prospective hire and a male was the trailing partner, the male partner may have been favored over equally or more qualified female candidates (Burgan et al.).

At the end of the 1970s, female movements had taken on different meanings at universities. Decreased discrimination among faculty and staff, more female athletics, creations of women's centers, and increased opportunities overall had surfaced (Spitzberg, 1992). However, the term "affirmative action" often provoked negative reactions from individuals. If, for example, a woman was thought to have been hired as a result of affirmative action, it was sometimes assumed that the committee had lowered hiring standards (Miller, 2000).

Impacts on Female Trailing Partners

Gappa et al. (1979) concluded that 40% of academic women were single, and at highly selective institutions the number was raised to over 55%; however, only 8% of

male academics were single at the same universities. Of the married women at these institutions, 88% had husbands with professional or doctoral degrees.

As more women became academic scholars, universities continued to explore the option of partner hiring. Because more women were attending graduate school, the commonality of academic partnerships was subsequently increased (Mangan, 1989). When the woman was the trailing partner, she not only faced a disruption in her own academic career but encountered other psychological stresses as well. In a 1992 study, women were found to interrupt their careers more often because of a husband's change in location than because of pregnancy and child rearing combined. In fact, a woman was three times more likely to interrupt her academic path for her partner's career than for maternity (McElrath, 1992).

When a female followed her husband's career path, she risked not being able to find employment in her chosen field, or in any educational field, depending on the location of the employment chosen by her partner. She may have lost career contacts, income, professional status, and identity if she did not keep abreast of her academic field (Mangan, 1989). Tenured females who interrupted their careers for their husbands' careers took longer to obtain their tenure and rank than did their female colleagues who had not interrupted their careers. Speculation to as why this occurred was that interruptions in career might have been perceived as a lack of dedication and a liability factor for the institution (Helmick, Sypher, and Hummert, 1992; McElrath, 1992).

Females may also have encountered a lack of self-esteem and control in their lives as a result of not finding employment in their field (Neims, 1986). Both males and

females derived self-esteem more from their work accomplishments than their home life accomplishments; and women who worked reported greater self-esteem effectiveness, and well being (Pepitone-Rockwell, 1980). Thus, when it was not their choice to be out of work, self-esteem concerns were justified by females (Schwartzberg & Dytell, 1996).

Women left their place of employment often because the male in the relationship relocated due to job changes or promotions. This relocation was sometimes made despite the ill effects that relocating caused for the partner and family members (Neims, 1986). Sweet & Moen (2004) stated that if couples found work or kept jobs at the same institution, both were more likely to place an equal priority on both careers in the relationship. Those couples who did not work at the same institution tended to place priority on the husband's career. In a study by McElrath (1992), 300 female and 300 male faculty members who were members of three different sociology associations were surveyed. McElrath concluded that only 5% of males left academic positions for the female in a relationship, while 21% of females left academic positions for their husbands even when the female was earning a higher salary.

After the relocation process, 31% of women who were out of work were not employed but would have preferred to be employed. Speculation as to why these women were not working included lack of job opportunities in the female's chosen field, lower than expected salary offers, and psychological hindrances (Neims, 1986).

Barbee & Cunningham (1990) affirmed that when a female was the trailing partner, more grievances were expressed by the female academics. Females believed that, when a department was recruiting a female and the male was the trailing partner, the

department was more likely to strive to satisfy the husband's job requests than if the male was the candidate. These females believed that the female trailing partners were more likely to be offered part-time work, half pay for full-time work, fewer benefits, and were assumed to be more accessible to the institution. In a study by Dagg (1993), findings stated that almost 20% of females believed that they were exploited by the universities and colleges because the departments offered them less money than males received. These findings have sometimes provoked both partners to leave areas of employment, for the female may not have been satisfied with her work environment. Wilson (2000) emphasized that when a female was the top candidate in the search, husbands were less likely to follow their wives without a guaranteed job. Hence, partner hires were more common in these circumstances.

Promotional and Tenure Advancements

The "glass ceiling" is a term used to describe a barrier encountered by women in administrative and managerial roles. It has been defined as "an invisible, yet powerful obstruction to women who seek top-level positions in their organizations" (Manuel et al., 1999, p. 3).

As of 1996, 46% of the workers outside the home were female, and more than half of all women in the United States worked full-time. Yet, researchers have shown that women's advancement, within five or six years of entering the workforce, has not kept pace with that of men (Catalyst, 1998). It was at this professional stage, when many men started advancing at a quick rate, and into higher positions, that women did not. This

sometimes resulted in women who voluntarily left their positions. Catalyst noted that universities and colleges, knowingly and unknowingly, created environments that disadvantaged women employees.

In a foreword written for Martin (2000), Gloria Steinham stated that the number of male tenured faculty was increasing 30% faster than the number of tenured women at the turn of the 21st century. Even though more than 50% of the student population was female, most male faculty members in the university were tenured, and most female faculty members were not. Women were more likely to hold teaching positions than research positions. This may have caused fewer tenure opportunities for women. Women, however, were found by Yao (1999) to be less interested overall in self-advancement. Women were also less likely than men to have taken advantage of research opportunities and to have believed in the importance of prestige and status.

As of 2000, Wenninger & Conroy (2001) reported that, in institutions of higher education throughout the United States, 24% of full-time faculty were women, yet the road to tenure has been slower. Only 45% of women faculty members were on a tenure track. Of the faculty pool, 72% of male faculty members and 48% of female faculty members were tenured. The increase of females who gained tenure between 1980 and 2000 rose by only 1.5%, while males who earned tenure increased by 8%. In explaining these differences, some researchers have indicated that women may have spent more time teaching and advising students rather than conducting research. In comparison, males have been reported to spend more time researching than teaching and advising (Wenninger & Conroy, 2001). Female faculty members, according to Simeone (1987),

were more likely to publish alone, while men collaborated through their networks to publish more often. Men often networked with other men in their field informally to obtain these collaborations.

As previously stated, tenure was defined as the "method to protect academic freedom of the individual professor" (Chamberlain, 1988, p. 178). On average, women in the United States were less likely to have been tenured than men. Delaware had the statistically lowest number of tenured women with 61% of men and only 28% of females being tenured. Nine states (Alabama, California, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, New Jersey, Oregon, Rhone Island and Washington State) had a majority of female faculty members who were tenured. In 1985, the American Council on Education researched tenure rates for men and women. Tenured women made up 46% of full-time faculty members and were less likely to have been tenured than men in all 50 states. Percentages by state were detailed. Only 10% of female Alaskan professors working full-time were tenured, while 68% of Californian full-time female professors were granted tenure (Touchton & Davis, 1991).

Catalyst (1998) identified the following as powerful barriers to women striving to advance in their careers.

1. Negative assumptions in executive ranks about women, their abilities, and their commitment to careers
2. Perceptions that women don't fit with the corporate culture
3. Lack of career planning and the range of job experiences commensurate with the future needs of the organization
4. Lack of core opportunities for female employees who have management potential
5. Assumption that women will not relocate for career advancement
6. Failure to make managers accountable for advancing women

7. Management reluctance to giving women line (that is, revenue-generating) experience
8. Absence of, or too limited, succession planning
9. “Negative mentoring” and self-selection where women move into staff areas of line positions
10. Lack of mentoring and exclusion from informal career networks, where men have typically learned the unwritten rules of success
11. Appraisal and compensation systems that are not uniform for men and women
12. Corporate systems designed prior to women’s large-scale infusion into the workplace, such as benefits systems and productivity measures that don’t take into account new policies such as flexible work arrangements
13. Other forms of “cultural discouragement,” like a work environment that values long hours over actual performance or that offers limited support for work-family initiatives and limited commitment to diversity programs in general
14. Discrimination and sexual harassment. (pp. xxi-xxii)

Yao (1999) wrote that the fact that fewer women than men were tenured was the fault of the schools. Institutions, even research universities, encouraged women in teaching and service above and beyond rather than encouraging valued research. Martin (2000) stated that the usual reason women were not tenured as frequently as were men was because of a lack of qualified candidates. He further explained that “it is true that some fields filter out women so efficiently that few end up in the pool from which the professoriate is ultimately drawn” (pp. 91-92).

Men and women did not agree as to why men advanced faster than women according to a survey conducted by Nelson and Burke (2000) of 325 CEOs and 461 women at the level of vice president or above. Men ranked lack of management experience and overall years in the profession as the most likely reasons. Women, on the other hand, ranked stereotypes, preconceptions, and exclusion from informal networks as the most prominent barriers to advancement. “The fact that male CEOs and women

executives do not agree on the stumbling blocks women face may exacerbate the challenges facing managerial women who want to move up in organizations" (p. 108).

As of 1998, according to the American Council on Education's Office of Women in Higher Education, 19.3% of presidents in higher education institutions in the United States and approximately 33% of department chairs were women, (Wenninger & Conroy, 2001). The American Council on Education issued a report on The American College President in 2006 and stated that "the percentage of presidents who were women more than doubled, from 10 percent in 1986 to 23 percent of the total in 2006, but women's progress has slowed in recent years" (p. 1).

In 1998, women were least likely to be presidents of private doctoral-granting institutions, where only 13.2% of the presidents in these institutions were women (Ross & Green, 2000). However, women were more likely to be chief academic officers at smaller schools. Of the women presidents, 71% worked at schools with 3000 or fewer students. However, the largest percentage (27%) of women presidents were located at private 2-year institutions (Wenninger & Conroy, 2001). On the other hand, female faculty members were less likely to have been granted tenure at private than at public institutions (Touchton & Davis, 1991).

In examining women's progression from an historical perspective, women tended to become less visible in the higher levels of higher education administration as a result of the abolition of the "dean of women" positions in the 1970s. Deans of students began to oversee both men and women students. This change, in turn, led to more male administrators (Carnegie Commission for Higher Education, 1973).

Glazer-Raymo (1999) said that "the organizational culture must change, beginning with an end to the 'old boys' club attitude,' which still pervades university administration in many universities" (p. 163). The majority of male administrators were Caucasian, between 40 and 50 years of age, married, and had obtained advanced collegiate degrees. Faculty members mirrored these same characteristics (Green, 2000).

In her foreword written for Martin (2000), Steinham stated that the freedom for women to grow was not seen in academe as much as in the corporate world. She indicated that business women had become entrepreneurs at three times the rate of men, but faculty women did not have an equivalent freedom of opportunity. She noted that in business, promotion is often measured in a more objective manner. Some of the factors affecting promotion and tenure in academe are more subjective. In education, good teachers who receive high evaluations have often not been tenured if their productivity in research was perceived to be lower than expected. Another reason why women may not have been tenured, according to Steinham, was they were sometimes not perceived to be a worthy colleague by their peers or suffered the disapproval of fellow colleagues (Martin).

The problem, according to Glazer-Raymo (1999), was that "men make the rules and women must play by them. . . make no bones about it" (p. 163). The good ol' boy system was explained as an informal network of communication among departments, institutions and disciplines that were often the source of essential social, political, and intellectual conversations. Women were often not privy to these networks in their institutions. Of the 20 women interviewed by Simeone (1987) on this topic, 18 believed

that they had been excluded at some time due to the ol' boy network. Lawlor (1994) reported on the results of a survey conducted for *Working Woman* in 1994 of 502 executive women and revealed that women believed that the greatest obstacle to their advancement was being a woman in a male-dominated corporate culture (Lawlor, 1994). School administrators also believed that being a woman was a hindrance to their progression as administrators (Funk, 1995).

Women have tended to peak at the middle management level in the educational field and typically had positions with staff rather than line authority (Kaplan & Tinsley, 1989). Women in the higher education field have also been less likely to hold top positions than men. In 1989, only 27% of faculty were female, and female faculty maintained less than 34% of the tenure track positions versus the more than 66% held by men (Pearson, Shavlik, & Touchton, 1989). These figures represented only a 2% improvement in 20 years. Also, 22% of females teaching full-time, as compared to 7% of males, were teaching in non-tenure track positions (Glazer-Raymo, 1999).

Women may have comprised the majority of the educators in the classroom, but the educational executive positions have historically been dominated by men (Glazer, 1991). In 1995, women educators were reported to receive only two-thirds of the pay earned by their male counterparts. These figures continued to be low, despite a growing amount of research that showed the potential of women in all administrative positions (Glazer-Raymo, 1999).

Socially, women have not been considered equal to men in the educational field. Glazer-Raymo (1999) reported the comment of a male dean, "Golf is the great equalizer,

and until women are accepted into the private club environment, I'm afraid they will find it difficult to make it through the glass ceiling" (p. 164). She further elaborated in expressing her belief that women would continue to find it difficult to attain positions of higher leadership as long as men believed that women must be on their social plane to succeed. Similar examples have been cited in the K-12 arena. One principal stated, "I was the only woman principal in my cluster, and it was really difficult for the good ol' boys to recognize me as an equal. I do believe that women need to exceed. . . in order to be hired over a man" (Funk, 1995, p. 66).

In their study of 2,000 human resource managers, Nelson & Burke (2000) indicated that women experienced considerably more anxiety from organizational politics than did men. This anxiety was attributed to the possibilities that women may have been deprived of access to informal networking situations, may have had difficulty in gaining essential information for their position, and may have lacked power in their departments.

Swiss (1996) surveyed 325 executive women, and found that 68% of these women reported that women had limited opportunity for equal pay. Of those surveyed, 40% did not believe that they were paid the same amount as their male counterparts. In essence, only 17% of the surveyed women said that gender discrimination did not exist in their organization. The factors that were most responsible for inequity in their positions were the ol' boys' network, the way of thinking by senior management, and unwritten rules or norms, in the office (Swiss, 1996).

When all higher education faculty members were considered, salaries were higher for men than for women. According to the American Association of University Women,

women professors earned 77% of what male professors earned. One reason may have been that women have historically been concentrated in the social sciences and have been paid less than women in the hard sciences, such as math, computer science, and engineering (Wenninger & Conroy, 2001). In fact, over 13% of deans in a statistical sample were women, and more than half of the women were concentrated in the social sciences. There were no women in the hard sciences (Miller, 1993).

In a study by Dagg (1993), it was stated that almost 20% of the women surveyed expressed that they were exploited by universities and colleges because departments offered them less money than they offered to their male colleagues. In a UCLA study, Yao (1999) found that about 25% of male faculty and only 6% of female faculty received over $70,000. Interestingly, women in 1996 made up 47% of the United States citizens with doctorates but only 35% of faculty at universities and only 28% of faculty at research universities.

Mentoring and Networking

Mentors for females in higher education administration have been noted as being essential. Gruber (2002) said that mentoring relationships usually involve an older professional and a new professional as the protégé. Mentors can counsel women at all levels, give wise insight and smooth the path toward tenure as well as providing support for administrators in new roles. Mentors have been found outside as well as inside a protégé’s department, and more objective information has been attributed to outside mentors. Mentors have had the ability to provide better feedback, introduce protégés to

key people and provide insight into beneficial associations. They can also provide advice in terms of future career directions or information on key issues in education. Mentor programs have also benefited institutions. Benefits have included better communications, more competent employees, and a diverse leadership group (Shillingsburg, 1993).

Gruber (2002) made several observations as to why successful professionals were sometimes reluctant to become mentors. First, a protégé's failure might reflect negatively on the mentor. Second, the participation by the mentor in an exclusively female mentoring relationship may convey an impression of favoritism of women over men in the workplace. Mentoring, however, by older and more professional women, could assist in correcting the imbalance of gender leadership and allow women to become more successful.

In addition to mentoring relationships, networking organizations have also been beneficial to women. One organization that has benefited women in its field has been the Society for Women in Philosophy. This society served as a forum for feminist philosophy by providing the opportunity for publications, moral support, information about the profession, and a network of scholarly colleagues. This type of organization helped women grow in their profession, increased their knowledge of their subject matter, and helped women prepare to survive in the academic world. Martin suggested that all disciplines should create organizations similar to the Society for Women in Philosophy's structure and interconnect with one another for even more benefit (Martin, 2000).

The Louisiana State University Women's Studies Council instituted a successful annual event that brought women in the community to campus. These successful women

interacted with faculty and students in panel discussions, open discussions, and receptions where issues facing women were addressed (Pearson, Shavlik, & Touchton, 1989).

Martin (2000) also researched a tradition in Sweden that was relevant to informal networking among women. There was a fika (or coffee break) scheduled every morning for faculty at the university. Martin suggested that women faculty create the same concept in the United States. Similar to the overwhelmingly popular concept of men networking on the golf course, academic women could share gender-related troubles, future ideas, and other gender-related topics over coffee and cake.

Maternity, Child Care, and Family Issues

Women have been discriminated against in higher education for maternity and child care reasons. Having children has made it difficult for women in higher education to receive acceptance. Single mothers especially have had a difficult time in higher education, for the high cost of child care was a cost that was often not considered in salary negotiations (Bengiveno, 1995).

Reasonable lengths of maternity leave have been important concerns for women's groups on campuses and in communities interested in improving the lives of academic women. HEW guidelines advocated for maternity leaves to be granted to women and parental leave for child rearing for men and women. The EEOC also issued guidelines regarding women's rights in pregnancy, maternity, and childbirth. The City University of New York was among the first institutions to offer a more flexible option for maternity

and child care leave. In 1973, CUNY offered 20 days of paid leave and up to 18 months of unpaid leave for maternity and child care time for all professionals, regardless of gender (Carnegie Commission for Higher Education, 1973). Senior women in administration have reported that commitment to family responsibilities and having children has hindered the advancement of female leaders. However, others believed that being a mother was a leadership lesson in itself in that it fostered communication skills, provided opportunities to teach leadership skills to others as well as to learn to multi-task (Gruber, 2002).

Funk (1995) noted that executive women tended to experience more pressure at home and that less support was given to them than their male colleagues. A major obstacle for women in leadership roles was the fact that they experienced guilt over the time that they spent away from their families. Women also were expected to play the "superwoman" role in their lives. An academic scientist with a family and children said that her research suffered in comparison to those without family obligations. Another noted that faculty husbands of women in academia did not devote as much time to family obligations as did their wives (Martin, 2000). In fact, in a study by Yao (1999), 72% of women believed that having a flexible schedule was an influential job factor in job satisfaction, while only 63% of men thought the same way.

When marriage partners both worked full-time, women experienced a heavier workload when paid work and housework were considered. The typical woman averaged 85 hours a week working, while the average man worked 66 hours per week. This extra time was spent performing work such as housework, home management, and child care

(Hochschild, 1989). The extra workload hours tended to interfere with the women's ability to relax, and negative health often was the result (Frankenhaeuser, 1991).

Interestingly, women without children were found to be less productive at work than were those who had children. This finding was based on a multivariate Norwegian analyses of more than 1500 tenured faculty members (199 female and 1370 male respondents). In this study, Kyvik (1990) found that married women were viewed as more productive than single women. Kyvik also found that the age of the children was relevant to productivity. He found that those women with children, under the age of 10, were busier outside of work than those who raised older children. “Thus, only women with small children and unmarried/childless women, who as a group make up about half the women researchers, publish on average substantially less than their male counterparts” (p. 156). Davis and Astin (1987) focused on a study based in the United States, based on a subsample of 299 participants of the 9,948 respondents to a Higher Education Research Institute survey. Davis and Astin found that the women in their sample “produced fewer books, but more chapters, than the typical man and that the two sexes were equally productive in respect to articles” (p. 272).

In 2000, four of five male college presidents were married, while just over half of the female presidents were married. Many women were members of religious orders, however, which prevented them from marriage (Green, 2000). The American Council on Education (2007) stated “Only 63 percent of women presidents are… married, compared with 89 percent of their male colleagues. Twenty-four percent of women presidents are either divorced or were never married (excluding members of religious orders)” (p. 1). A

woman provost, interviewed by Glazer-Raymo (1999), believed that women administrators were allowed no personal life, for their lives revolved around the college. Female presidents were also 1% more likely to be divorced than their male counterparts. In 1998, approximately 74% of female presidents had spouses who worked, while less than half of the married male presidents had working wives (Ross & Green, 2000).

Feminist Theory

Feminist theory was the basis for equality for women. Hooks (2000) stated feminism was "a struggle to end sexist oppression. Therefore, it is necessarily a struggle to eradicate the ideology of domination that permeates Western culture on various levels" (p. 26). Sexist oppression was the oldest form of oppression, for it was the basis of other forms of oppression. Sexism was perpetuated by social norms, by those who traditionally dominated in society, and by those who were socialized to believe in the status quo. Hooks emphasized that women needed to work together rather than struggle against each other to fight sexist oppression. Hooks further stated that feminism was not created for women to become more privileged than men or as a declaration of war against men. Feminism was a change that needed support from both women and men.

Similar to leadership style research, cognitive development has focused on men. Gilligan (1982) suggested that men and women should be studied separately for a holistic analysis of how humans develop cognitively. Gilligan stated that Freud, Erickson, Piaget, and Kohlberg focused their developmental theories on men, thus biasing their tools and analysis methods against women. When women and men were tested by Kohlberg's tests,

for example, women tended to be recognized as less developed. In reaction, Gilligan created a new set of moral development stages to emphasize that women were not inferior to men in moral development, just different. She postulated that women developed in three stages: preconventional, conventional, and postconventional. However, instead of progressing into stages by a change in cognitive development, as suggested by previous researchers, she explained that women progressed by changes in how they viewed themselves. According to Gilligan's research on participants contemplating abortion, women tended to base moral decision making on their feelings of compassion. She believed that men tended to base their decisions on rights, as defined by law. Hence, she concluded women and men developed by different means.

Several researchers disagreed with Gilligan's findings. Tavris (1992) stated that "The popularity of this theory does not rest on its scientific merit. On the contrary, research in recent years casts considerable doubt on the notion that men and women differ appreciably in their moral reasoning" (p. 83). Tavris also believed that Gilligan should have studied the reactions of men regarding abortions performed on their partners in order to have gained insight on men and women in their development. Colby and Damon (1987) also criticized Gilligan's work. They stated that Gilligan's research did not support a generalized distinction between men and women. Sommers (2000) critiqued Gilligan further and stated, "Without comparative observations of boys, Gilligan's findings cannot be assessed, indeed cannot be taken seriously" (p. 104).

Gender Harassment

Associated with sexual harassment, gender harassment is another form of inequality based on gender. Gender harassment is not necessarily sexual in nature, however. Women have faced the brunt of gender discrimination in education, as well as in other arenas.

Judith Rodin, the first woman president of the University of Pennsylvania, proved that a woman could obtain such a prestigious role at an Ivy League School. Yet, when the New York Times wrote an article about her new role they focused on the contrast between the "gray-tweed and furrowed-brow world of academia" with Dr. Rodin's "cover-girl smile and designer clothes," and her "pert manner and bouncy determination." The article recognized a president of a university more as a "serious country club tennis player" than a "boardroom predator." Also mentioned, in the article, was her 20 years at Yale University where she had served as provost (O'Neill, 1994, p. C1).

Smith College's president, Ruth Simmons, had a similar review. Rimer (1995) described Simmons as "elegantly dressed in a long, dark-green pleated skirt and matching jacket, with a double strand of pearls and small golf hoop earrings" (p. B8). Buried in the midst of the text, the reader learned of Dr. Simmons' two degrees from Harvard and her previous positions of dean and vice provost at other schools. References to dress and physical attributes rather than administrative leadership did not define them as leaders but rather focused on their physical and feminine qualities alone (Glazer-Raymo, 1999). Females have been more likely to receive compliments on their attractiveness and their

skill in home management, while men have been more likely to be praised for their intellect. Yet, when female administrators' appearance and dress were not attractive, they were downgraded personally or they were thought to have sloppy work as well (Sandler, 1986).

Sexual Harassment

When women first began joining the workforce, they were almost totally dependent on their male supervisors for job security. Hence, when their male supervisors sexually harassed them, they were left with virtually no options but to submit to their advances, quit their job, or try to resist the harassment (Schur, 1983).

Females have encountered more sexual harassment than men in the workplace (Hostile Hallways, 2001). According to Dobash and Dobash (1979), men's power and control over women were parts of a coercive control system men used to maintain dominance socially over women. Feminist scholars have argued that "domestic violence is rooted in gender and power and represents men's active attempts to maintain dominance and control over women" (Anderson, 1997, p. 655).

Hogben & Waterman (2000) found a significant correlation between coercive sexual behavior and violence scores on the Conflict Tactic Scale (CTS). Those who were identified as coercers had a higher mean CTS score than non-coercers. Psychological abuse has also been correlated with coercion and abuse. It has been hypothesized that men had violent tendencies because of society's pressure to act in a masculine manner (Anderson, 1997). Hence, sexual harassment was both "a tool and a result of male

domination in society" (Matchen & DeSouza, 2000, p. 303). However, the vast differences between males and females may be explained in different ways as well.

Sexual harassment was defined as "unwanted sexually oriented behavior in a work context" (Riger, 1991, p. 497). Two types of sexual harassment include hostile environments or quid pro quo. Hostile environments include sexual jokes, touching, or displays of items denigrating to women. Quid pro quo included sexual behavior demanded in exchange for rewards or a promise of no punishment (Hirsch, 1994).

Harassment was defined as a social problem as opposed to a personal problem for employees. In 1980, sexual harassment was deemed illegal based on Title VII of the Civil Rights Act. Along with this law, employers were given an affirmative duty to prevent sexual harassment, taking all necessary steps to ensure that this occurred. When sexual harassment did occur, employers were then required to impose any and all suitable sanctions, to the offenders of the policy (Schur 1983). Yet, sexual harassment still was prevalent in higher education situations, especially when a woman's supervisor was a man (Chliwniak, 1997).

In two separate national surveys in the 1980s regarding sexual harassment, approximately 42% of all females surveyed reported that they had experienced sexual harassment in the workplace. A much smaller percentage, less than 10%, indicated they had reported these incidences to their human resource office (Riger, 1991). Victims may have been negligent in officially reporting incidents for two reasons. First, the policies at institutions explaining sexual harassment may have been interpreted to mean something different from what the victim encountered. Second, the conflict resolution procedures

that the institution might have adopted may not have been compatible with the way the victim wished to proceed (Riger).

Only female students reported higher levels of harassment than female faculty (Martin, 2000). Men were also reporting sexual harassment but not to the extent that women were reporting incidences. Male complaints included only a small percentage of the overall complaints filed each year (Wasielski & Whatley, 2001). Over time, however, males have reported sexual harassment claims in consistently higher numbers. In 1992, about 9% of the charges were reported by men to the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission and the state and local Fair Employment Practices Agencies, whereas in 2001, over 13% of all charges were reported by males (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2002).

Sexual Harassment of Non-Caucasian Women

Multicultural women in higher education administration may face not only barriers that other women face but multicultural barriers as well. For example, in the Anita Hill case against Clarence Thomas, the complexity of racism was intertwined with sexual harassment. These two situations combined made the situation even more difficult (Shelton & Chavous, 1999).

In a study by Shelton & Chavous (1999), women were asked to read two scenarios, one in which a white man was sexually harassing a woman and a second in which a black man was the perpetrator. Overall, both white and black women rated the harasser's behavior as more humorous and appropriate when the male was black or a co-

worker than when he was white or a supervisor. When the same scenario portrayed a white man, rather than a black man, the harassment was seen as more severe. It was hypothesized that black women and black men had a more acceptable and appropriate sexual relationship; hence harassment was not as likely to have been the perception in the scenario. Also, unsolicited sexual behavior between black men and black women was seen as more trivial than that between white women or men. This related to the stereotype that black females had a “code of silence” in reporting black men for illegal acts, and hence ignored their own feelings related to gender in exchange for race. In coping with harassment situations, black women were more likely to confront the harasser, whereas white women were more likely to confide in a friend about the situation. Native American, Caucasian, and Latina females were more likely to report harassment than were African American or Asian American faculty members. Harassment reporting statistics were highest for Native American women followed by Caucasian women (Green, 1996).

Sexual Harassment of Non-American Men and Women

In a study comparing Swedish and American men and women, U.S. women reported having had been harassed sexually in the form of physical coercion, nonphysical coercion, or interpersonal violence at a rate three times higher than Swedish women. Accordingly, U.S. men reported using force with a woman at a rate of 16%, compared to 4% of Swedish men. Women in both countries who had more sexual partners increased their risk of encountering an aggressive man sexually. Some men may have viewed

sexually experienced women as promiscuous and, therefore, acceptable victims of coercion (Lottes & Weinberg, 1997).

Lottes & Weinberg (1997) also hypothesized that the more violent nature of men in the U.S. may be due to the higher level of overall violence in the U.S. as compared to Sweden. Perhaps violence in the U.S. was more prevalent, thereby creating more violent men than other nations. Also, sexual education has been less comprehensive in the U.S. than in Sweden. Consequently, sexual ethics were not taught at a young age. U.S. women were also seen as supporters of the double standard and less egalitarian than Swedish women.

Sexual Harassment Court Decisions

In 1972, Title IX of the Civil Right Act was passed. Title IX prohibited institutions that receive federal funding from discriminating on the basis of sex in educational programs or activities. Because almost all schools receive federal funds, Title IX applied to almost every school (U.S. Department of Education, 1997). This legislation and key court cases have helped to reduce, if not eliminate sexual harassment in schools. In Franklin v. Gwinnett County Public Schools (1992), the Supreme Court held that a student could claim for damages, under Title IX, if a teacher created a sexually hostile school atmosphere. The U. S. Supreme Court ruled in Davis v. Monroe County Board of Education (1999) that students could claim damages under Title IX if students sexually harassed each other. Both rulings indicated that schools were responsible for initiating a prevention program for sexual harassment in the schools and to make sure that situations

were dealt with appropriately if harassment occurred (National Coalition for Women, 2002).

Schools have had a lot of responsibility in ensuring that sexual harassment situations have been handled in the correct manner. This has created considerable pressure on school districts. In the Gebser v. Lago Vista Independent School District (1998) decision, it was determined that school districts were not responsible for sexual harassment charges unless an administrator knew about the harassment while it was taking place and did not report the teacher to the proper officials. Before Gebser, many courts could have held school districts themselves liable for incidents of sexual harassment by a teacher without knowing if the administration was knowledgeable of the harassment (National Coalition for Women, 2002). After this ruling, it was decided in the Davis v. Monroe County Board of Education (1999) case that the same rule would be applicable to student on student harassment. Title VII protected employees from employers' sexual harassment and had higher standards by which to abide than Title IX. Apparently, since students were required to attend school, as opposed to voluntarily attending, they received fewer protections from the law (National Coalition for Women, 2002).

Sexual Harassment in K-12 Schools

In a study by the American Association of University Women (AAUW) Educational Foundation, students in grades 8-11 were surveyed regarding their sexual harassment history in school. Over 80% of students indicated having experienced some

form of sexual harassment with females having experienced harassment at a higher level (83%) than males (79%). Over 70% of students said they would report harassment by a school official or employee to an adult, but only 40% of students said that they would report harassment charges to an adult at school if they were harassed by another student. They indicated they would most likely tell friends about the incident. For those who experienced sexual harassment, almost half reported being very upset by the incident. Also, they reported that grades, class participation, comfort, and attendance were compromised by harassment (Hostile Hallways, 2001).

Students have been threatened by sexual harassment from elementary to postgraduate years. In 2002, The National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education (NCWGE) developed a Report Card on Gender Equity. Improvement in reducing sexual harassment received the lowest rating (a "D+") in the assessment of nine key areas of education affected by Title IX over 25 years. The 30-year grade was a “C.” This report summarized the progress, or lack thereof, in reducing sexual harassment. It was concluded that "sexual harassment continues to plague our nation’s schools and students--both boys and girls” (p. 43).

Sexual harassment has placed limits on the benefits of the education system and created hindrances to learning. Schools have had a legal responsibility for administrators and teachers to respond to sexual harassment in the schools. Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act prohibited discrimination in education. In fact department chairs have had “no choice but to take immediate and corrective action at the first instance of reports of sexual harassment” (Cnudde & Nesvold, 1985, p. 782). However, sexual harassment has

not been eliminated in America's schools and has in fact been a detractor to the equal opportunity females have struggled for in the school system. Women who have been harassed have reported a higher level of stress and indicated that they have considered leaving academe more often than women who have not been harassed. Women who have been harassed, according to Green (1996) "may feel trapped at a school, working with colleagues they don't respect or enjoy" (p. 229).

Sexual Harassment of Faculty

Institutions that documented anti-harassment policies tended to focus on education regarding the inappropriateness of the sexual harassment act instead of prevention. These institutions also tended to be more concerned with educating employees regarding their policies as opposed to addressing how employees responded to the harassment acts (Wasielski & Whatley, 2001).

Institutions with more women faculty were less likely to have reported harassment incidents. However, women were more likely to have been harassed at public than at private schools, and Caucasian women were more likely to have been harassed than other ethnic groups. Dey, Korn & Sax (1996) studied data collected in 1992-1993 from approximately 30,000 full-time faculty members, representing 289 schools, in partnership with the UCLA Higher Education Research Institute. They reported that 15.1% of female faculty survey admitted to being harassed. In a 1995-96 update, this number dropped to 12%. This updated survey data indicated, however, that more than 26% of women's studies professors were harassed. Dey, Korn & Sax offered an

explanation for this discrepancy. They indicated that this population may have reported a higher percentage because they were more aware of the sexual harassment definition or they worked in areas where harassment was more prevalent.

Surprisingly, in a study conducted by Matchen & DeSouza (2000), 63% of the 359 surveyed college students admitted to engaging in at least one sexual harassing behavior toward a faculty member. All students were undergraduate students in a large Midwest university. Of the 102 faculty members surveyed from the same institution, 53% reported being sexually harassed by students with female professors reporting more unwanted sexual behavior from students. These female professors were also more distressed about the behavior than their male counterparts.

In a later study (DeSouza & Fansler, 2003), over half of the 209 surveyed faculty members at a large Midwestern university indicated having experienced sexual harassment by students at least one time in the prior two years. Results showed that younger female faculty members were at the greatest risk of harassment and the most vulnerable. Female educators were more bothered than men by harassment overall and gender harassment, and their anxiety and depression score ratings were also higher than males who had experienced sexual harassment. The psychological consequences of the harassment were more serious for women than men. As a form of dealing with the struggle of being harassed, internal and external coping procedures were seen among those surveyed. Women used both internal (denial, detachment) and external (seeking help from social systems, relief from the institution) methods. Men, on the other hand, focused more on the external coping system and tended to avoid internal coping methods.

Reporting Sexual Harassment

During grievance procedures, gender bias has been known to exist. Riger (1991) reported that female educators were especially harmed by sexual harassment, where the "goal of the organization [was] to nurture and promote development" (p. 500). Violations of this nurturing environment could have left deep wounds for the women involved in sexual harassment. This female population may have also preferred informal, rather than formal, grievance procedures for fear that retaliation may result from public announcements regarding the charges. Also, all public institutions that received Title IX funds needed to maintain grievance procedures to handle sexual harassment violations. Thus, the institutions in education were better equipped and more public in dealing with their litigation proceedings. Female educators may have also been reluctant to report incidents, for verbal warnings were often the only punishment inflicted on the offenders (Riger).

Motivation was also a key barrier to why more women did not report sexual harassment charges. Societal role pressures to conform to the traditional sex roles and humiliation, which many women faced in the grievance procedures, further inhibited this decision. Marvel (1998) summarized the importance of reporting incidences, indicating that until more women were able to confront their fears of reporting incidences, they would be discriminated against in the sexual harassment area in education.

Sexual Coercion and Harassment of College Students

Sexual harassment has been seen in both secondary and post secondary institutions; however, most research on sexual coercion, or "quid pro quo sexual harassment" (Matchen & DeSouza, 2000, p. 302) has been conducted in higher education settings. Sexual coercion, according to Spitzberg & Rhea (1999), "represents the continuum of processes by which persons are induced into sexual activity against their will" (p. 3). Sexual coercion has been defined as "a more severe form of sexual harassment" (DeSouza & Fansler, 2003, p. 540). At the opposite end of the continuum are less coercive measures which have been noted as psychological pressure.

Fisher, Cullen, & Turner (2000) reported that many college students had harassing comments made about them, were sexually coerced, received obscene phone calls, or were stalked. Another form of coercion that has become prevalent is obsessive relational intrusion (ORI). "ORI is a form of ongoing and unwanted pursuit of a relationship. It involves activities ranging from constant calling or requesting a date to breaking and entering and surreptitious observation. When such obsessive relational intrusion becomes threatening, it constitutes stalking" (Spitzberg & Rhea, 1999, p. 3).

There have been several types of stalking harassments. One form that has increased with technological advances has been cyberstalking. Cyberstalking has been difficult to address in that cases have typically been referred to local law enforcement agencies, because the behavior did not break federal law. In the New York City Police Department, 40% of technology cases involved electronic threats and harassment between 1997-2001. With the growing number of college students and computer usage,

the instances of electronic threats and harassment at the college level have increased. In a 1997 telephone survey study of 4,446 women enrolled at two- and four-year institutions nationwide, 596 or (13.1%) stated that they were stalked. This population cited a total of 696 total stalking incidents. Out of the 696 incidents, 166 (23.9%) included stalking using email (Fisher, Cullen & Turner, 2002).

Title IX

"Despite the attention paid to the issue in recent years, sexual harassment remains widespread, hurting girls and boys at every level of their education" (National Coalition, 2002, p. 44). Unfortunately, younger victims of sexual harassment were less likely than older victims to know that they were harassed and label their experiences as harassment (Cummings & Armenta, 2002).

Sexual harassment is unwarranted and unwelcome in any environment. This is especially true in schools. Unsolicited sexual words, gestures, pictures, notes, or physical behaviors can interrupt learning at school and the ability to concentrate for students. Acts of harassment were deemed to violate Title VII and IX of the Civil Rights Act which provided the right for individuals to be in school or the workplace and to not encounter sexual harassment. Some forms of harassment in the schools may have included jokes, flashing, mooning, indicating that someone is homosexual, name calling, sexual notes or email, pornographic material, unwarranted sexual comment regarding body parts, spreading sexual rumors, pressure for intercourse or dates, pressure for personal sexual

information, repeated phone calls, groping, grabbing, backing into a corner, and gesturing (Hostile Hallways, 2001).

Career Paths

Female administrators who have progressed to top positions in higher education have most frequently had similar professional career paths. Walton (1996) stated that women were usually faculty members, department chairs, academic deans or vice presidents, and then presidents. The National President's Study by Ross & Green (2000) focused on college and university presidents nationwide who were leaders of regionally accredited, degree-granting schools. During the winter of 1998 over 3000 presidents were mailed questionnaires and 2,380 presidents were represented in the study. Women tended to earn their highest degree in the humanities/fine arts area and to have a Ph.D. as their highest degree as opposed to having earned an Ed.D. or J.D. degree. Approximately 25% of women presidents had served as vice presidents for academic affairs in their previous positions, and 72% had served at different institutions prior to their presidential appointment. Over one third of women presidents had followed a career path in which they served 10 or more years as full time faculty. Women were also more likely than men to have served on external advisory boards (Ross & Green, 2000).

Cejda and McKenney (2001) surveyed 369 respondents in a national survey of Chief Academic Officers (CAO) in public comprehensive community colleges in an effort to study the career paths of women in higher education administration. They reported the following:

> The analysis provided evidence that the most important factor that significantly predicts the career path of CAOs in community colleges was the immediate previous position. The second most important factor affecting the career paths was the career entry port. Third and finally, the remaining significant predictor was the number of higher education positions in the career sequence. As the most significant predictor of career path, a distribution frequency for the first prior position was created…The most common prior position was that of a Primary Academic Officer (32.6%), followed by serving as the Chief Academic Officer at another institution (25.5%)…It would appear that for women a variety of credentials and experiences have become the medium of exchange. Classroom experiences, obtaining a Ph.D., and holding an administrative appointment as a primary or chief academic officer are part of this value system. (p. 1)

The American Council on Education Report, An Agenda for Excellence: Creating Flexibility in Tenure-Track Faculty Careers (2007) reported that “faculty with unusual caregiving responsibilities (e.g., multiple births, a dependent with a physical or mental disability, or terminally ill dependents) are often forced to choose non–tenure-track career paths to manage work and life demands better” (p. iii).

Barriers for Multicultural, Lesbian and Catholic Women

Minority women in higher education administration may encounter multicultural barriers in addition to the barriers that all women face. According to Chemers (1997), minority leaders have had a more difficult time being promoted than non-minority leaders. However, “there is little indication that minority leaders differ dramatically from dominant culture leaders in behavior, performance, or subordinate satisfaction ” (p. 150).

Multicultural women have constituted a small portion within the female minority in higher education administration. McCoy & DiGeorgio-Lutz (1999) stated that “a diverse faculty and administration are critically important if the curriculum and other features of the university are to be transformed” (p. 139). In 1999, men comprised

approximately 68% of all U.S. faculty, and 59% were white. Of the approximate 33% of female faculty, 28% were white. In fact, multicultural faculty comprised approximately 11% of all faculty, and females in that category consisted of less than 5%. “To be effective, movement toward the creation of a woman-centered university must also include changes in the campus climate. . . that make up campus life as perceived by the diverse members of the university community” (McCoy & DiGeorgio-Lutz, 1999, p. 139).

There have been specific pressures that ethnic minorities have faced which in turn have had an effect on their performance as educators and administrators. Feelings of isolation, coping strains with stereotyping, discrimination, and pressures from institutional culture were noted by Walker (1993), and all of these pressures were considered stressors.

Isolation was a notable stressor in the lives of black women administrators and may have been a reason that networking became important. A sense of separateness was experienced when black administrators had few or no black staff members or colleagues on whom to rely for needed support. Walker (1993) discussed the emotional support gained by Black women from women who shared similar situations. This sharing also gave women an opportunity to pool resources and ideas.

Other challenges included tokenism. Women who have faced tokenism have been made aware of the fact that they were the only minority women in their positions but have been under pressure to behave as though that difference was not a factor. Others also questioned competency in regard to these women. Mentoring challenges have also

been prevalent. Since the number of minority women in higher position leadership roles has been low, there has been a scarcity of mentors to meet the needs of women in lower positions. African American women, however, have exhibited internal and external motivations to succeed in their respective leadership positions. Edwards (1998) stressed the care exhibited by African American women for their community and the extent to which they worked for the welfare of others. They have strived to leave a legacy for future women in their roles. Lastly, they have been inspired to work and to prove their competence to their male and white colleagues.

Hispanic women have also encountered barriers. Cecilia Burciarga, Assistant Dean at Stanford University, described these barriers as the adobe ceiling. This ceiling is not transparent, is thick and dense, does not crumble, and was constructed to last for years. Hansen (1999) indicated that Latina leaders preferred a participatory leadership style, while most administrations were led under a directive style.

Women leaders were not common in the Mexico higher education system in the late 1900s. In 1989, the largest campus in Mexico, Universidad Autonoma Metropolitana-Azcapotzalco, with 16,000 students, hired their first female chief administrator. Mexico higher education institutions had never hired a woman in a rectoral position before, in the history of the country (Green, 1997).

Native American female leaders have not faced as many obstacles as other multicultural groups. In 1996, women led 32% of American Indian Higher Education Consortium member colleges. Janine Pretty on Top stated that since the culture of

American Indians was matriarchal and matrilineal, women leaders were not likely to have received the same criticism as non-tribal women (Krumm, 1998).

Lesbian women in higher education administration have had deeply sensitive issues to face in their leadership positions. Because of these issues, lesbians in these positions have been less likely to be open in regard to their sexual identity. Openly lesbian leaders have faced comments, stereotypes, curiosity and discomfort in their positions. Some believed that they were able to be better professionals if their sexual identity was kept confidential. Those who did choose to express their sexual identity did so for various reasons. Women who "came out" during the civil rights movement did so largely for political reasons. Others came out to counter stereotypes of lesbian and gay individuals. Some did so to make the college campus safer for gay students. Additional reasons included the opportunity to claim domestic partners on insurance. Lastly, some women wanted to be honest with themselves and their society by being open about their sexuality (Cook, 1998).

Cook (1998) stated that feminism has, in a sense, been in conflict with the Catholic tradition. This has made it more difficult for female Catholic leaders to lead effectively. Women leaders at schools founded by women's religious orders, however, have been granted a great deal of support, for they have been in positions to include women in leadership positions. Women working in schools founded by male orders have encountered a "stained glass ceiling." They have not received the same support as that found in female religious orders due to patriarchal traditions. Catholic women have been encouraged to let their voices be heard, create women's centers and programs, and serve

as role models for students. Interestingly, more women have been successful in being hired by Catholic colleges, primarily because of scarcer funds to hire top male candidates (Cook).

Summary

Females in higher education administration have increased in numbers and status on college and university campuses since the 1970s, largely due to affirmative action laws, among other federal regulations and guidelines. Yet, the overpopulation of males in higher administration positions has continued. According to Angel & Barrerra (1991), long-term strategies including official mentoring programs for females at institutions may help women reach their full potential in employment. This is especially true for new employees. Deans have also been encouraged to be cognizant of the gender diversity of their faculty members and strive to increase the number of females they have on staff. Widespread advertising of available jobs and adherence to affirmative action policies, where applicable, have been advocated to improve the recruitment of qualified women.

Women have been encouraged not to defer to others when they have input, master the art of public speaking, pick their battles, establish personal and professional networks and participate in them, achieve balance in their lives, play to their strengths, and be faithful to their values (Wenninger, 1999). Acquiring experience by observing other administrators, chairing a department or committee, serving an internship, attending leadership institutes, and studying leadership publications has also been advocated as important (O’Donnell, 1996).

A number of authors addressed the importance of support for women at the institutional level. Wenninger (1994) advocated for the elimination of bias in relation to male colleagues in reference to tenure, promotional advancement, and employment opportunities. Various researchers and writers have made specific recommendations for institutions such as changing policies to improve reporting of sexual harassment, focusing on education and on response procedures to harassment acts (Wasielski & Whatley, 2001). Administrators have been encouraged to develop a comprehensive definition of sexual harassment, a policy statement stating that sexual harassment will not be permitted, and punishments for harassment acts so that all are knowledgeable of the outcomes. These actions have been viewed as ensuring fairness and knowledge that harassers will not go unpunished (Cummings & Armenta, 2002; Green, 1996). In general, researchers have taken the position that institutions and supervisors need to be more aware that females at the higher levels of administration may encounter more barriers, and be subjected to more discrimination than their male counterparts.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter provides a description of the methodology used to conduct research on gender issues related to women administrators in higher education. Included are: a statement of the problem, delimitations, limitations, significance of the study, research questions, population and sample, instrumentation, dependent variables, independent variables, data collection, data analysis, and a chapter summary.

Statement of the Problem

There are several problems that women have faced in higher education administration. First, women in the higher education profession have historically faced difficulty in achieving full-time, tenured faculty positions. In 1998, men held 74% of all tenured positions. Second, men have also held a high majority of all upper level administrative positions. Though women, at the time of the present study, comprised more than 50% of the college student population, they were not equally represented in senior level higher education administration positions. As one example, only an estimated one-third of university department chairs were women. Third, the lack of women in upper level administrative positions has resulted in a lack of women mentors for women aspiring to achieve these higher administrative positions (Wenninger & Conroy, 2001). The present research study was intended to add to prior research and provide information

on current trends regarding women in higher education administration in the state of Florida.

Delimitations

This study was delimited to women employees in public and private Florida institutions of higher education during 2007 who held the position of assistant dean, associate dean, dean, assistant vice president, associate vice president, vice president, assistant provost, provost, or president. The study was focused on women whose names were included in the American College Personnel Association (ACPA) and National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) listserv databases. Women administrators outside of Florida and non-members of the stated associations were excluded from the survey population.

Limitations

There are several limitations in this specific study. All participants were employed in the state of Florida; therefore, there was a lack of geographic diversity in the women administrators responding to the survey. This resulted in an inability to generalize beyond the surveyed population. Furthermore, all of the potential respondents were chosen from two specific education association listserv databases that catered to the student personnel field in higher education, the American College Personnel Association (ACPA) and the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA). Women who were not members of these associations were excluded from participation. This resulted in a

relatively small number of potential respondents. Finally, results of this study were limited by the accuracy of the data provided by the responding women administrators in completing the survey and data which could be quantified.

Significance of the Study

The researcher sought to determine if women administrators in Florida institutions of higher education suffered discrimination during their progression in higher education administration. The questionnaire designed for the study was intended to judge data regarding the status of women administrators in Florida institutions with regard to discrimination, diversity, and equity. The researcher also proposed to enhance awareness of gender issues and, lastly, recommend enabling mechanisms to institutionalize equal opportunity for women. The researcher believed the significance of the study included giving younger female administrators hope for opportunities in higher education administration, based on the relatively positive perceptions from the respondents. This study also was significant in regards to the positive perceptions of female administrators in the state of Florida. Results from this study could also be used as a recruitment tool for potential faculty and administrators in Florida.

Research Questions

Six research questions were formulated to guide the study. Demographic data utilized in the research included gender, age, ethnicity, salary, administrative position, and type of institution in which the respondents were employed.

1. To what degree do women administrators report discrimination at Florida higher education institutions?
2. To what degree do women administrators report the importance of a mentor at Florida higher education institutions?
3. To what degree do women administrators report discrimination in promotion or tenure advancement at Florida higher education institutions?
4. To what degree do women administrators report cases of sexual harassment at Florida higher education institutions?
5. To what degree do women administrators report pay inequities for women at Florida higher education institutions?
6. To what degree do women administrators report discrimination in regard to professional development at Florida higher education institutions?

Population

The population for this study was comprised of 74 women administrators. All women administrators, whose membership in the American College Personnel Association or the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, could be verified using the listserv databases, received emailed survey instruments and were afforded the opportunity to participate in the study.

Instrumentation

The survey instrument that was used in this study was a modification of the 2000 University of Central Florida Faculty Experiences Survey. That survey had been designed by the University of Central Florida President's Commission on the Status of Women and was used initially to collect the data. The results of the survey were reported in the Women at UCF: Status 2000 Executive Summary Report. The survey used in conjunction with the Women at UCF Report for faculty members included 66 multiple choice items and five demographic items. UCF staff members were given a survey with 40 multiple choice questions and 10 demographic questions. All original questions were intended for UCF employees.

The final survey instrument included 15 multiple choice items, 2 free response items, and 5 demographic items. The researcher chose items from the survey given to faculty at UCF, in conjunction with the Women at UCF Report, that were directly related to the research questions in the study. Items 1, 6, 8, 11, 15, 27, 29, 32, 33, 38, 39, 43, 44, and 50 from the faculty survey provided the basis for items 1-14 in the current study (Appendix C). These items were slightly reworded to ensure that they were appropriate for respondents representing schools from across Florida. Item 15 was added by the researcher to ascertain the importance of mentoring. Item 16 was added to permit a free response to item #15. Item 17 provided a free response area for general suggestions. Participants were also given the opportunity to insert their email addresses and to have the survey results sent to them.

The demographic questions were also altered to more appropriately address the characteristics of interest of participants from the various Florida institutions represented. Demographic questions that were omitted from the Women at UCF study questionnaire included age, college at UCF, and years of employment at UCF. Gender and racial background items were used in both surveys. Salary range, professional rank and level of education were added to the revised survey. The instrument focused on topics including salary equity, research funds, tenure and promotion process, female representation, sexual harassment, supervisor support and mentorship.

Data Collection

The study was approved by the University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board in December, 2006 (Appendix A). The cover letter (Appendix B) and electronic survey instrument (Appendix C) were sent to the 74 women who subscribed to the American College Personnel Association or the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators listservs (Appendix D) in August, 2007. Potential respondents were assured that confidentiality of results would be maintained and that only group data would be reported. After one week elapsed, a follow-up cover letter (Appendix E) and survey instrument were sent to non-respondents.

The researcher attempted to survey the entire population who qualified for the survey. Of the 74 women in the participant database, 32 completed the questionnaire and 42 did not complete the questionnaire. After sending out the initial questionnaire to the population of 74 potential participants, it was revealed that 10 were invalid for 3 different

reasons. The various reasons for invalidity were that four emails were undeliverable; five potential participants were in different positions than the listservs stated; and one was male. Of the 64 women who were, therefore, potential participants from the original sample, 32 women completed the questionnaire; hence, the response rate was 50%.

All survey instruments were administered using www.surveymonkey.com during the months of August and September, 2007, and participants' responses were collected electronically. The data were transferred into Microsoft Excel and then entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, Graduate Pack 15.0 for Windows (SPSS) in order to perform statistical analyses of the data. Each survey item had a reported mean, standard deviation, standard error of the mean, margin of error and confidence intervals. The researcher studied comparable means test results for each independent variable group. Each of the six research questions were analyzed using data retrieved from survey responses.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variable in this study was the reported discrimination of respondents. The dependent variable was analyzed from 15 Likert-type scale items. Respondents were afforded the opportunity to expand on their responses with narrative statements.

Independent Variables

The independent variables used in this study were gender, ethnicity, administrative position, salary, level of education, and the type of Florida institution in which respondents were employed. Data for all independent variables were gathered from a series of items requesting demographic information in the final section of the electronic questionnaire and participant's school according to the listserv.

Data Analysis

A survey instrument was emailed to the identified administrators in order to collect information related to gender discrimination and demographic information via www.surveymonkey.com. Using a Likert-type scale of 1-5 rating, administrators ranked their reported perceptions in response to survey items. Data were collected electronically; individual responses were compiled, recorded, and then analyzed. Each survey item had a reported mean, standard deviation, standard error of the mean, margin of error and confidence intervals. The researcher studied comparable means test results for each independent variable group. Each of the six research questions was analyzed using data retrieved from survey responses.

For Research Question 1 as to the degree to which women administrators reported discrimination at Florida higher education institutions, survey items 5, 6, 9, 10, 11 and 12 were analyzed. Research Question 2, which inquired as to the reported importance of a mentor to women at Florida higher education institutions, was analyzed using data obtained in survey items 13, 14, and 15. In order to analyze data for Research Question 3

as to the degree to which women administrators reported discrimination in promotion or tenure advancement at Florida higher education institutions, responses to survey item 3 were considered. Responses to survey items 7 and 8 were analyzed in order to investigate Research Question 4 which was focused on the degree to which women administrators reported cases of sexual harassment at Florida higher education institutions. Research Question 5 was used to investigate pay inequities for women at Florida higher education institutions using the responses to survey items 1 and 2. Research Question 6 addressed the degree to which women administrators reported discrimination in regard to professional development at Florida higher education institutions and used the data from survey item 4 in the analysis.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter has been to provide detailed information related to the problem of the study, the research questions and the methodology used to investigate the problem. Information was also presented as to the instrumentation and data collection and analysis procedures. Chapter 4 will present the analysis of the data gathered using the described processes.

CHAPTER 4
ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to analyze the trends and perceptions of women administrators in the state of Florida. Six research questions were examined:

1. To what degree do women administrators report discrimination at Florida higher education institutions?
2. To what degree do women administrators report the importance of a mentor at Florida higher education institutions?
3. To what degree do women administrators report discrimination in promotion or tenure advancement at Florida higher education institutions?
4. To what degree do women administrators report cases of sexual harassment at Florida higher education institutions?
5. To what degree do women administrators report pay inequities for women at Florida higher education institutions?
6. To what degree do women administrators report discrimination in regard to professional development at Florida higher education institutions?

Data were measured by an online questionnaire, sent to female administrators in the state of Florida, gathered from NASPA and ACPA listservs. All women in the sample who were potential respondents were administrators at the assistant dean/vice president level or above. The data were transferred into Microsoft Excel and then entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Graduate Pack 15.0 for Windows (SPSS) in

order to perform statistical analyses of the data. Participants were asked to mark 1 for strongly disagree, 2 for disagree, 3 for neither agree nor disagree, 4 for agree and 5 for strongly agree for each of the 15 quantitative items on the questionnaire.

The researcher attempted to survey the entire population who qualified for the survey. Of the 74 women in the participant database, 32 completed the questionnaire and 42 did not complete the questionnaire. After sending out the initial questionnaire to the population of 74 potential participants, it was revealed that ten were invalid for three different reasons. The various reasons for invalidity were that four emails were undeliverable, five potential participants were in different positions than the listservs stated, and one was male. Of the 64 women who were still potential participants from the original sample, 32 completed the questionnaire; hence the response rate was 50%.

Research Question 1

To what degree do women administrators report discrimination at Florida higher education institutions?

This research question was studied by analyzing data from the following survey items: 5, 6, 9, 10, 11 and 12. Following is a presentation of the analysis for each survey item.

Survey Item 5: Males and female employees are expected to do the same amount of work in the area of service.

In order to measure the expected work in the area of service, female respondents were asked about their perceptions in regard to workload. Results from the analysis of

responses to survey item 5 are presented using tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 1; Table 2; Figure 1).

Table 1
Work in the Area of Service Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		3.13
Standard Error of Mean		.205
Standard Deviation		1.157

Table 2
Work in the Area of Service Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	6.3	6.3	6.3
	Disagree	9	28.1	28.1	34.4
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	8	25.0	25.0	59.4
	Agree	9	28.1	28.1	87.5
	Strongly Agree	4	12.5	12.5	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

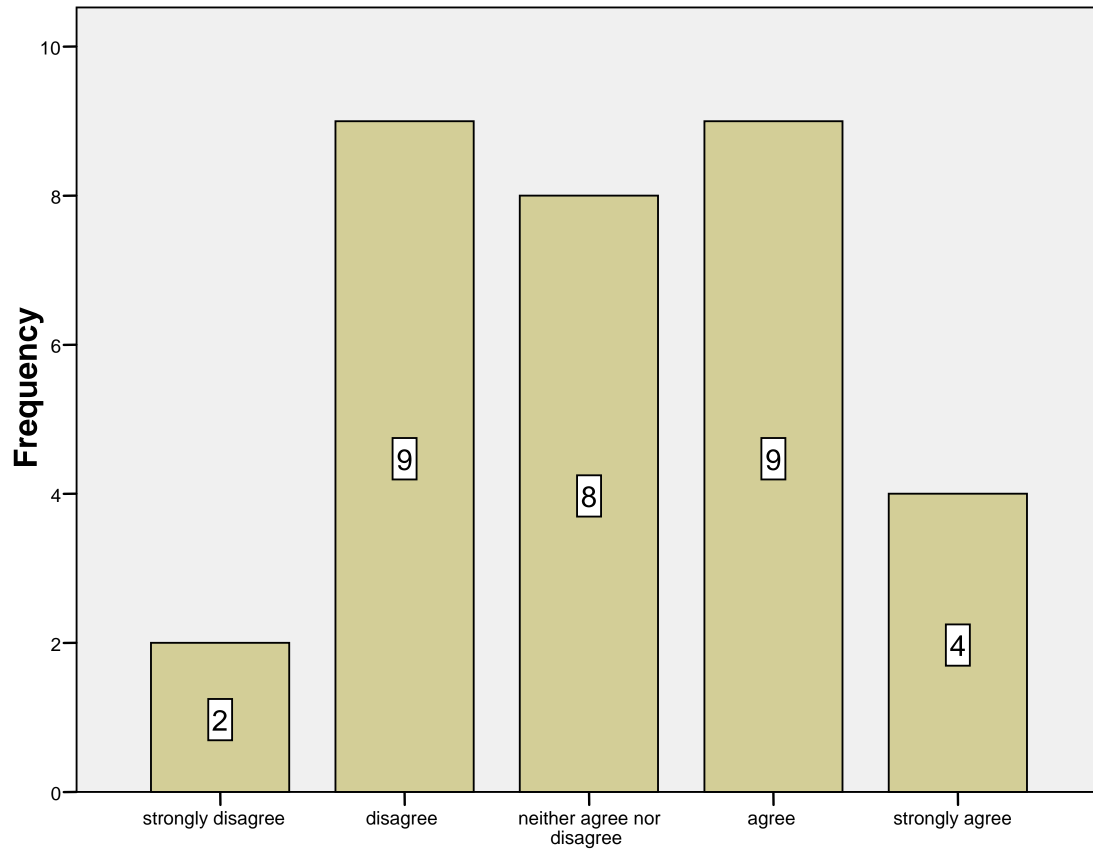


Figure 1: Work in the Area of Service

Data from survey item 5 showed all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .402. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response to the question relating to work in the area of service equality was between 2.728 and 3.532. Although the mean of the sample was more than 3, the confidence interval suggests that the possibility that there may be more people who disagree than agree with the question may not be overruled. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 3
Work in the Area of Service by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	2.00	2	.000
Hispanic	2.67	3	1.528
Caucasian	3.26	27	1.130
Total	3.13	32	1.157

Caucasian respondents were the only group to score above the mean of 3.13 with an average of 3.26. Both Hispanic and African American respondents scored below the mean in survey item 1 (see Table 3).

Table 4
Work in the Area of Service by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	2.00	2	1.414
$50,000-$69,999	3.71	7	.951
$70,000-$89,999	3.00	8	.926
>$90,000	3.14	14	1.292
Total	3.16	31	1.157

One respondent omitted this independent variable question. Of the 31 respondents, the mean was 3.16, in regard to work in the area of service. The only salary level group that scored above the mean was the group that earned $50,000-$69,999. All other salary level groups scored less than 3.16 (see Table 4).

Table 5
Work in the Area of Service by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	3.00	4	1.414
Associate Dean	3.57	7	.976
Dean	2.82	11	1.250
Assistant Vice President	2.67	3	1.155
Associate Vice President	2.67	3	.577
Vice President	3.67	3	1.155
Chief of Staff	5.00	1	.
Total	3.13	32	1.157

Associate deans, vice presidents and the chief of staff respondent averages were all above the mean of 3.13. All other groups averaged less than the mean for all groups (see Table 5).

Table 6
Work in the Area of Service by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	3.71	7	.951
Doctoral Candidate	2.80	5	1.304
Doctorate	3.11	18	1.183
Juris Doctorate	2.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	2.00	1	.
Total	3.13	32	1.157

All education levels averaged below the mean except for those respondents who reported their highest degree to be a master's degree. Average scores for groups ranged from 2.0 to 3.71 (see Table 6).

Table 7
Work in the Area of Service by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	2.67	18	.840
Private	3.71	14	1.267
Total	3.13	32	1.157

Public school respondents averaged below the mean with an average of 2.67. Private school employees' responses averaged above the 3.13 mean with a score of 3.71 (see Table 7).

Table 8
Work in the Area of Service by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2- year	2.00	5	.707
4-year	3.33	27	1.109
Total	3.13	32	1.157

Two-year school employees averaged well below the 3.13 mean at 2.0. On the other hand, four-year school respondents averaged .2 above the mean at 3.33 (see Table 8).

Survey Item 6: Male and female faculty are given the same teaching load.

To better determine the teaching load that faculty were given, female respondents were asked their perception of teaching load given to both genders. Results from the

analysis of responses to survey item 6 are presented using tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 9; Table 10; Figure 2).

Table 9
Teaching Load Equality Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		3.69
Standard Error of Mean		.145
Standard Deviation		.821

Table 10
Teaching Load Equality Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	1	3.1	3.1	3.1
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	14	43.8	43.8	46.9
	Agree	11	34.4	34.4	81.3
	Strongly Agree	6	18.8	18.8	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

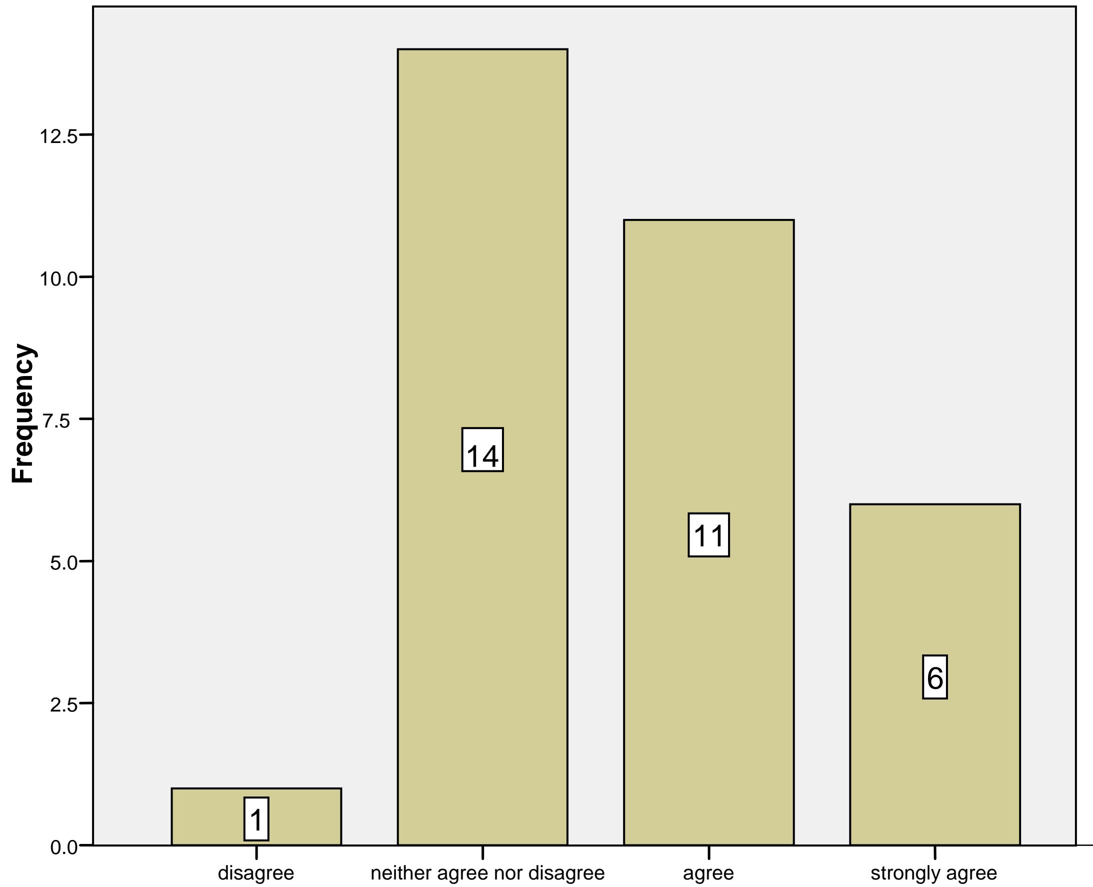


Figure 2: Teaching Load Equality

Data from survey item 6 showed all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .284. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response for the item regarding teaching load equality falls between 3.406 and 3.974, suggesting that in all likelihood respondents leaned towards agreement with this question. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 11
Teaching Load Equality by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	3.50	2	.707
Hispanic	4.00	3	1.000
Caucasian	3.67	27	.832
Total	3.69	32	.821

All respondents answered this independent variable question in regards to race. Hispanic respondents were the only group who averaged above the mean at 4.00, while both African American and Caucasian respondents averaged below 3.69 (see Table 11).

Table 12
Teaching Load Equality by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
\$30,001-\$49,999	3.00	2	.000
\$50,000-\$69,999	3.71	7	.756
\$70,000-\$89,999	3.50	8	.535
>\$90,000	4.00	14	.877
Total	3.74	31	.773

Thirty-one respondents answered this question in regards to income. Interestingly, the only group who averaged above the mean of 3.74 was the group who earned the highest wages, those earning over \$90,000 per year (see Table 12).

Table 13
Teaching Load Equality by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	3.25	4	.500
Associate Dean	3.57	7	.976
Dean	3.91	11	.831
Assistant Vice President	3.33	3	.577
Associate Vice President	3.33	3	.577
Vice President	4.00	3	1.000
Chief of Staff	5.00	1	.
Total	3.69	32	.821

The three groups who scored above the mean of 3.69 for this question included the chief of staff, vice presidents, and deans. All other respondents averaged below 3.69 (see Table 13).

Table 14
Teaching Load Equality by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	3.57	7	.787
Doctoral Candidate	3.80	5	.837
Doctorate	3.72	18	.895
Juris Doctorate	4.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	3.00	1	.
Total	3.69	32	.821

Interestingly, the groups who averaged below the mean for the question regarding teaching load equality were those with a master's or education specialist degree.

Respondents with earned doctorates, doctoral candidates, and the juris doctorate respondent all scored above the mean (see Table 14).

Table 15
Teaching Load Equality by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	3.39	18	.698
Private	4.07	14	.829
Total	3.69	32	.821

Public school respondents averaged .3 below the mean with an average of 3.39. Private school respondents responded on average above the mean of 3.69 (see Table 15).

Table 16
Teaching Load Equality by School Years

School Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	3.60	5	.894
4-year	3.70	27	.823
Total	3.69	32	.821

Respondents from four-year institutions averaged .01 points above the mean at 3.7, while two-year respondents averaged 3.6. Both groups leaned towards agree rather than disagree (see Table 16).

Survey Item 9: Women are treated as equals among their colleagues.

The respondents were surveyed to track their perceptions of gender equality at their institution among their co-workers. Results from the analysis of responses to survey item 9 are presented using tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 17; Table 18; Figure 3).

Table 17
Treated as Equals Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		3.19
Standard Error of Mean		.208
Standard Deviation		1.176

Table 18
Treated as Equals Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	6.3	6.3	6.3
	Disagree	10	31.3	31.3	37.5
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	3	9.4	9.4	46.9
	Agree	14	43.8	43.8	90.6
	Strongly Agree	3	9.4	9.4	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

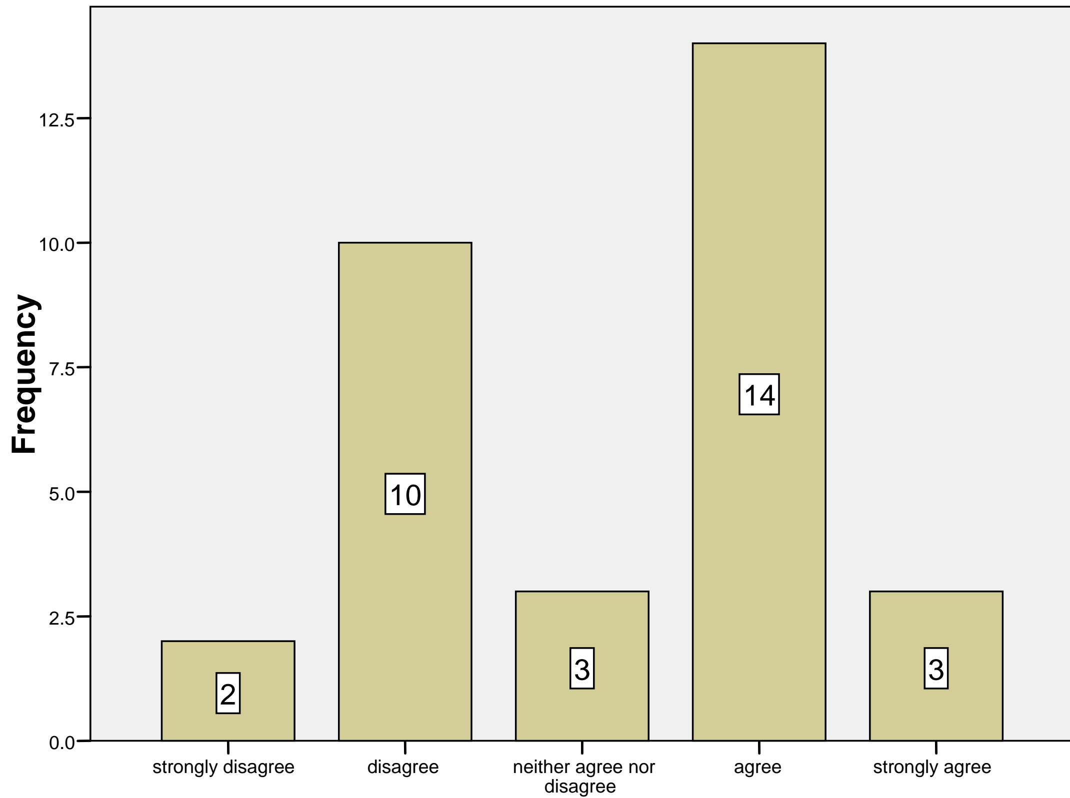


Figure 3: Women Treated as Equals

Data from survey item 9 showed all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .408. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response for the item regarding teaching load equality fell between 2.782 and 3.598. Although the mean of the sample was more than 3, the confidence interval suggested that the possibility that there may be more people who disagree than agree with the question cannot be excluded. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 19
Treated as Equals by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	2.00	2	.000
Hispanic	3.33	3	.577
Caucasian	3.26	27	1.228
Total	3.19	32	1.176

Respondents differed in relation to race on how colleagues treated women at their institution. African American respondents averaged well below the mean of 3.19 at 2.0, while Hispanic and Caucasian respondents both averaged above the mean (see Table 19).

Table 20
Treated as Equals by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	2.00	2	1.414
$50,000-$69,999	4.00	7	.000
$70,000-$89,999	2.63	8	.916
>$90,000	3.36	14	1.336
Total	3.23	31	1.175

Thirty-one respondents answered the question regarding income. The lowest group in regard to income also scored the lowest beneath the mean for this question with a score of 2.0. The two groups who answered with an average above the mean were those who earned between $50,000 and $69.999 and above $90,000 annually (see Table 20).

Table 21
Treated as Equals by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	3.00	4	1.414
Associate Dean	3.29	7	.951
Dean	3.09	11	1.136
Assistant Vice President	2.67	3	1.155
Associate Vice President	4.00	3	.000
Vice President	2.67	3	2.082
Chief of Staff	5.00	1	.
Total	3.19	32	1.176

The groups who responded most favorably in regard to women being treated as equals included the chief of staff, associate vice presidents and associate deans. The lowest averages for this question were reported by vice presidents and assistant vice presidents (see Table 21).

Table 22
Treated as Equals by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	3.00	7	1.000
Doctoral Candidate	3.00	5	1.414
Doctorate	3.22	18	1.263
Juris Doctorate	4.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	4.00	1	.
Total	3.19	32	1.176

The two groups who averaged below the mean were those holding master's degrees and doctoral candidates. All other degree earners averaged above 3.19 (see Table 22).

Table 23
Treated as Equals by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	2.72	18	1.018
Private	3.79	14	1.122
Total	3.19	32	1.176

Private school respondents scored .6 points above the mean at 3.79. Public school respondents leaned towards disagree with an average of 2.72 (see Table 23).

Table 24
Treated as Equals by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	2.40	5	1.140
4-year	3.33	27	1.144
Total	3.19	32	1.176

Two-year respondents averaged 2.4, less than the 3.19 mean average. Four-year respondents scored .14 points above the mean at 3.33 (see Table 24).

Survey Item 10: There is adequate day care for children of faculty and staff at my school.

This question relates to the sufficiency of day care proved at Florida institutions for the faculty and staff. Results from the analysis of survey item 10 are presented using

tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 25; Table 26; Figure 4).

Table 25
Adequacy of Day Care Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		2.16
Standard Error of Mean		.225
Standard Deviation		1.273

Table 26
Adequacy of Day Care Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	12	37.5	37.5	37.5
	Disagree	11	34.4	34.4	71.9
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	4	12.5	12.5	84.4
	Agree	2	6.3	6.3	90.6
	Strongly Agree	3	9.4	9.4	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

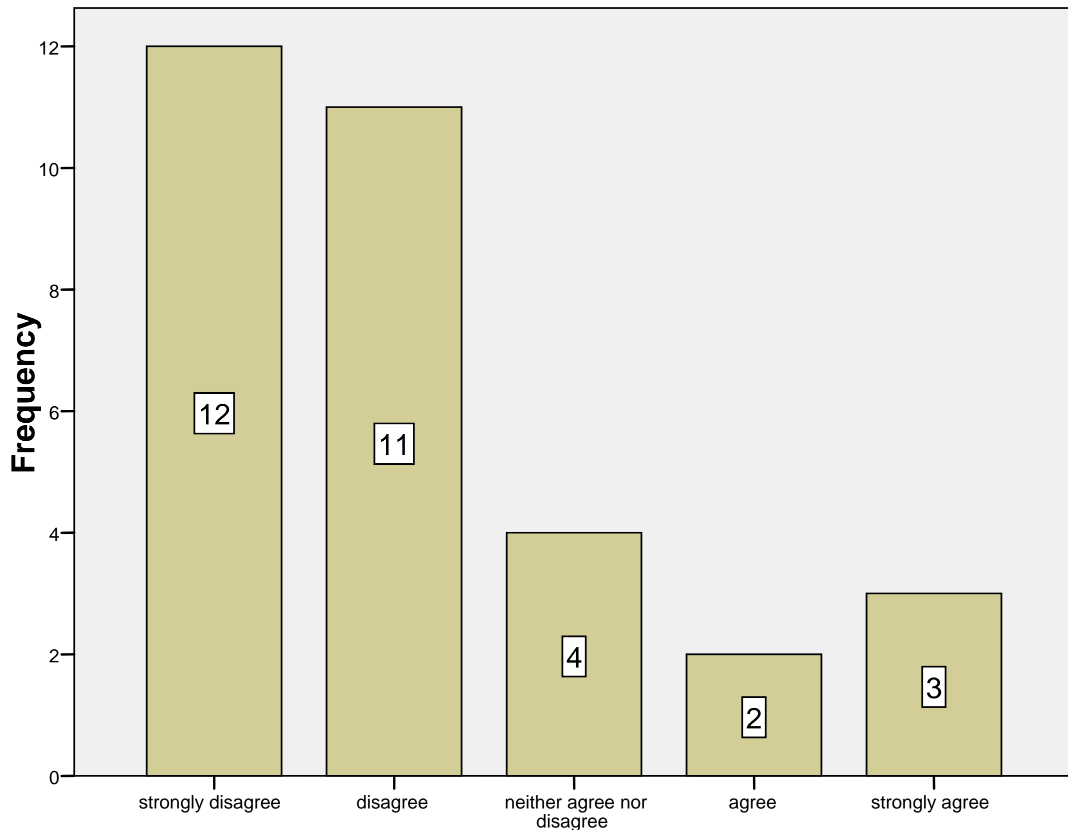


Figure 4: Adequacy of Day Care

This visual display overwhelmingly demonstrates that female respondents viewed the adequacy of day care on campuses to be minimal. Data from survey item 10 showed all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .441. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response to the item regarding adequacy of day care on campus fell between 1.719 and 2.601, suggesting that in all likelihood respondents leaned towards stating that day care was inadequate at their institutions. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 27
Adequacy of Day Care by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	2.50	2	.707
Hispanic	3.00	3	2.000
Caucasian	2.04	27	1.224
Total	2.16	32	1.273

Of the three race groups who were represented in this survey, only Caucasian respondents averaged below the mean. African American and Hispanic groups averaged 2.5 and 3.0 scores respectively (see Table 27).

Table 28
Adequacy of Day Care by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	2.00	2	1.414
$50,000-$69,999	2.00	7	1.000
$70,000-$89,999	1.50	8	.756
>$90,000	2.64	14	1.550
Total	2.16	31	1.293

Interestingly, the only income group that scored above the mean of 2.16 was the group reporting over $90,000 per year. All groups whose salary ranged from $30,001 to $89,999 reported an average mean of below 2.16 (see Table 28).

Table 29
Adequacy of Day Care by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	2.00	4	.816
Associate Dean	1.86	7	1.069
Dean	2.00	11	1.414
Assistant Vice President	2.33	3	.577
Associate Vice President	2.00	3	1.000
Vice President	2.67	3	2.082
Chief of Staff	5.00	1	.
Total	2.16	32	1.273

All positional groups except the chief of staff, assistant vice presidents, and vice presidents had an average that was less than the stated mean, 2.16. These groups averaged 5.0, 2.33, and 2.67 respectively (see Table 29).

Table 30
Adequacy of Day Care by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	1.86	7	.690
Doctoral Candidate	2.60	5	1.342
Doctorate	2.28	18	1.447
Juris Doctorate	1.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	1.00	1	.
Total	2.16	32	1.273

Respondents who had an earned doctorate or were doctoral candidates were the two groups that averaged above the mean. Those who had an earned masters, juris doctorate or educational specialist degree all averaged below 2.0 (see Table 30).

Table 31
Adequacy of Day Care by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	2.00	18	1.138
Private	2.36	14	1.447
Total	2.16	32	1.273

Respondents from public schools reported a lower average in regard to adequacy of day care than did the private school respondents. However, both averages leaned toward disagree, rather than agree (see Table 31).

Table 32
Adequacy of Day Care by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	2.20	5	1.789
4-year	2.15	27	1.199
Total	2.16	32	1.273

The four-year respondent group averaged below the mean of 2.16 with an average score of 2.15. Two-year respondents had an average of 2.20, just .05 points higher than the four-year group (see Table 32).

Survey Item 11: My supervisor supports me.

Item 11 related to the amount of support female respondents had from their supervisors. Results from analysis of responses to survey item 11 are presented using

tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 33; Table 34; Figure 5).

Table 33
Supervisor Support Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		4.28
Standard Error of Mean		.163
Standard Deviation		.924

Table 34
Supervisor Support Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	3.1	3.1	3.1
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	4	12.5	12.5	15.6
	Agree	11	34.4	34.4	50.0
	Strongly Agree	16	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

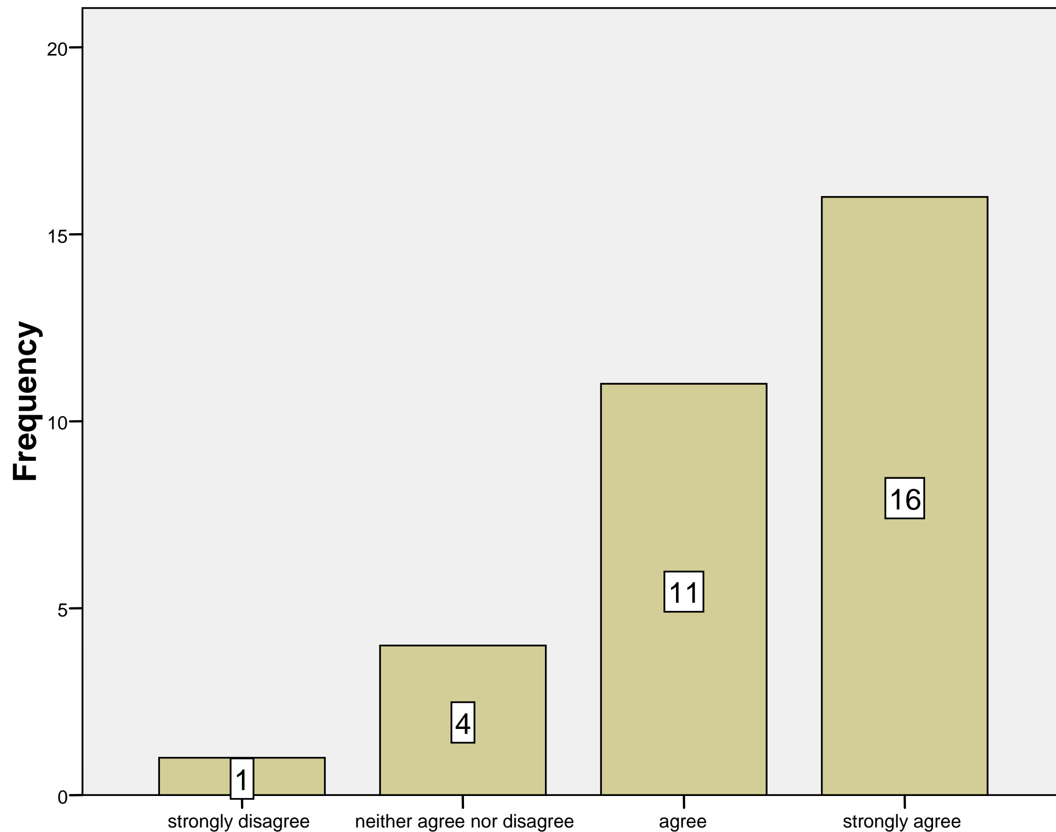


Figure 5: Supervisor Support

Data from survey item 11 showed all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .319. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response to the item regarding adequacy supervisor support fell between 3.961 and 4.599, suggesting that in all likelihood respondents leaned towards stating that they agreed that their individual supervisor at their institution was supportive. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 35
Supervisor Support by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	4.50	2	.707
Hispanic	3.33	3	.577
Caucasian	4.37	27	.926
Total	4.28	32	.924

The mean response for the perception of supervisor support was 4.28, with both African American and Caucasian groups averaging above the mean. Hispanic respondents averaged 3.33, close to 1 point below the mean (see Table 35).

Table 36
Supervisor Support by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	3.50	2	.707
$50,000-$69,999	4.86	7	.378
$70,000-$89,999	4.00	8	.756
>$90,000	4.36	14	1.082
Total	4.32	31	.909

Supervisor support had a mean of 4.32. The group with the smallest average in response to this statement was the group who earned the least amount annually, with an average of 3.5 (see Table 36).

Table 37
Supervisor Support by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	4.25	4	.957
Associate Dean	4.43	7	.787
Dean	4.27	11	.786
Assistant Vice President	4.33	3	.577
Associate Vice President	4.33	3	.577
Vice President	3.67	3	2.309
Chief of Staff	5.00	1	.
Total	4.28	32	.924

Vice president respondents averaged lower, an average of 3.67, than did all other groups in regard to supervisor support. Vice presidents, along with deans and assistant deans, were the only groups represented who averaged below the mean, although neither of the latter two groups averaged more than .03 points below the mean (see Table 37).

Table 38
Supervisor Support by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	4.14	7	.690
Doctoral Candidate	4.60	5	.548
Doctorate	4.17	18	1.098
Juris Doctorate	5.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	5.00	1	.
Total	4.28	32	.924

The respondent groups who averaged the lowest in their responses to this question were those with earned master's or doctoral degrees. Doctoral candidates and both juris

doctorate and educational specialist respondents averaged above the mean of 4.28 (see Table 38).

Table 39
Supervisor Support by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	4.17	18	1.043
Private	4.43	14	.756
Total	4.28	32	.924

The average mean for supervisor support by school type was 4.28. Public school respondents averaged 4.17, while private school respondents averaged 4.43 (see Table 39).

Table 40
Supervisor Support by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	3.40	5	1.517
4-year	4.44	27	.698
Total	4.28	32	.924

Interestingly, two-year respondents averaged over a point lower than did their four-year respondent counterparts. However, both averaged above the midpoint level of the Likert-type scale (see Table 40).

Survey Item 12: Female faculty are represented on all academic-related committees at my institution.

This question related to the prevalence of women in academic-related committees at Florida institutions. Results from the analysis of responses to survey item 12 are presented using tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 41; Table 42; Figure 6).

Table 41
Committee Representation Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		3.69
Standard Error of Mean		.158
Standard Deviation		.896

Table 42
Committee Representation Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	3	9.4	9.4	9.4
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	10	31.3	31.3	40.6
	Agree	13	40.6	40.6	81.3
	Strongly Agree	6	18.8	18.8	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

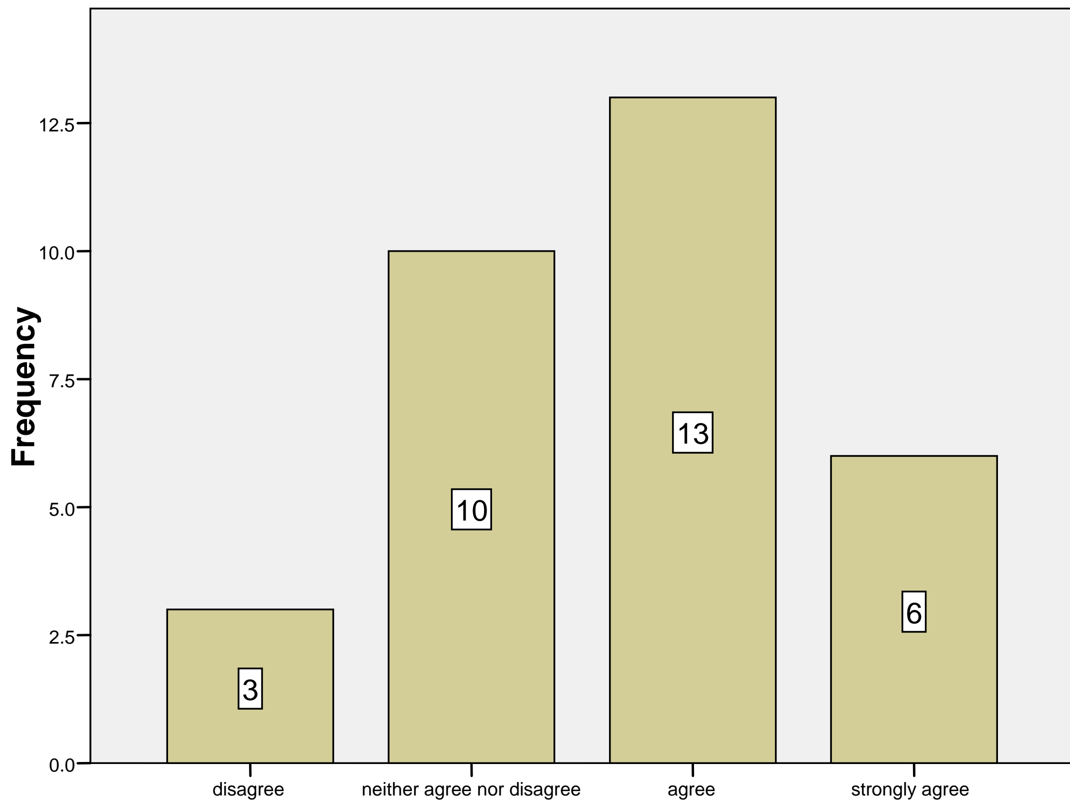


Figure 6: Committee Representation

Data from survey item 12 showed all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .310. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response for to the item regarding female representation on academic committees fell between 3.38 and 4.0 suggesting that in all likelihood respondents leaned towards stating that they agreed that their institution had female faculty representation on all academic-related committees. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 43
Committee Representation by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	2.50	2	.707
Hispanic	3.00	3	1.000
Caucasian	3.85	27	.818
Total	3.69	32	.896

African American and Hispanic respondents averaged below the mean of 3.69 with means of 2.5 and 3.0 respectively. Caucasian respondents averaged slightly above the mean at 3.85 (see Table 43).

Table 44
Committee Representation by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	2.50	2	.707
$50,000-$69,999	3.86	7	.690
$70,000-$89,999	3.50	8	.535
>$90,000	3.86	14	1.099
Total	3.68	31	.909

The lowest income group, $30,001-$49.999 had the lowest mean score of 2.50, well below the mean of 3.68. The highest income group, those earning over $90,000, and those who earned $50,000-$69,999 were the two groups that averaged above the mean (see Table 44).

Table 45
Committee Representation by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	3.00	4	.816
Associate Dean	3.86	7	.690
Dean	3.91	11	.944
Assistant Vice President	2.67	3	.577
Associate Vice President	3.33	3	.577
Vice President	4.33	3	.577
Chief of Staff	5.00	1	.
Total	3.69	32	.896

Assistant deans, assistant vice presidents, and associate vice presidents all averaged below the mean in this question. Assistant vice presidents averaged lowest with a mean score of 2.67 (see Table 45).

Table 46
Committee Representation by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	3.57	7	.787
Doctoral Candidate	3.80	5	1.095
Doctorate	3.61	18	.916
Juris Doctorate	5.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	4.00	1	.
Total	3.69	32	.896

Those respondents with master's and doctoral degrees averaged the lowest on this question with mean scores of 3.57 and 3.61 respectively. Only seven respondents represented in the other degree groups scored above the mean (see Table 46).

Table 47
Committee Representation by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	3.39	18	.698
Private	4.07	14	.997
Total	3.69	32	.896

Public school respondents scored on average below the 3.69 mean with an average of 3.39. Private school respondents averaged above the mean with a score of 4.07 (see Table 47).

Table 48
Committee Representation by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	3.40	5	.894
4-year	3.74	27	.903
Total	3.69	32	.896

Respondents from two-year schools averaged .29 points below the mean with an average of 3.40. Four-year school respondents averaged just .05 points above the mean with an average of 3.74 (see Table 48).

Research Question 1 asked, "To what degree do women administrators report discrimination at Florida higher education institutions?" Two survey item response means leaned considerably away from the midpoint. The question that queried the adequacy of day care at Florida institutions had an average of 2.16 among all respondents while the question regarding supervisor support had a high average of 4.28. Therefore, it can be concluded that women in this sample on average believed that they were supported by their superiors; however, they may support more adequate day care opportunities on campus. Nonetheless, on average, women respondents scored above the median position on a Likert-type scale in response to all queries except one in regards to Research Question 1. This suggested, in regard to the women in this sample, that there was not a large perception of discrimination.

Research Question 2

To what degree do women administrators report the importance of a mentor at Florida higher education institutions?

This research question was studied in the following survey items: 13, 14, and 15. Following is a presentation of the analysis for each survey item.

Survey Item 13: There are positive role models for female faculty and staff at my institution.

The perceived number of positive female role models available at Florida institutions was measured in this question. Results from the analysis of responses to

survey item 13 are presented using tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 49; Table 50; Figure 7).

Table 49
Role Model Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		4.03
Standard Error of Mean		.152
Standard Deviation		.861

Table 50
Role Model Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	2	6.3	6.3	6.3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	5	15.6	15.6	21.9
	Agree	15	46.9	46.9	68.8
	Strongly Agree	10	31.3	31.3	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

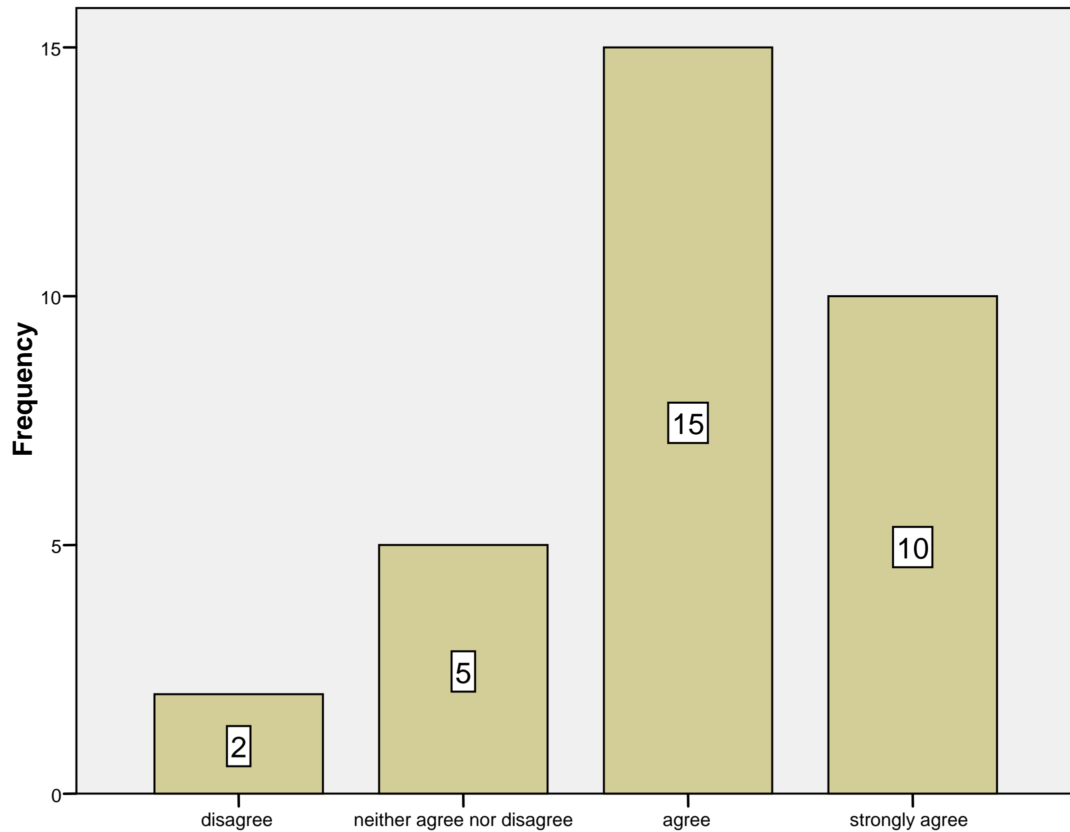


Figure 7: Presence of Positive Role Models at Home Institution

Data from survey item 13 showed all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .298. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response to the item regarding positive role models fell between 3.732 and 4.327, suggesting that in all likelihood respondents leaned towards stating that they agreed that their institution had positive role models for female faculty and staff. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 51
Role Model by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	4.00	2	.000
Hispanic	3.67	3	.577
Caucasian	4.07	27	.917
Total	4.03	32	.861

In regard to institutions having positive role models for female faculty and staff on campuses, only the Caucasian group scored above the mean. Both Hispanic and African American groups scored below the 4.03 mean (see Table 51).

Table 52
Role Model by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	3.00	2	1.414
$50,000-$69,999	4.00	7	1.155
$70,000-$89,999	4.00	8	.000
>$90,000	4.29	14	.825
Total	4.06	31	.854

Interestingly, as income increased among the respondents so did the average mean for each income group. However, only those who earned an excess of $90,000 scored above the mean (see Table 52).

Table 53
Role Model by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	3.25	4	1.500
Associate Dean	4.14	7	.690
Dean	4.00	11	.775
Assistant Vice President	4.33	3	.577
Associate Vice President	4.33	3	.577
Vice President	4.00	3	1.000
Chief of Staff	5.00	1	.
Total	4.03	32	.861

The mean for assistant deans was the lowest mean on this question with a score of 3.25. Other groups that scored below the mean included vice presidents and deans (see Table 53).

Table 54
Role Model by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	4.00	7	1.000
Doctoral Candidate	3.80	5	1.304
Doctorate	4.11	18	.676
Juris Doctorate	5.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	3.00	1	.
Total	4.03	32	.861

Those respondents who had earned a juris doctorate or doctoral degree scored above the mean of 4.03 in reporting their perceptions that there were positive role models at the institution for women. Those who were doctoral candidates or had earned master's and educational specialist degrees averaged below the mean (see Table 54).

Table 55
Role Model by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	3.83	18	.618
Private	4.29	14	1.069
Total	4.03	32	.861

Respondents from private schools scored above the mean for this question. Public school respondents scored .2 points below the mean, suggesting a lower perception of role models at public schools (see Table 55).

Table 56
Role Model by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	3.40	5	.548
4-year	4.15	27	.864
Total	4.03	32	.861

Two-year school respondents scored .63 points below the mean with an average of 3.4 for this question. Four-year school respondents scored 4.15, averaging .12 points above the mean (see Table 56).

Survey Item 14: A senior faculty or staff member serves/has served as a mentor for me:

This question referred to the prevalence of mentoring for female respondents with senior members of the institution. Results from the analysis of responses to survey item 14 are presented using tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 57; Table 58; Figure 8).

Table 57
Senior Mentor Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		3.72
Standard Error of Mean		.251
Standard Deviation		1.420

Table 58
Senior Mentor Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	12.5	12.5	12.5
	Disagree	4	12.5	12.5	25.0
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	1	3.1	3.1	28.1
	Agree	11	34.4	34.4	62.5
	Strongly Agree	12	37.5	37.5	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

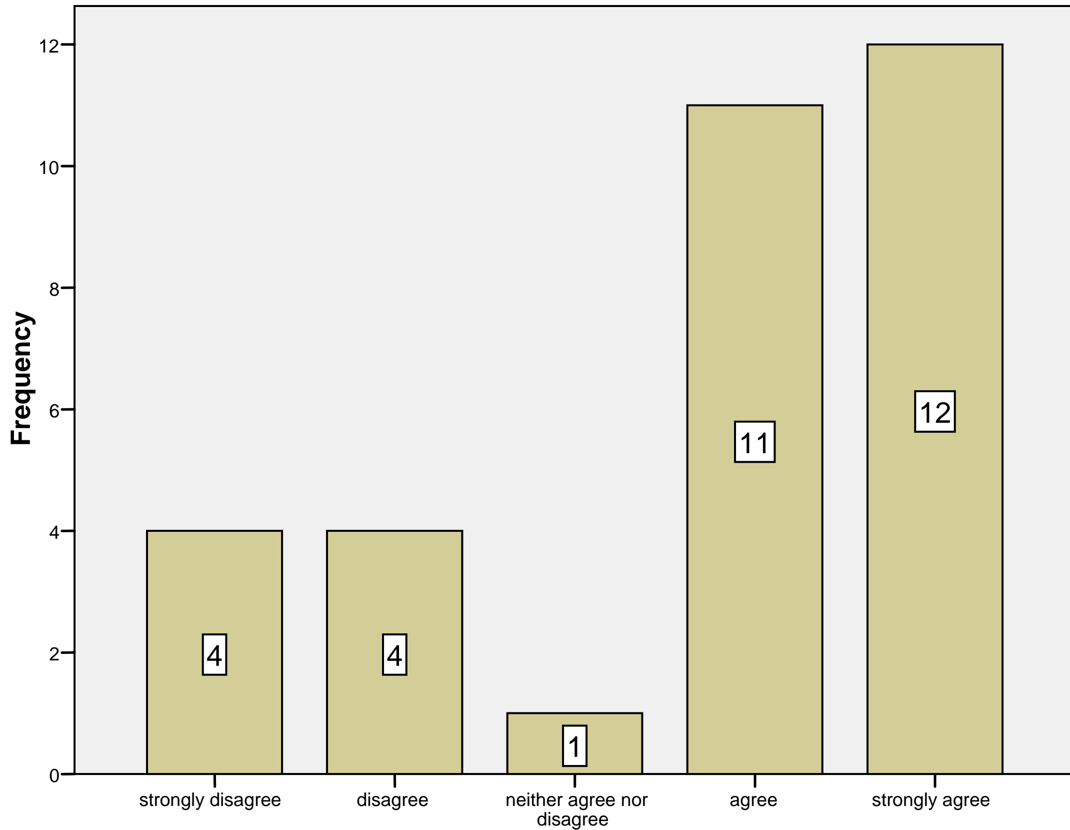


Figure 8: Women Served by Senior Faculty/Staff Mentors

Data from survey item 14 showed all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .492. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response to the item regarding senior faculty or staff members serving as mentors fell between 3.228 and 4.212, suggesting that in all likelihood respondents leaned towards stating that they agreed that a senior member in their institution served as a mentor for them. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 59
Senior Mentor by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	4.50	2	.707
Hispanic	3.00	3	1.732
Caucasian	3.74	27	1.430
Total	3.72	32	1.420

African American and Caucasian respondents averaged above the mean, indicating that they had a senior member serve as a mentor for them. Hispanic respondents scored .72 points below the mean of 3.72 (see Table 59).

Table 60
Senior Mentor by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	3.00	2	2.828
$50,000-$69,999	4.14	7	1.069
$70,000-$89,999	3.50	8	1.309
>$90,000	3.71	14	1.590
Total	3.71	31	1.442

The group who scored highest for this question was comprised of those earning from $50,000-$69,999 in income. Those respondents who earned the least amount also averaged lower than did all other income groups (see Table 60).

Table 61
Senior Mentor by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	3.00	4	1.826
Associate Dean	4.00	7	1.414
Dean	3.91	11	1.136
Assistant Vice President	4.67	3	.577
Associate Vice President	4.67	3	.577
Vice President	2.00	3	1.732
Chief of Staff	2.00	1	.
Total	3.72	32	1.420

Interestingly, vice presidents and the chief of staff in this sample averaged a score of 2.0 on this question, the lowest average in the population. Assistant and associate vice presidents scored highest on this question, both groups averaging a score 4.67 (see Table 61).

Table 62
Senior Mentor by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	3.57	7	1.512
Doctoral Candidate	3.80	5	1.643
Doctorate	3.67	18	1.455
Juris Doctorate	5.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	4.00	1	.
Total	3.72	32	1.420

Respondents with an earned doctorate or masters degree scored below the mean of 3.72, averaging 3.67 and 3.57 respectively. Doctoral candidates and the respondents

with a juris doctorate and educational specialist degree scored above the mean (see Table 62).

Table 63
Senior Mentor by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	3.89	18	1.323
Private	3.50	14	1.557
Total	3.72	32	1.420

According to this table, public school respondents had a higher perception of having a senior mentor at their institutions. Private school respondents averaged .22 below the mean (see Table 63).

Table 64
Senior Mentor by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	2.80	5	1.304
4-year	3.89	27	1.396
Total	3.72	32	1.420

There was a difference of over one point between the averages of two-year and four-year respondents. Two-year school respondents scored .92 below the mean while four-year school respondents scored .17 above the mean (see Table 64).

Survey Item 15: Female mentors are important for higher education professional women

Survey item 15 asked respondents to state their perception as to the importance of female mentors to higher education professional women. Results from the analysis of responses to survey item 15 are presented using tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 65; Table 66; Figure 9).

Table 65
Importance of Mentors Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		4.50
Standard Error of Mean		.174
Standard Deviation		.984

Table 66
Importance of Mentors Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	3.1	3.1	3.1
	Disagree	1	3.1	3.1	6.3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	2	6.3	6.3	12.5
	Agree	5	15.6	15.6	28.1
	Strongly Agree	23	71.9	71.9	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

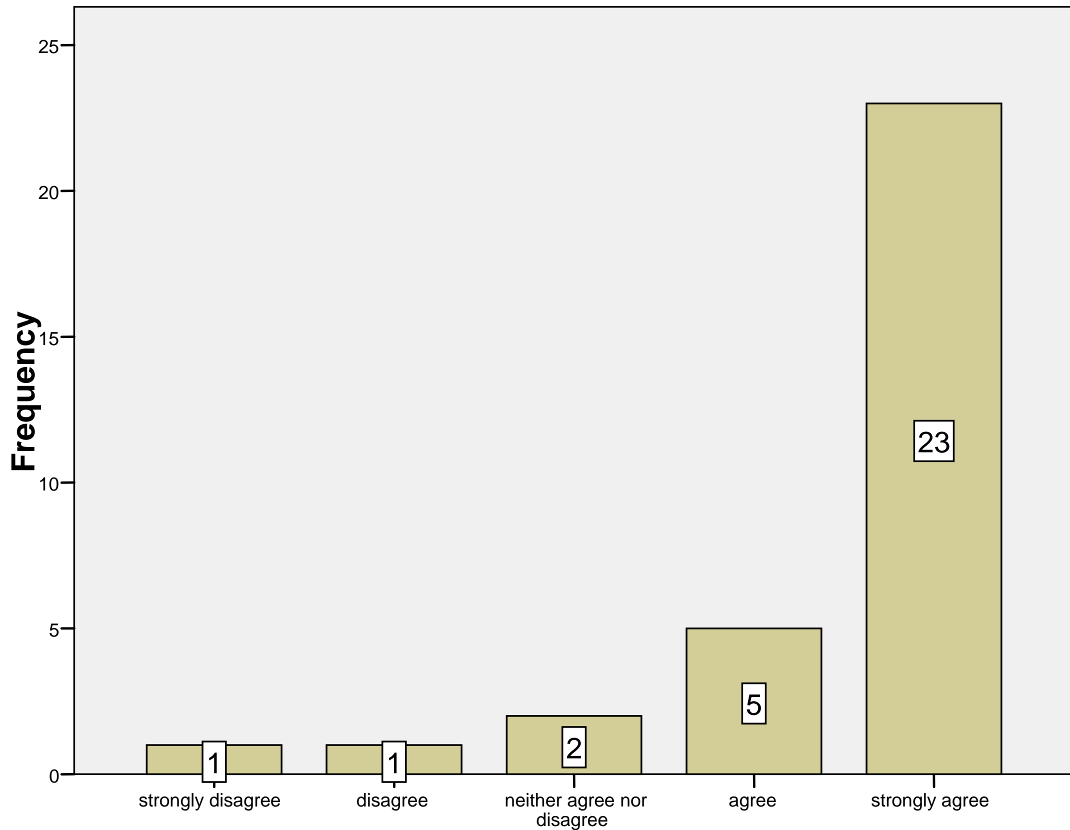


Figure 9: Importance of Female Mentors

Data from survey item 15 showed all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .341. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response to the item regarding the importance of female mentors fell between 4.159 and 4.841, suggesting that in all likelihood respondents leaned towards stating that they agreed that female mentors were important. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 67
Importance of Mentors by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	5.00	2	.000
Hispanic	4.33	3	1.155
Caucasian	4.48	27	1.014
Total	4.50	32	.984

African American respondents both had a score of five for this question and were the only group above the mean. Both Hispanic and Caucasian groups averaged below the mean with scores of 4.33 and 4.48 respectively (see Table 67).

Table 68
Importance of Mentors by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	5.00	2	.000
$50,000-$69,999	4.71	7	.488
$70,000-$89,999	4.38	8	1.061
>$90,000	4.36	14	1.216
Total	4.48	31	.996

Interestingly, the average perception of the importance of mentors lessened as the respondent salaries increased. Groups earning less than $70,000 per year scored above the mean of 4.48, while the groups who earned more than $70,000 per year scored below the mean (see Table 68).

Table 69
Importance of Mentors by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	5.00	4	.000
Associate Dean	4.43	7	1.134
Dean	4.45	11	.688
Assistant Vice President	5.00	3	.000
Associate Vice President	5.00	3	.000
Vice President	3.67	3	2.309
Chief of Staff	3.00	1	.
Total	4.50	32	.984

Vice presidents, associate deans, deans, and the chief of staff averaged below the 4.5 mean on this question. Groups where respondents indicated “strongly agree” to this question included assistant deans, assistant vice presidents, and associate vice presidents (see Table 69).

Table 70
Importance of Mentors by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	4.29	7	1.113
Doctoral Candidate	4.80	5	.447
Doctorate	4.50	18	1.098
Juris Doctorate	5.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	4.00	1	.
Total	4.50	32	.984

Doctoral candidates and the respondent with a juris doctorate scored above the mean of 4.5. Respondents with a doctoral degree scored at the overall mean level.

Respondents with either a master's or educational specialist degree scored below the mean (see Table 70).

Table 71
Importance of Mentors by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	4.61	18	.850
Private	4.36	14	1.151
Total	4.50	32	.984

Public school respondents averaged higher on this question than did their private school counterparts. Public school respondents averaged a 4.61 while private school respondents averaged .14 points below the mean at 4.36 (see Table 71).

Table 72
Importance of Mentors by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	4.20	5	.837
4-year	4.56	27	1.013
Total	4.50	32	.984

Four-year school respondents averaged just above the mean at 4.56. Two-year school respondents scored .3 below the mean at 4.2 (see Table 72).

Respondents overwhelmingly indicated the importance of female mentors with a mean of 4.5 and only nine respondents not stating “strongly agree." Also, 23 of 32 respondents answered “agree” or “strongly agree” that a senior faculty or staff member

had served as a role model for them. In addition, 25 of 32 respondents stated that they agreed or strongly agreed that there were positive role models for women at their institution.

A follow-up question to survey item 15 asked respondents to explain their response to “Female mentors are important for higher education professional women.” Twenty-nine women responded to this follow-up question. Twenty-six of the 29 respondents responded with comments that supported the value of female mentors in the higher education profession. Some themes that emerged from the responses included obstacles that women faced in the workplace, a lack of female role models differences between male and female mentors, importance of mentors for less experienced women in the field, politics, balance issues, and working in male-dominated fields.

Research Question 3

To what degree do women administrators report discrimination in promotion or tenure advancement at Florida higher education institutions?

This research question was studied by analyzing data from survey item 3. Following is a presentation of the analysis of data for this question.

Survey Item 3: Male and female faculty are treated equally in the tenure and promotion process

Question 3 related to the perceived advancement of male and female faculty members in regard to promotion at Florida institutions. Results from the analysis of

responses to survey item 3 are presented using tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 73; Table 74; Figure 10).

Table 73
Tenure and Promotion Equality Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		3.34
Standard Error of Mean		.183
Standard Deviation		1.035

Table 74
Tenure and Promotion Equality Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	3.1	3.1	3.1
	Disagree	4	12.5	12.5	15.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	16	50.0	50.0	65.6
	Agree	5	15.6	15.6	81.3
	Strongly Agree	6	18.8	18.8	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

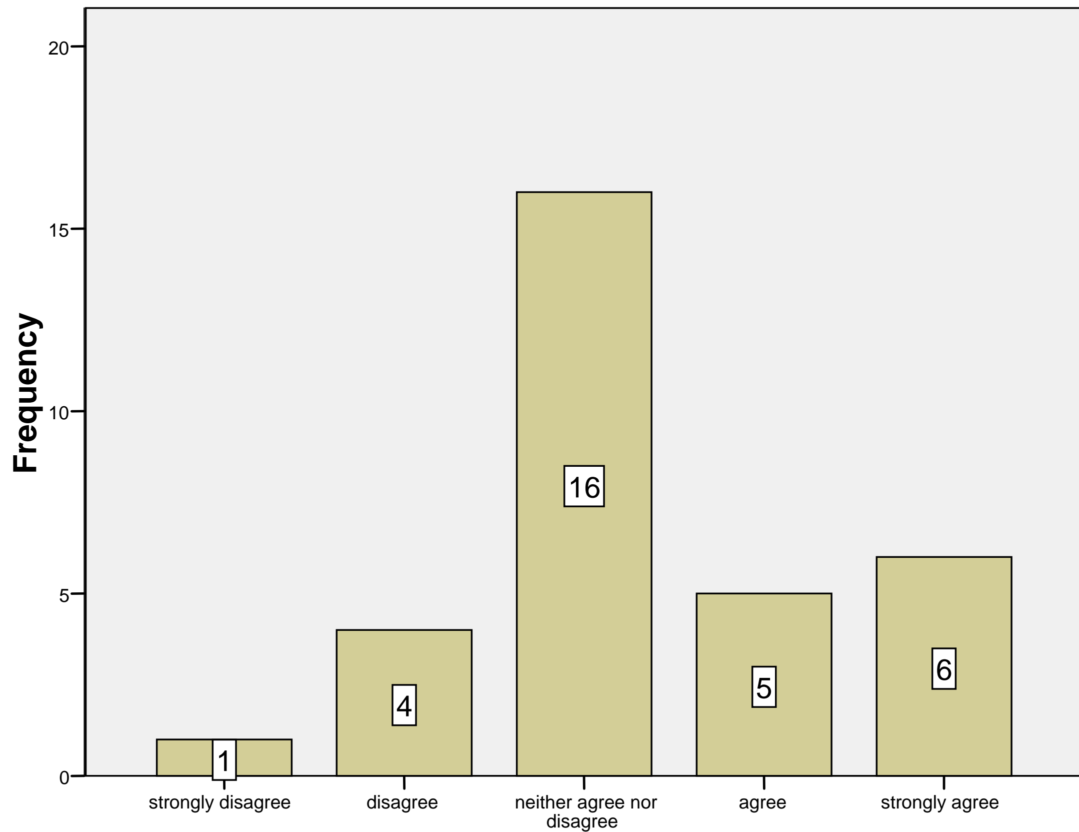


Figure 10: Tenure and Promotion Equality

Data from survey item 3 showed all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .359. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response to the item regarding senior tenure and promotion equality fell between 2.981 and 3.699. Although the mean of the sample was more than 3, the confidence interval suggested that the possibility that there may be more people who disagree than agree with the question cannot be eliminated. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 75
Tenure and Promotion Equality by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	2.50	2	.707
Hispanic	3.00	3	1.000
Caucasian	3.44	27	1.050
Total	3.34	32	1.035

The mean for this question was 3.34. African American and Hispanic respondents averaged beneath the mean with averages of 2.5 and 3.0 respectively. Caucasian respondents scored above the mean with an average of 3.44 (see Table 75).

Table 76
Tenure and Promotion Equality by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	2.00	2	1.414
$50,000-$69,999	3.29	7	.951
$70,000-$89,999	3.00	8	.756
>$90,000	3.79	14	1.051
Total	3.35	31	1.050

Interestingly, the group who scored lowest on this question was also the group that earned the least. Of all groups, the group that scored the highest for this question also earned the highest wages (see Table 76).

Table 77
Tenure and Promotion Equality by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	2.50	4	1.000
Associate Dean	3.57	7	.787
Dean	3.55	11	1.128
Assistant Vice President	2.67	3	.577
Associate Vice President	2.67	3	.577
Vice President	4.00	3	1.000
Chief of Staff	5.00	1	.
Total	3.34	32	1.035

The groups who scored beneath the 3.34 mean included assistant deans, assistant vice presidents and associate vice presidents. Vice presidents, the chief of staff, associate deans and deans all averaged above the mean (see Table 77).

Table 78
Tenure and Promotion Equality by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	3.29	7	.951
Doctoral Candidate	3.00	5	1.414
Doctorate	3.44	18	.922
Juris Doctorate	5.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	2.00	1	.
Total	3.34	32	1.035

Only the juris doctorate degree earner and those with doctorates scored above the mean on this question. Those respondents with arguably lower ranking degrees (masters, doctoral candidate, and educational specialist respondents) all averaged below the mean (see Table 78).

Table 79
Tenure and Promotion Equality by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	3.06	18	.639
Private	3.71	14	1.326
Total	3.34	32	1.035

Public school respondents averaged below the mean with a score of 3.06. Private school respondents scored .37 points above the mean with an average of 3.71 (see Table 79).

Table 80
Tenure and Promotion Equality by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	3.00	5	1.000
4-year	3.41	27	1.047
Total	3.34	32	1.035

Respondents from four-year institutions averaged just .07 above the mean. Two-year school respondents averaged .34 below the mean with an average of 3.0 (see Table 80).

Research Question 4

To what degree do women administrators report cases of sexual harassment at Florida higher education institutions?

This research question was studied in the survey items 7 and 8. Following is a presentation of the analysis for each survey item.

Survey Item 7: I feel that I have been sexually harassed

This question was asked in order to document the number of respondents who had been sexually harassed. Results from the analysis of responses to survey item 7 are presented using tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 81; Table 82; Figure 11).

Table 81
Sexual Harassment Experience Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		2.06
Standard Error of Mean		.168
Standard Deviation		.948

Table 82
Sexual Harassment Experience Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	25.0	25.0	25.0
	Disagree	18	56.3	56.3	81.3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	3	9.4	9.4	90.6
	Agree	2	6.3	6.3	96.9
	Strongly Agree	1	3.1	3.1	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

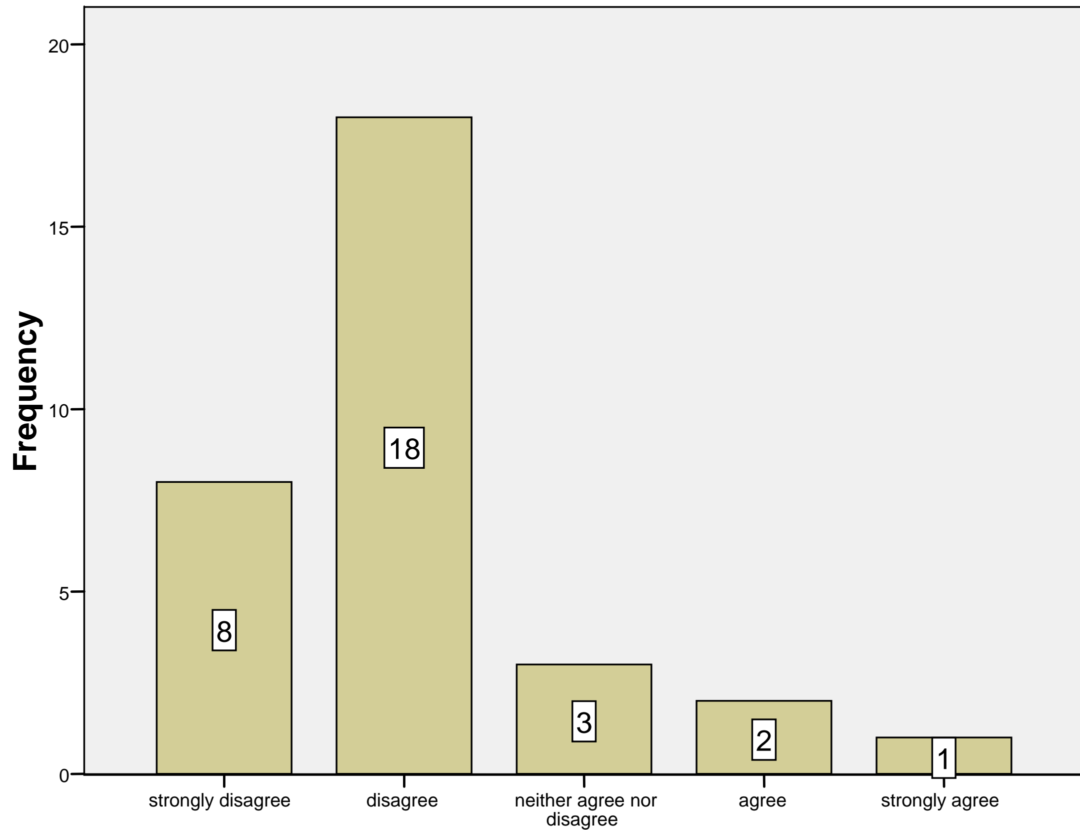


Figure 11: Sexual Harassment Experience

Data from survey item 7 showed all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .329. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response to the item regarding personal experiences of sexual harassment fell between 1.731 and 2.389, suggesting that in all likelihood respondents leaned towards stating that they disagreed that they had been sexually harassed. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 83
Sexual Harassment Experience by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	2.00	2	.000
Hispanic	2.33	3	1.155
Caucasian	2.04	27	.980
Total	2.06	32	.948

Hispanic respondents were the only group that indicated a higher mean (2.33) than the overall mean (2.06). Both Caucasian and African American respondents scored just below the mean with scores of 2.04 and 2.0 respectively (see Table 83).

Table 84
Sexual Harassment Experience by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	4.00	2	1.414
$50,000-$69,999	2.14	7	.378
$70,000-$89,999	1.88	8	.991
>$90,000	1.86	14	.864
Total	2.06	31	.964

Interestingly, as income increased among the groups, the perceived rate of sexual harassment lessened. Those who earned less than $50,000 averaged a score of 4.0 while those who earned more than $90,000 had an average score of 1.86 on this question (see Table 84).

Table 85
Sexual Harassment Experience by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	3.00	4	1.414
Associate Dean	2.14	7	.900
Dean	2.00	11	1.000
Assistant Vice President	2.00	3	.000
Associate Vice President	1.67	3	.577
Vice President	1.67	3	.577
Chief of Staff	1.00	1	.
Total	2.06	32	.948

The only two groups that scored above the 2.06 mean were the assistant dean and associate dean respondents. The lowest scoring groups included associate vice presidents, vice presidents and the chief of staff respondents (see Table 85).

Table 86
Sexual Harassment Experience by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	2.43	7	.787
Doctoral Candidate	2.80	5	1.643
Doctorate	1.72	18	.575
Juris Doctorate	1.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	3.00	1	.
Total	2.06	32	.948

The respondents with arguably lower ranking degrees, including masters, doctoral candidate and educational specialist degrees, averaged above the mean on this question. The groups who averaged below the mean include juris doctorate and doctorate degree earners (see Table 86).

Table 87
Sexual Harassment Experience by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	2.11	18	.900
Private	2.00	14	1.038
Total	2.06	32	.948

Public school respondents averaged higher on this question than private school respondents. However, the difference between the two groups was only .11 (see Table 87).

Table 88
Sexual Harassment Experience by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	2.20	5	.837
4-year	2.04	27	.980
Total	2.06	32	.948

Four-year school respondents scored just below the 2.06 mean with an average of 2.04. Two-year respondents scored .16 higher on average than their four-year school counterparts (see Table 88).

Survey Item 8: There is very little (if any) sexual harassment on this campus

This question was intended to generate data on perceived sexual harassment at Florida institutions. Results from survey item 8 and frequency distributions will be

presented first and findings for the question will then be summarized (see Table 89; Table 90; Figure 12).

Table 89
Sexual Harassment on Campus Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		3.06
Standard Error of Mean		.195
Standard Deviation		1.105

Table 90
Sexual Harassment on Campus Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	9.4	9.4	9.4
	Disagree	8	25.0	25.0	34.4
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	6	18.8	18.8	53.1
	Agree	14	43.8	43.8	96.9
	Strongly Agree	1	3.1	3.1	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

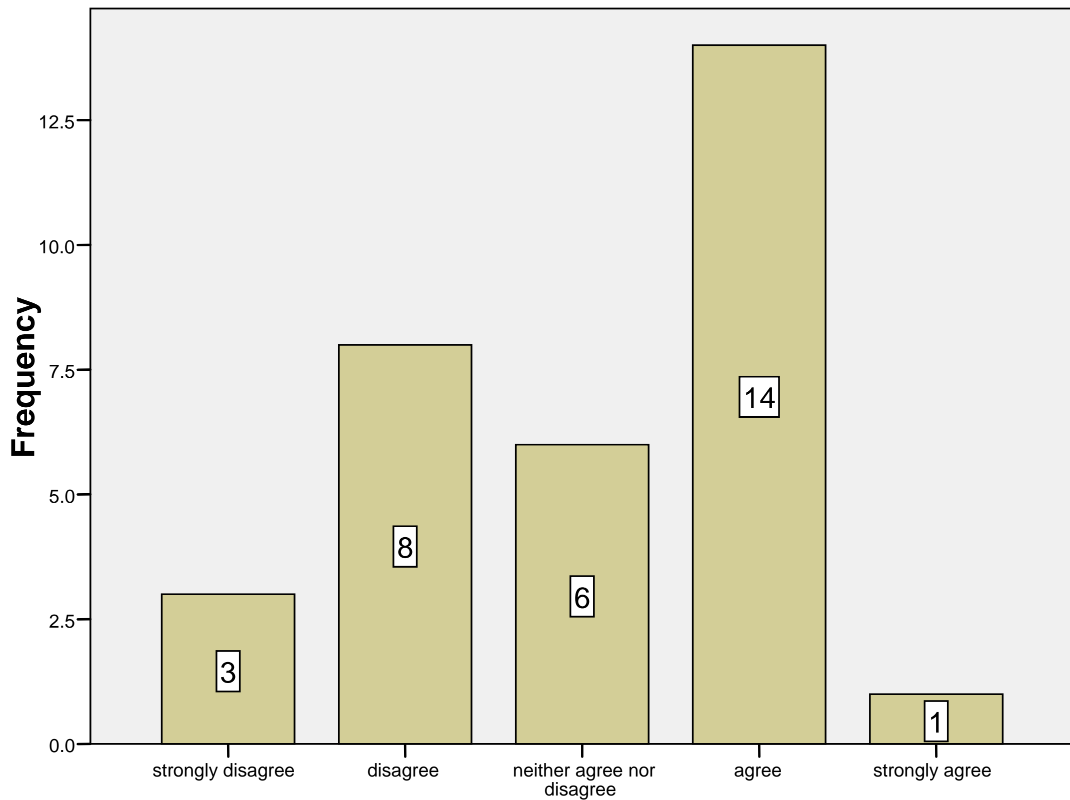


Figure 12: Sexual Harassment on Campus

Data from survey item 8 showed all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .382. The researcher is 95% confident that the true mean response for to the item regarding sexual harassment on campus falls between 2.678 and 3.442. Although the mean of the sample is more than 3, the confidence interval suggests that we cannot rule out the possibility that there may be more people who disagree than agree with the question. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 91
Sexual Harassment on Campus by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	2.00	2	1.414
Hispanic	3.00	3	1.000
Caucasian	3.15	27	1.099
Total	3.06	32	1.105

African American and Hispanic respondents leaned towards disagreeing that there was little sexual harassment on campus. Caucasian respondents were the only group that scored above the mean (see Table 91).

Table 92
Sexual Harassment on Campus by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	2.00	2	1.414
$50,000-$69,999	3.29	7	.951
$70,000-$89,999	2.75	8	1.165
>$90,000	3.36	14	1.082
Total	3.10	31	1.106

The group who reported the highest income in the population also reported a lower perception of sexual harassment on campus. The lowest income group scored 2.0, suggesting that they disagreed that there is little sexual harassment on campus (see Table 92).

Table 93
Sexual Harassment on Campus by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	2.50	4	1.291
Associate Dean	2.86	7	1.215
Dean	3.18	11	.982
Assistant Vice President	2.00	3	1.000
Associate Vice President	4.00	3	.000
Vice President	3.33	3	.577
Chief of Staff	5.00	1	.
Total	3.06	32	1.105

Assistant vice presidents, assistant deans, and associate deans all scored below the mean, suggesting a higher perception of sexual harassment on campus. All other groups scored above the 3.06 mean (see Table 93).

Table 94
Sexual Harassment on Campus by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	3.29	7	1.113
Doctoral Candidate	2.20	5	.837
Doctorate	3.11	18	1.132
Juris Doctorate	4.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	4.00	1	.
Total	3.06	32	1.105

The only group that scored below the mean of 3.06 was doctoral candidates with an average of 2.20. This indicated that on average respondents disagreed that there was little sexual harassment on campus (see Table 94).

Table 95
Sexual Harassment on Campus by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	2.78	18	1.060
Private	3.43	14	1.089
Total	3.06	32	1.105

The above table indicated that there was a higher perception of public school sexual harassment than at private schools. Private school respondents scored 3.43, .37 above the mean (see Table 95).

Table 96
Sexual Harassment on Campus by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	3.40	5	.894
4-year	3.00	27	1.144
Total	3.06	32	1.105

Two-year institution respondents scored .34 above the mean, indicating that the group perceived a lack of sexual harassment on campus. Four-year school respondents scored just .06 below the mean for an average of 3.0 (see Table 96).

Question 8 asked respondents if there was little or no sexual harassment on campus. Eleven respondents answered “disagree” or “strongly disagree” to this question suggesting that there was sexual harassment on campus. However, the number of women who reported “agree” or “strongly agree” to being sexually harassed was only three.

Research Question 5

To what degree do women administrators report pay inequities for women at Florida higher education institutions?

This research question was studied by analyzing data obtained from survey items 1 and 2. Following is a presentation of the analysis for each survey item.

Survey Item 1: Female and male faculty members who are equal in degree and experience earn comparable salaries

This question was intended to generate data on perceived salary equity among males and females at Florida institutions. Results from the analysis of responses to survey item 1 are presented using tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 97; Table 98; Figure 13).

Table 97
Comparable Salary Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		2.81
Standard Error of Mean		.193
Standard Deviation		1.091

Table 98
Comparable Salary Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	6.3	6.3	6.3
	Disagree	14	43.8	43.8	50.0
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	6	18.8	18.8	68.8
	Agree	8	25.0	25.0	93.8
	Strongly Agree	2	6.3	6.3	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

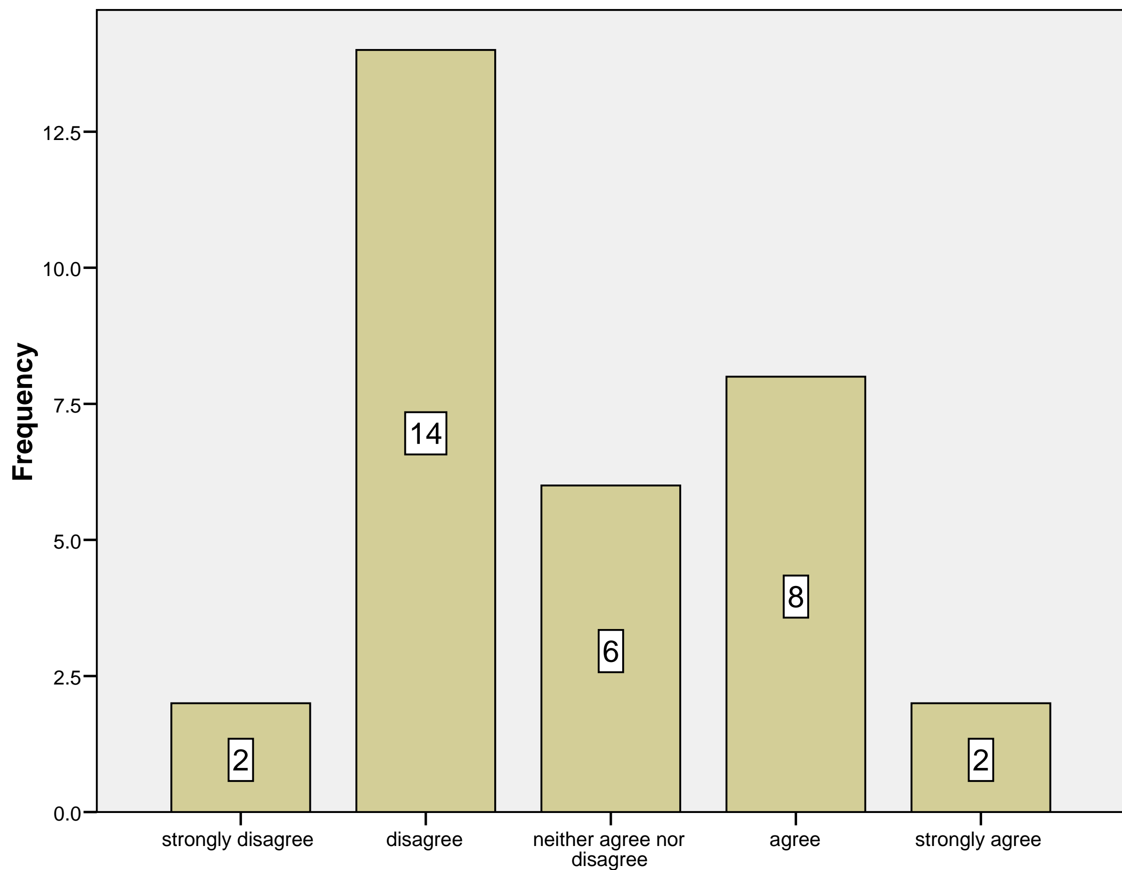


Figure 13: Comparable Salaries for Female and Male Faculty Members

Data from survey item 1 illustrated that all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .378. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response for all respondents was between 2.432 and 3.188. Although the mean of the sample was less than 3, the confidence interval suggested that there may be more people who agreed than disagreed that female and male faculty members who were equal in degree and experience earned comparable salaries. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 99
Comparable Salary by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	2.00	2	.000
Hispanic	1.67	3	.577
Caucasian	3.00	27	1.074
Total	2.81	32	1.091

When evaluating race, the mean of all respondents was 2.81 with African American and Hispanic groups both averaging below the mean. Caucasian respondents averaged above the mean in regards to question 1 (see Table 99).

Table 100
Comparable Salary by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	2.00	2	.000
$50,000-$69,999	3.43	7	.976
$70,000-$89,999	2.38	8	.744
>$90,000	2.93	14	1.269
Total	2.84	31	1.098

One respondent omitted this question. The mean of all respondents was 2.84 in regards to respondents' income level. The lowest mean in regards to this question was from the $30,001-$49,999 income level group. The highest means in regards to this question came from the group that earned $50,000-$69,999 per year and over $90,000 per year (see Table 100).

Table 101
Comparable Salary by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	2.25	4	.500
Associate Dean	3.43	7	1.134
Dean	2.82	11	1.079
Assistant Vice President	2.33	3	.577
Associate Vice President	2.33	3	.577
Vice President	2.33	3	1.528
Chief of Staff	5.00	1	.
Total	2.81	32	1.091

Associate deans, deans, and the chief of staff respondent both averaged above the mean of 2.81 for this question. All other respondents from other positions surveyed in this sample scored below the mean (see Table 101).

Table 102
Comparable Salary by Degree

Education Level	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	2.57	7	1.134
Doctoral Candidate	3.00	5	1.000
Doctorate	2.78	18	1.166
Juris Doctorate	4.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	3.00	1	.
Total	2.81	32	1.091

The educational specialist respondent, doctoral candidates, and the respondent with a juris doctorate all scored above the mean of 2.81. Respondents who had earned a master's degree or doctorate degree scored below the mean (see Table 102).

Table 103
Comparable Salary by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	2.56	18	.984
Private	3.14	14	1.167
Total	2.81	32	1.091

Respondents from private schools averaged above the mean from the sample. Public school respondents averaged below the mean for this question (see Table 103).

Table 104
Comparable Salary by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	2.40	5	1.342
4-year	2.89	27	1.050
Total	2.81	32	1.091

Respondents from two-year institutions averaged 2.40, below the mean of 2.81. Four-year school employee respondents averaged just above the mean at 2.89 (see Table 104).

Survey Item 2: Travel and research funds at my institution are distributed equitably among each gender

This question was asked in order to document the perceived equity in distribution of travel and research funds. Results from the analysis of responses to survey item 2 are presented using tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 105; Table 106; Figure 14).

Table 105
Travel and Research Funds Equity Summary

N	Valid	32
	Missing	0
Mean		3.63
Standard Error of Mean		.178
Standard Deviation		1.008

Table 106
Travel and Research Funds Equity Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	5	15.6	15.6	15.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	9	28.1	28.1	43.8
	Agree	11	34.4	34.4	78.1
	Strongly Agree	7	21.9	21.9	100.0
	Total	32	100.0	100.0	

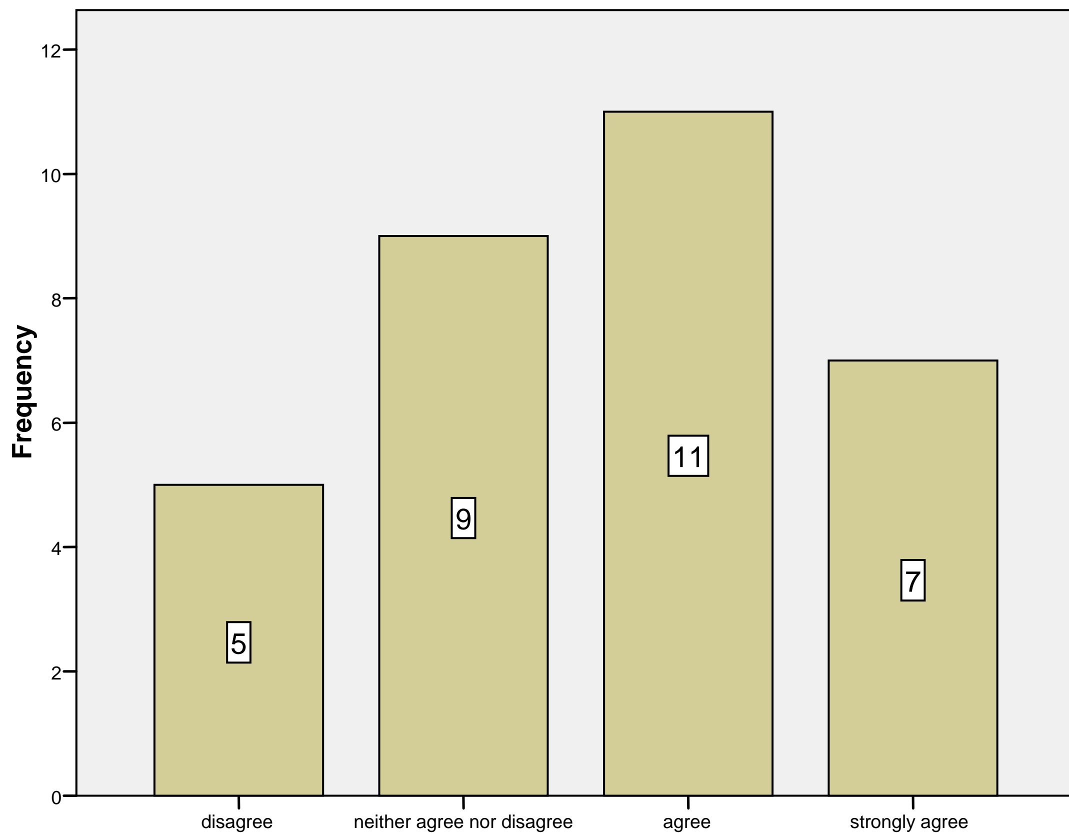


Figure 14: Travel and Research Funds Equity

Data from question 2 showed all respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .349. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response for all

respondents was between 3.281 and 3.979, suggesting that in all likelihood respondents leaned towards stating that they agreed that travel and research funds were distributed equitably among males and females. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 107
Travel and Research Funds Equity by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	2.50	2	.707
Hispanic	3.00	3	.000
Caucasian	3.78	27	1.013
Total	3.63	32	1.008

African American and Hispanic respondents scored below the mean of 3.63. Caucasian respondents averaged 3.78, .15 above the mean (see Table 107).

Table 108
Travel and Research Funds Equity by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	3.00	2	.000
$50,000-$69,999	3.71	7	.951
$70,000-$89,999	3.25	8	.886
>$90,000	4.00	14	1.038
Total	3.68	31	.979

The highest average group, suggesting that travel and research funds were distributed equally among males and females, was also the group that earned the highest salaries in the population. Those respondents who earned less than $50,000 per year averaged 3.0, the lowest average among the groups (see Table 108).

Table 109
Travel and Research Funds Equity by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	3.50	4	.577
Associate Dean	3.71	7	.951
Dean	3.64	11	1.120
Assistant Vice President	3.33	3	1.528
Associate Vice President	3.33	3	.577
Vice President	3.67	3	1.528
Chief of Staff	5.00	1	.
Total	3.63	32	1.008

The groups who averaged above the mean included the chief of staff, vice presidents, deans, and associate deans. The lowest average among the groups was reported by assistant and associate vice presidents (see Table 109).

Table 110
Travel and Research Funds Equity by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	3.29	7	1.113
Doctoral Candidate	3.80	5	.837
Doctorate	3.72	18	.958
Juris Doctorate	5.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	2.00	1	.
Total	3.63	32	1.008

Masters degree and educational specialist degree earners averaged below the mean in regards to this question. All other groups averaged above the 3.63 mean (see Table 110).

Table 111
Travel and Research Funds Equity by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	3.39	18	.916
Private	3.93	14	1.072
Total	3.63	32	1.008

In regard to the question regarding equitable distribution of travel and research funds, public school respondents' mean scores were lower than were those of the private school respondent population. This suggested that public school respondents perceived there to be less equity among travel and research funds than did private school respondents (see Table 111).

Table 112
Travel and Research Funds Equity by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	3.00	5	1.000
4-year	3.74	27	.984
Total	3.63	32	1.008

Two-year institution respondents averaged .63 below the mean while four-year school respondents averaged .11 above the mean. This suggested that two-year institution respondents perceived less equity in travel and research fund distribution than did four-year school respondents (see Table 112).

The mean for survey item 1 regarding comparable salaries among male and female faculty members with equal degrees and experiences was below 3.0. However, survey item 2 had a mean above 3.0, leaning towards a perception that travel and research funds were distributed equally among males and females.

Research Question 6

To what degree do women administrators report discrimination in regard to professional development at Florida higher education institutions?

This research question was studied by analyzing data from survey item 4. Following is a presentation of the analysis for this item.

Survey Item 4: Male and female faculty are granted sabbaticals equally

Survey item 4 related to the perceptions regarding the granting of sabbaticals to male and female faculty members. Results from the analysis of responses to survey item

4 are presented using tables, graphs, and supportive narrative statements summarizing the findings (see Table 113; Table 114; Figure 15).

Table 113
Sabbatical Equality Summary

N	Valid	31
	Missing	1
Mean		3.52
Standard Error of Mean		.130
Standard Deviation		.724

Table 114
Sabbatical Equality Frequency

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Neither Agree nor Disagree	19	59.4	61.3	61.3
	Agree	8	25.0	25.8	87.1
	Strongly Agree	4	12.5	12.9	100.0
	Total	31	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	1	3.1		
Total		32	100.0		

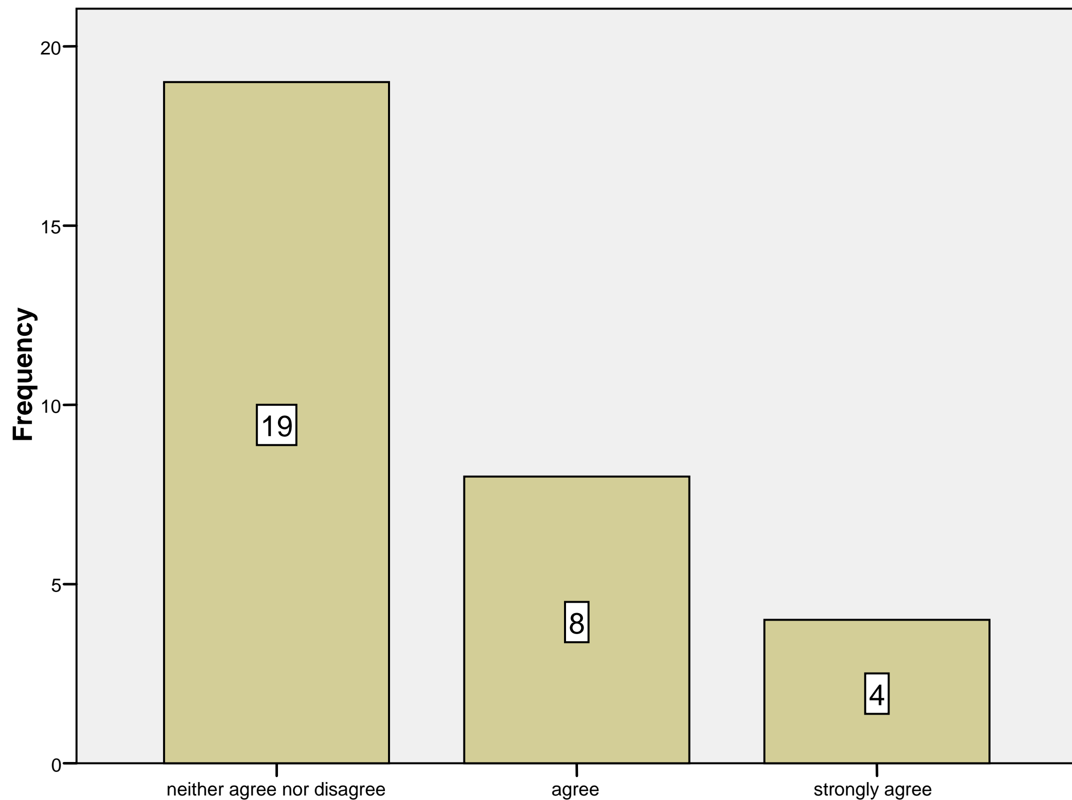


Figure 15: Sabbatical Equality

Data from survey item 4 showed that 31 of 32 respondents answered this question. The margin of error was .255. The researcher was 95% confident that the true mean response for all respondents was between 3.265 and 3.775, suggesting that in all likelihood respondents leaned towards agreement sabbaticals were distributed equitably among males and females. Independent variable results are shown in the following tables.

Table 115
Sabbatical Equality by Race

Race	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
African American	3.50	2	.707
Hispanic	3.33	3	.577
Caucasian	3.54	26	.761
Total	3.52	31	.724

Both African American and Hispanic respondents scored below the mean of 3.52 while Caucasian respondents scored just above the mean with an average of 3.54. All three groups averaged above the midpoint in the Likert-type scale (see Table 115).

Table 116
Sabbatical Equality by Income

Income	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
$30,001-$49,999	3.50	2	.707
$50,000-$69,999	3.33	6	.816
$70,000-$89,999	3.50	8	.535
>$90,000	3.57	14	.852
Total	3.50	30	.731

The range in averages among the income groups was small with only .24 separating the highest and lowest averages. The only group to score below the mean among all groups was the income group who earned $50,000-$69,999 (see Table 116).

Table 117
Sabbatical Equality by Rank

Rank	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Assistant Dean	3.25	4	.500
Associate Dean	3.67	6	.816
Dean	3.55	11	.820
Assistant Vice President	3.33	3	.577
Associate Vice President	3.67	3	.577
Vice President	3.67	3	1.155
Chief of Staff	3.00	1	.
Total	3.52	31	.724

The mean for this question was 3.52. Associate deans, deans, associate vice presidents and vice presidents all scored above the mean (see Table 117).

Table 118
Sabbatical Equality by Degree

Degree	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Masters	3.57	7	.787
Doctoral Candidate	3.25	4	.500
Doctorate	3.50	18	.707
Juris Doctorate	5.00	1	.
Educational Specialist	3.00	1	.
Total	3.52	31	.724

With an overall mean of 3.52 for this question, the groups who averaged below the mean were those with an educational specialist degree, doctorate or who were doctoral candidates. The master's degree respondents and juris doctorate respondent were the only groups that averaged above the mean (see Table 118).

Table 119
Sabbatical Equality by School Type

School Type	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Public	3.29	17	.470
Private	3.79	14	.893
Total	3.52	31	.724

Sabbaticals were perceived to be granted more equally from the private school respondents than the public school respondents. There was a .5 difference among the two groups (see Table 119).

Table 120
Sabbatical Equality by School Years

Years	Mean	N	Standard Deviation
2-year	3.20	5	.447
4-year	3.58	26	.758
Total	3.52	31	.724

Four-year institution respondents scored .38 higher than did the two-year school respondents on this question. This suggested that the perception of sabbatical equality was greater for the four-year than it was for the two year institution respondents (see Table 120).

In reviewing all survey items, there were some notable differences between two-year and four-year respondents and also public and private schools. On average, private school respondents responded more favorably in regard to being treated equally by colleagues. Perceived supervisor support was more frequently observed by four-year

respondents. Four-year respondents were also more likely to state that they had a mentoring relationship with a senior member of the institution. Public school and two-year school respondents perceived work in the area of service to be less equitable. Though there were differences, most data from the survey items showed no significant difference among the groups.

Chapter 5 presents further discussion and conclusions of the study. Suggestions and recommendations for further study are also discussed.

CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter provides a review of the research methodology used in conducting the study and a summary of findings based on the analyses of the data. The chapter has been organized to present the statement of the problem, sample and data collection, instrumentation, summary of the findings for each of the six research questions, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for practice, and recommendations for further research.

Statement of the Problem

There are several problems that women have faced in higher education administration. First, women in the higher education profession have historically faced difficulty in achieving full-time, tenured faculty positions. According to Wenninger & Conroy (2001), in 1998 men held 74% of all tenured positions in institutions of higher education. Second, men have also held a high majority of all upper level administrative positions. Though women, at the time of the present study, comprised more than 50% of the college student population, they were not equally represented in senior level higher education administration positions. As one example, only an estimated one-third of university department chairs were women. Third, the lack of women in upper level administrative positions has resulted in a lack of women mentors for women aspiring to achieve these higher administrative positions. The present research study was intended to

add to prior research and provide information on current trends regarding women in higher education administration in the state of Florida.

Sample and Data Collection

The population for this study was comprised of 74 women administrators in Florida at two-year and four-year public and private colleges and universities who held the titles of assistant dean, associate dean, dean, assistant vice president, associate vice president, vice president, assistant provost, provost, and president. All women administrators, whose membership in the American College Personnel Association or the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators could be verified using the listserv databases, received emailed survey instruments and were afforded the opportunity to participate in the study.

The study was approved by the University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board in December 2006 (Appendix A). The cover letter (Appendix B) and electronic survey instrument (Appendix C) were sent to the 74 women, who subscribed to the American College Personnel Association or the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators listservs (Appendix D) in August, 2007. Potential respondents were assured that confidentiality of results would be maintained and that only group data would be reported. After one week elapsed, a follow-up cover letter (Appendix E) and survey instrument were sent to non-respondents. Of the 74 women in the participant database, 32 completed the questionnaire and 42 did not complete the questionnaire. After sending out the questionnaire, it was revealed that 10 potential respondents were

invalid. Invalidity reasons were that four emails were undeliverable, five potential participants were in different positions than the listservs stated, and one was male. Of the 64 women who remained as potential participants, the useable response rate was 50%.

All survey instruments were administered using www.surveymonkey.com during the months of August and September, 2007, and participants' responses were collected electronically. The data were transferred into Microsoft Excel and then entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Graduate Pack 15.0 for Windows (SPSS) in order to perform statistical analyses of the data.

Instrumentation

The survey instrument that was used in this study was modified based on a 2000 University of Central Florida Faculty Experiences Survey. The survey was originally constructed by the University of Central Florida President's Commission on the Status of Women and was used to collect the data. The results of the survey were reported in the Women at UCF: Status 2000 Executive Summary Report.

Summary and Discussion of the Findings

All data used in the analyses were obtained using participant responses to the online questionnaire. The summary and discussion of findings have been organized to respond to each of the six research questions.

Research Question 1

To what degree do women administrators report discrimination at Florida higher education institutions?

This research question was studied in the following survey items: 5, 6, 9, 10, 11 and 12. Survey item 5 asked respondents to rank their perception of the following statement: “Males and female employees are expected to do the same amount of work in the area of service.” Responses varied greatly on this question; however just over 40% answered “agree” or “strongly agree” to this question. Conversely, over 34% of respondents also answered “disagree” or “strongly disagree.” These findings indicated that there was considerable variance in the perceptions by female respondents of the expectations of work in the area of service for men and women.

Survey item 6 stated: “Male and female faculty are given the same teaching load.” Only one respondent disagreed with this statement, while all others indicated “neither agree nor disagree,” “agree,” or “strongly agree.” Hence, this sample of women overwhelmingly did not perceive an inequity in teaching load assignments among men and women.

Item 9 asked respondents’ perceptions about equal treatment in the statement, “Women are treated as equals among their colleagues.” This item also provided variable results, with responses ranging from both extremes on the Likert-type scale. Almost 40% of women responded “disagree” or “strongly disagree” that women were treated as equals among their colleagues. However, the majority of respondents (56.3%) responded affirmatively to this statement. This dataset result conflicted somewhat with some of the research findings reported in the review of the literature. Still, it was encouraging for

women in the state of Florida that a majority of women in this study believed they were treated as equals among their colleagues.

Perhaps one of the most one-sided results from the questionnaire was reported from item 10 where respondents were asked to share their agreement or disagreement that "There is adequate day care for children of faculty and staff at my school." Almost 72% of respondents responded negatively to this statement.

As noted in the review of the literature, numerous authors and researchers commented on the challenges women faced related to child care. Funk (1995) noted that a major obstacle for women in leadership roles was the fact that they experienced guilt over the time that they spent away from their families. Women also were expected to play the "superwoman" role in their lives. An academic scientist with a family and children said that her research suffered in comparison to those without family obligations. (Martin, 2000).

Interestingly, women without children were found to be less productive at work than were those who had children. This finding was based on a multivariate Norwegian analysis of more than 1500 tenured faculty members (199 female and 1370 male respondents). In this study, Kyvik (1990) found that married women were viewed as more productive than single women.

Single mothers especially have had a difficult time in higher education, for the high cost of child care was a cost that was often not considered in salary negotiations (Bengiveno, 1995). This research supported the data from the present study. Women who

have the ability to work at the same location where their children stay during the day may have more time with their families as a result.

Survey item 11 stated, “My supervisor supports me.” A total of 85% of respondents responded affirmatively to this question. Supervisor support was perceived as extremely important for women in administration.

When women first began joining the workforce, they were almost totally dependent on their male supervisors for job security (Schur, 1983). Catalyst (1998) noted that universities and colleges, knowingly and unknowingly, created environments that disadvantaged women employees.

Catalyst (1998) identified several powerful barriers to women striving to advance in their careers. These included managers failing to be held accountable for advancing women, reluctance to give women revenue-generating experience, exclusion from informal career networks, appraisal systems that are not equal among the genders, and limited support for work-family initiatives.

In their study of 2,000 human resource managers, Nelson & Burke (2000) indicated that women experienced considerably more anxiety from organizational politics than did men. This anxiety was attributed to the possibilities that women may have been deprived of access to informal networking situations, may have had difficulty in gaining essential information for their position, and may have lacked power in their departments. Supportive supervisors may be able to assist women in combating these barriers.

Item 12 required respondents to share their perceptions as to whether “Female faculty are represented on all academic-related committees at my institution.” Only a

small number, approximately 9%, disagreed with this statement. This suggested that there was not a perception of committee representation inequity by the respondents.

In summary of the findings related to Research Question 1, discrimination was not reported frequently by the sample. Support was very widespread from supervisors as was equality in teaching load. Lack of adequate day care was the most common source of perceived discrimination reported.

Research Question 2

To what degree do women administrators report the importance of a mentor at Florida higher education institutions?

This research question was studied in survey items 13, 14, and 15. Survey item 13 asked respondents about their perceptions as to “There are positive role models for female faculty and staff at my institution.” Almost 80% of respondents stated that there were positive female role models at their school, and almost 88% responded affirmatively to survey item 15 asking about their agreement that “Female mentors are important for higher education professional women.”

Item 14 asked respondents their perception as to, “A senior faculty or staff member serves/has served as a mentor for me.” Almost 72% respondents reported “agree” or “strongly agree” that they had a mentor.

Mentors have had the ability to provide better feedback, introduce protégés to key people and provide insight into beneficial associations. They can also provide advice in terms of future career directions or information on key issues in education. Mentoring, however, by older and more professional women, could assist in correcting the imbalance

of gender leadership and allow women to become more successful. (Gruber, 2002). Mentor programs have proven useful in a number of institutions, benefiting both individuals and the organization. Benefits have included better communications, more competent employees, and a diverse leadership group (Shillingsburg, 1993). This research supported the finding regarding the perceived importance of mentoring.

Research Question 3

To what degree do women administrators report discrimination in promotion or tenure advancement at Florida higher education institutions?

This research question was studied using the responses to survey item 3 in which respondents were asked to rank their perceptions as to "Male and female faculty are treated equally in the tenure and promotion process." Fifty-percent of the respondents reported "neither agree nor disagree" and 34.4% answered affirmatively to the item. This reported perception differed from findings reported in the review of the literature. In a foreword written for Martin (2000), Gloria Steinham stated that the number of male tenured faculty was increasing 30% faster than the number of tenured women at the turn of the 21st century.

As of 2000, Wenninger & Conroy (2001) stated that, in institutions of higher education throughout the United States, 24% of full-time faculty were women, yet the road to tenure has been slower. Only 45% of women faculty members were on a tenure track. Of the faculty pool, 72% of male faculty members and 48% of female faculty members were tenured. The increase of females who have gained tenure between 1980

and 2000 has risen only 1.5% while the increase of males who have earned tenure rose 8%.

About 16% of respondents indicated they disagreed or strongly disagreed that women had been treated equally in regard to tenure and promotion; however the vast majority neither agreed nor disagreed or agreed that men and women were both treated equally in the tenure and promotion process. This suggests to the researcher that the perception of equality may be changing for the betterment of women in higher education.

Research Question 4

To what degree do women administrators report cases of sexual harassment at Florida higher education institutions?

This research question was studied using data obtained from responses to survey items 7 and 8. Survey item 7 asked respondents to state their perceptions to the following statement: "I feel that I have been sexually harassed." Less than 10% (9.4%) of the respondents responded affirmatively to this statement, suggesting that the majority of the sample did not experience personal sexual harassment.

Survey item 8 stated, "There is very little (if any) sexual harassment on this campus." Just fewer than 47% of the respondents responded "agree" or "strongly agree" to this statement. However, 25% responded "disagree" and 9.4% responded "strongly disagree" to this statement. Although less than 10% stated that they were personally sexually harassed, the perception of sexual harassment on the respective college campus for the respondents was reported at 34.4%. This suggests that although only a small percentage of women in the sample reported they had personally experienced sexual

harassment, the perception of the prevalence of sexual harassment at the schools was higher.

These findings seem to be in agreement with national trends. In two national surveys in the 1980s regarding sexual harassment, approximately 42% of all females surveyed reported that they had experienced sexual harassment in the workplace (Riger, 1991). This percentage continued to decline over the years. Dey, Korn & Sax (1996) studied data collected in 1992-1993 from approximately 30,000 full-time faculty members, representing 289 schools, in partnership with the UCLA Higher Education Research Institute. They reported that 15.1% of female faculty survey admitted to being harassed. In a 1995-96 update, this number dropped to 12%.

In a later study (DeSouza & Fansler, 2003), over half of the 209 surveyed faculty members at a large Midwestern university indicated having experienced sexual harassment by students at least one time in the prior two years. Results showed that younger female faculty members were at the greatest risk of harassment and the most vulnerable. Female educators were more bothered than men by harassment overall and gender harassment, and their anxiety and depression score ratings were also higher than males who had experienced sexual harassment. The psychological consequences of the harassment were more serious for women than men. There was a continued decline of reported sexual harassment from research in the 1980s to the 1990s. Although DeSouza and Fansler (2003) found percentages of sexual harassment experiences to be higher (over 50%), this study also included sexual harassment of faculty members by students.

Research Question 5

To what degree do women administrators report pay inequities for women at Florida higher education institutions?

This research question was studied in survey items 1 and 2. Survey item 1 asked respondents to state their perceptions to the following statement: “Female and male faculty members who are equal in degree and experience earn comparable salaries.” Over half of the respondents stated that they perceived women and men did not earn comparable salaries when experience and degrees were equal among both genders.

The review of literature revealed that when all higher education faculty members were considered, salaries were higher for men than for women. According to the American Association of University Women, women professors have earned 77% of what male professors have earned. One reason may have been that women have historically been concentrated in the social sciences and have been paid less than women in the hard sciences, such as math, computer science, and engineering (Wenninger & Conroy, 2001).

Swiss (1996) surveyed 325 executive women and found that 68% of these women reported that they had limited opportunity for equal pay. Of those surveyed, 40% did not believe that they were paid the same amount as their male counterparts, and only 17% of the surveyed women said that gender discrimination did not exist in their organization as it related to salary.

Survey item 2 stated, “Travel and research funds at my institution are distributed equitably among each gender.” Over 56% of respondents responded positively to this statement, while 15.6% stated “disagree” and 28.1% stated “neither agree nor disagree.”

Hence, even though salary level was perceived to be lower for women than men, travel and research funds were perceived to be equitable. This can be explained, in part, by the role that institutional policies are likely to play in the distribution of travel and research funds. While salaries are often a product of past performance and longevity in an institution, institutional guidelines have served to equalize the distribution of these incentives among faculty members.

Research Question 6

To what degree do women administrators report discrimination in regard to professional development at Florida higher education institutions?

This research question was answered using data obtained from responses to survey item 4: "Male and female faculty are granted sabbaticals equally." The data showed that 38.7% of the respondents answered "agree" or "strongly agree" to this statement and 61.3% stated "neither agree nor disagree." No respondents responded negatively to this statement. This was an indication that the perceptions of women surveyed were fairly positive in regards to equity in sabbaticals.

In general, policies in higher education have supported the equitable distribution of sabbatical leaves for faculty members as ways to encourage professional renewal, further education, and support research. These policies serve the diversity of interests and skills of campus faculty and have been designed to facilitate the goals of the institution. Some researchers have indicated that women, with the encouragement of their institutions, may have spent more time teaching and advising students rather than

conducting research. In comparison, males have been reported to spend more time researching than teaching and advising (Wenninger & Conroy, 2001).

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations for Practice

Overall, it would appear that treatment of males and females in many respects has been equitable, and the trend in recent years appears, based on data from this sample, to be positive. Policies at universities have been passed to ensure equitable treatment among men and women. One change that assisted women to improve their status in the workforce was affirmative action. Affirmative action was a set of public policies and initiatives was designed to help eliminate past and present discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. (National Organization for Women, 2004). Affirmative action "requires a contractor to go beyond the passive stance of not discriminating; it requires him to seek to employ members of groups which have traditionally been excluded, thereby mitigating the effect of discrimination in the society at large" (Furniss & Graham, 1974, p. 208).

Affirmative Action began with Executive Order 12246 in 1965 in conjunction with Title VII under the Civil Rights Act, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. This act, however, specifically exempted faculty and administrators. Employees of educational institutions were included in the population only after President Nixon amended Title VII in 1972 with the Equal Opportunity Act. This order allowed federal employees to implement affirmative action to make certain that all

applicants were treated equally. Affirmative action was used as a voluntary effort to relieve the effect of societal discrimination (Furniss & Graham, 1974).

In 1970, 18 colleges and universities were being investigated by the Office for Civil Rights in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW). As a result, HEW issued nine requirements with which colleges and universities would have to comply in order to receive federal funds including the ratio of men and women in positions, representation in graduate schools, and elimination of separate male and female job descriptions (The Carnegie Commission for Higher Education, 1973).

At the end of the 1970s, female movements had taken on different meanings at universities. Decreased discrimination among faculty and staff, more female athletics, creations of women's centers, and increased opportunities overall had surfaced (Spitzberg, 1992).

Deans have also been encouraged to be cognizant of the gender diversity of their faculty members and strive to increase the number of females they have on staff. Widespread advertising of available jobs and adherence to affirmative action policies, where applicable, have been advocated to improve the recruitment of qualified women (Angel & Barrerra, 1991). This gender diversity will also assist in mentoring opportunities if the women are willing to participate in such programs.

Several positive trends regarding women in higher education were identified in this study. Travel and research funds were perceived to be distributed equally among both men and women. Equal funding is very important to women to have access to professional development opportunities and the ability to participate in research. This is

especially true since women have been more likely to hold teaching positions than research positions. (Yao, 1999)

Another positive trend was the equality in the tenure and promotion process, teaching load, and sabbaticals for men and women. Discrimination was not perceived heavily by respondents in this study for any of these variables. However, as of 2000, Wenninger & Conroy (2001) stated that, in institutions of higher education throughout the United States, 24% of full-time faculty were women, yet the road to tenure has been slower. Only 45% of women faculty members were on a tenure track. Of the faculty pool, 72% of male faculty members and 48% of female faculty members were tenured. The increase of females who have gained tenure between 1980 and 2000 has risen only 1.5% while the increase of males who have earned tenure rose 8%. Women were more likely to hold teaching positions than research positions. This may have caused fewer tenure opportunities for women. Women, however, were found by Yao (1999) to be less interested overall in self-advancement. Women were also less likely than men to have taken advantage of research opportunities and to have believed in the importance of prestige and status.

Women were also seen as equals with men in being represented on academic-related committees on campus. Women have been encouraged to join committees to boost their resumes ("Getting Recognized," 2001). Committees may also provide networking opportunities. Nelson and Burke (2000) stated that exclusion from informal networks was one of the most prominent barriers to advancement.

There was a slightly positive perception that women and men were treated equally in having responsibilities for work in the area of service. Women, however, have often been perceived as being more willing to participate in such assignments due to a communal style of leadership. This style of leadership included a cultivation of strong interpersonal relationships, flexibility, shared decision-making, and reflection (Burns, 1978). Other qualities included a concern for the welfare of others, sensitivity, and compassion (Chemers, 1997). In the workforce, communal characteristics may include speaking tentatively, not focusing attention to oneself, following the direction of others, supporting and comforting colleagues, and solving problems among group members (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

Respondents responded positively in regards to not being sexually harassed. This was encouraging especially since females have historically encountered more sexual harassment than men in the workplace (Hostile Hallways, 2001).

Respondents also perceived equality in how men and women were treated by their colleagues. Peers are very important in the workplace in regard to equal treatment. Associated with sexual harassment, gender harassment is another form of inequality based on gender. Gender harassment is not necessarily sexual in nature, however. Women have faced the brunt of gender discrimination in education, as well as in other arenas.

In regard to areas where perceptions of inequality remained, the adequacy of child care was prominent. Day care facilities were not perceived to be adequate according to the respondents. Funk (1995) noted that a major obstacle for women in leadership roles

was the fact that they experienced guilt over the time that they spent away from their families. Women also were expected to play the "superwoman" role in their lives. Offering day care opportunities for women at colleges and universities may allow women to work more hours, stay of campus more, return to work after maternity leave at an earlier date, and may also be a benefit in recruiting employees with families to the institution.

Though the perception of personal sexual harassment by the women surveyed in this study did not appear problematic, the acknowledgement of sexual harassment on campus was relatively high. This is an area that requires continual vigilance by institutions. Through standardized policies and procedures, women should be made aware of their rights as individuals to report sexual harassment to their respective human resources agency and encouraged to seek assistance if necessary.

Though women have made great strides in equality in higher education, men have continued to garner higher salaries. This was the perception of respondents in this study and reported throughout the literature. Women deserve equality and comparable salaries and should be offered salary equality in their positions. The Equal Pay Act of 1963 prohibited gender-based salary discrimination between men and women who work in the same environment with similar duties (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2004). Though much progress has been made, the problem of addressing historic inequities such as salary compression remains a challenge for most institutions of higher education.

The use of mentors to assist new and aspiring employees was an area seen as important for females. Respondents perceived there to be positive female role models on their campus, and also the majority of respondents stated that they had a relationship with a mentor. When provided the opportunity, 26 respondents commented positively in regards to the importance of female mentors. According to Angel & Barrerra (1991), long-term strategies including official mentoring programs for females at institutions may help women reach their full potential in employment. This is especially true for new employees. Women who have not sought a mentoring relationship from a senior member of their institution should seek one out. Mentoring is a “give and take” process, where responsibility is shared by mentor and protégé to seek out and keep relationship alive. Mentoring opportunities would be beneficial for both less experienced and more seasoned women at higher education institutions. These opportunities should be nurtured by the administration and schools should respond to this need and create a space for women to network with one another.

Notable differences between two-year and four-year respondents and also public and private school respondents were revealed in a few survey items. Public school and two-year school respondents perceived work in the area of service to be less equitable; suggesting that work in the area of service was more readily assigned to women at these schools. Equal treatment by colleagues was perceived as higher in private schools, possibly due to the higher number of women in administrative positions at these types of schools. Supervisor support and mentoring relationships were perceived higher in four-year schools. Perhaps four-year schools have a stronger network for women to establish

mentoring relationships. Four-year schools my also have a more consistent employee assessments that may lead to better communication with supervisors. Most data from the survey items showed no significant difference among the groups however.

In summary, the representation of women in higher education administration has not historically equaled that of men in higher administrative positions. Females in higher education administration have, however, increased in numbers and status on college and university campuses since the 1970s, largely due to affirmative action laws, among other federal regulations and guidelines. The imbalance of males over females in higher administration positions has continued and provides a challenge for institutions in their employment practices.

Women are a valuable asset to higher education institutions and should be recruited and pursued for high level for reasons not limited to diversity. Women bring a unique perspective to administration and should continue to be pursued in achieving such positions. Likewise, conditions and practices which make the institutional environment a more attractive workplace, i.e., day care facilities, mentoring, and continued attention to equity in all respects, should be high priority concerns for institutions.

Recommendations for Further Research

Recommendations for further research were identified from data results for the present study. Possible research recommendations were suggested below.

1. Replicating this study for use with male administrators in Florida to track their perceptions of the same concerns in this research would provide an alternate

perspective and an interesting comparative data base. These two sets of data could then be compared to view the two different perceptions from both gender groups.

2. A future study comparing the perceptions of newer with more seasoned women administrators could be conducted to study the progress made towards the goal of gender equity in higher education administration.
3. A future study asking women to state their perceptions regarding personal and campus sexual harassment would be beneficial as a precautionary and monitoring strategy so that this area receives continued attention as needed.
4. Faculty members could be added to the survey population in order to gain their perspective on gender equality in higher education.

APPENDIX A
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

Office of Research & Commercialization

December 8, 2006

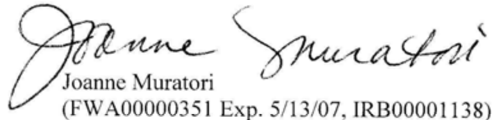
Stacey L. Malaret
University of Central Florida
Lead Scholars
Student Union, Room 207
Orlando, FL 32816-0126

Dear Mrs. Malaret:

The University of Central Florida's Institutional Review Board (IRB) received your protocol IRB #06-4027 entitled **"Shattering the Glass Ceiling: A Study of Gender Discrimination at Private and Public Two-Year and Four-Year Florida Institutions."** The IRB Chair reviewed the study on 12/7/2006 and did not have any concerns with the proposed project. The Chair has indicated that under federal regulations (Category #2, research involving the use of educational tests, survey or interview procedures, or the observation of public behavior, so long as confidentiality is maintained) this research is **exempt** from further review by our IRB, so an approval is not applicable and a renewal within one year is not required.

Please accept our best wishes for the success of your endeavors. Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at 407-823-2901.

Cordially,



Joanne Muratori
(FWA00000351 Exp. 5/13/07, IRB00001138)

Copies: IRB File
LeVester Tubbs, Ed.D.

JM:jt

12201 Research Parkway • Suite 501 • Orlando, FL 32826-3246 • 407-823-3778 • Fax 407-823-3299

An Equal Opportunity and Affirmative Action Institution

THE UNIVERSITY OF CENTRAL FLORIDA
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB)

IRB Committee Approval Form

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR(S): Stacey L. Malaret (Supervisor: LeVester Tubbs, Ed.D.) #06-4027

PROJECT TITLE: Shattering the Glass Ceiling: A Study of Gender Discrimination at Private and Public Two-Year and Four-Year Florida Institutions

[X] New project submission
[ ] Resubmission of lapsed project #_____
[ ] Continuing review of lapsed project #
[ ] Continuing review of #
[ ] Study expires
[ ] Initial submission was approved by expedited review
[ ] Initial submission was approved by full board review but continuing review can be expedited
[ ] Suspension of enrollment email sent to PI, entered on spreadsheet, administration notified _____

Chair

[ ] Expedited Approval

Dated: ________
Cite how qualifies for expedited review:
minimal risk and __________

[X] Exempt

Dated: 12/7/06
Cite how qualifies for exempt status:
minimal risk and #2

[ ] Expiration
Date: ____________

IRB Reviewers:

Signed: Tracy L Dietz
Dr. Tracy Dietz, Chair

Signed: ______________________________
Dr. Craig Van Slyke, Vice-Chair

Signed: ______________________________
Dr. Sophia Dziegielewski, Vice-Chair

Complete reverse side of expedited or exempt form

[ ] Waiver of documentation of consent approved
[ ] Waiver of consent approved
[ ] Waiver of HIPAA Authorization approved

NOTES FROM IRB CHAIR (IF APPLICABLE): ______________________________

#06-4027

UCF IRB Protocol Submission Form

X Initial ☐ Resubmission of IRB #________

Please type this form using the Microsoft Word document. Expand as needed. Allow a minimum of 2-3 weeks for the approval process. A letter of approval will be mailed to you once approved. Information on this form must match information on the grant application, dissertation or thesis, consent forms or letters, and flyers for recruitment. **There are no deadlines for submission of minimal risk studies as they are reviewed at least weekly.** If it is deemed by the IRB that the study involves greater than minimal risk or extenuating factors, the complete IRB packet must be submitted by the 1st business day of the month for consideration at that monthly IRB meeting. At title note if investigator is Student, Master's Candidate or Doctoral Candidate.

1. Title of Protocol: Shattering the Glass Ceiling: A Study of Gender Discrimination at Private and Public Two-Year and Four-Year Florida Institutions.

2. Principal Investigator: [List the faculty supervisor as both the Principal Investigator and the faculty supervisor if student(s) or staff members are doing the research. List student(s) as co-investigator(s).]

Signature: [signature]

Name: **Dr. LeVester Tubbs**
Dr. (circle one)
Department: **Educational Leadership**
College: **Education** #0108161

Degree: **Ph.D.**
Title: **Professor**
Telephone: **407-823-1466**
Facsimile: **407-823-4880**
E-Mail: **ltubbs@mail.ucf.edu**

Co-Investigator(s):

Signature: Stacey L Malaret

Name: **Stacey L. Malaret**
Mrs.
Employee ID or Student PID #: **0104998**
Degree: **Ed.D.**
Title: **Doctoral Candidate**

Department: **LEAD Scholars Program**
College: **SDES**
E-Mail: **malaret@mail.ucf.edu**
Telephone: **407/823-6492**
Facsimile: **407/823-3942**
Home Telephone: **407/595-2221**

3. Supervisor: (complete if researcher is a student or staff member – Put contact information above)

Signature: [signature]

Name: **Dr. LeVester Tubbs**
Dr. (circle one)
Department: **Educational Leadership**
College: **Education**

Degree: **Ph.D.**
Title: **Professor**
Telephone: **407-823-1466**
Facsimile: **407-823-4880**
E-Mail: **ltubbs@mail.ucf.edu**

4. Collaborating institution(s) and researcher(s) (identify the institution and its FWA number, if known. List the names of collaborating researchers and briefly describe their roles in the study. Provide contact information. If the collaborating institution receives federal funds and does not have a federalwide assurance, a completed UCF Individual Investigator Agreement is required prior to approval.) **N/A**

5. Dates of proposed project (cannot be retroactive) **From: December, 2006 To: December, 2007**

6. Source of funding for the project (project title, agency, account/proposal # or "Unfunded"): Unfunded

7. Scientific purpose of the investigation (dissertation or thesis is not the scientific purpose): **To investigate discrimination against women in Florida higher education institutions.**

8. Describe the research methodology in non-technical language (the UCF IRB needs to know what will be done with or to the research participants – include audio/video taping – explain

the who, what, when, where, why and how of the procedures you wish to implement). **Questionnaires will be emailed to specified recipients at the addresses furnished by the American College Personnel Association and National Association of Student Personnel Administrators databases after IRB approval. A cover letter email and questionnaire will be sent to potential subjects. Confidentiality will be secured for individual data will not be published. For those subjects that do not return the initial questionnaire within two weeks, a subsequent cover letter and questionnaire will be sent to them.**

Research questions will include the following questions, in addition to demographic information. Demographic information will include age, ethnicity, administrative position, and the type of Florida institution in which the respondents are employed.

- **To what degree do women administrators report discrimination at Florida higher education institutions?**
- **To what degree do women administrators report the importance of a mentor at Florida higher education institutions?**
- **To what degree do women administrators report discrimination in promotion or tenure advancement at Florida higher education institutions?**
- **To what degree do women administrators report cases of sexual harassment at Florida higher education institutions?**
- **To what degree do women administrators report pay inequity for women at Florida higher education institutions?**
- **To what degree do women administrators report discrimination in regards to professional development at Florida higher education institutions?**

9. Describe the potential benefits and anticipated risks and the steps that will be taken to minimize risks and protect participants (risks include physical, psychological, social or economic harm - if there are no direct benefits and/or no risks, state that).

There are no anticipated risks or benefits to either the research group.

10. Describe how participants will be recruited, how many you hope to recruit, the age of participants, and proposed compensation (if any). When recruiting college students, you should state here that "Participants will be 18 years of age or older" if you want to avoid the need for a parental consent form. **Participants will be identified from American College Personnel Association and National Association of Student Personnel Administrators databases. No compensation will be given.**

11. Describe the informed consent process (include a copy of the informed consent document – if a waiver of documentation of consent is requested to make the study completely anonymous, include a consent form or informational letter with no signature lines or reference to signing).

Please see informational cover letter with no signature lines or reference to signing attached.

12. Describe any protected health information (PHI) you plan to obtain from a HIPAA-covered medical facility or UCF designated HIPAA component (include the completed UCF HIPAA Authorization Form or the UCF HIPAA Waiver of Authorization Form giving the details of the planned use or disclosure of the PHI. See the UCF IRB Web page for HIPAA details and forms). **N/A**

I approve this protocol for submission to the UCF IRB. Signature: [signature] 11/30/06

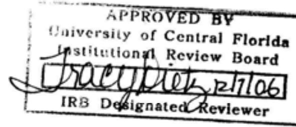
Department Chair/Director **Date**

Cooperating Department (if more than one Dept. involved) Signature: ______________ /

Department Chair/Director **Date**

Note: If required signatures are missing, the form will be returned to the PI unprocessed.

APPENDIX B
COVER LETTER



December 1, 2006

Dear Dr. X:

I am writing to ask your help in a gender discrimination study for higher education administrators in the state of Florida.

It is my understanding that you hold an administrative position at a college or university in Florida. I am contacting all female administrators at the dean, assistant/associate vice-president, vice-president, provost, and president/chancellor levels at two-year and four-year colleges and universities in Florida for this study.

Results from the survey will be used to help current and future females in higher education administration relate their own experiences to those at various schools and positions. By having a better understanding of how females are treated and perceived at various institutions, female administrators will gain a better understanding of their status in higher education.

Your answers are completely confidential and will be released only as summaries in which no individual's answers can be identified. I will not be collecting names or signatures in this questionnaire. This survey is voluntary. However, you can help me very much by taking a few minutes to share your feelings and opinions about gender discrimination. If you are willing to consent in participating in this study please click here to begin the questionnaire: www.surveymonkey.com/XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX. Please note that you must be at least 18 years old to complete this survey.

If you have any questions or comments about this study, I would be more than happy to talk with you. The contact information for myself, my dissertation advisor and the UCF Institutional Review Board (IRB) is listed below for your convenience.

Stacey L. Malaret	Dr. LeVester Tubbs	Institutional Review Board
Doctoral Candidate	Dissertation Advisor	University of Central Florida
University of Central Florida	University of Central Florida	407-823-2901
407-823-6492	407-823-1466	IRB@mail.ucf.edu
malaret@mail.ucf.edu	ltubbs@mail.ucf.edu	12201 Research Parkway
PO Box 160126	PO Box 161250	Suite 501
Orlando, FL 32816-0126	Orlando, FL 32816-1250	Orlando, FL 32826-3246

Thank you very much for helping me with my dissertation study.

Sincerely,

Stacey L. Malaret

P.S. If by some chance I made a mistake and you are not currently an administrator in Florida, please respond to this email and note that you are not an administrator in Florida in the body of the message. I appreciate your assistance.

APPENDIX C
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

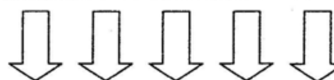
Is there gender discrimination in higher education administration?

Stacey Lazenby Malaret

Please indicate if you agree or disagree by circling your responses.

How much do you **AGREE** or **DISAGREE** with the following statements?

START HERE:



Statement	1= Strongly Disagree	2= Disagree	3= Neither Agree Nor Disagree	4= Agree	5= Strongly Agree
1. Female and male faculty members who are equal in degree and experience earn comparable salaries	1	2	3	4	5
2. Travel and research funds at my institution are distributed equitably among each gender	1	2	3	4	5
3. Male and female faculty are treated equally in the tenure and promotion process	1	2	3	4	5
4. Male and female faculty are granted sabbaticals equally	1	2	3	4	5
5. Males and female employees are expected to do the same amount of work in the area of service	1	2	3	4	5
6. Male and female faculty are given the same teaching load	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel that I have been sexually harassed	1	2	3	4	5
8. There is very little (if any) sexual harassment on this campus	1	2	3	4	5
9. Women are treated as equals among their colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
10. There is adequate day care for children of faculty and staff at my school	1	2	3	4	5
11. My supervisor supports me	1	2	3	4	5
12. Female faculty are represented on all academic-related committees at my institution	1	2	3	4	5
13. There are positive role models for female faculty and staff at my institution	1	2	3	4	5
14. A senior faculty or staff member serves/has served as a mentor for me	1	2	3	4	5
15. Female mentors are important for higher education professional women.	1	2	3	4	5

OVER

PLEASE CONTINUE…

16. Please explain your response to #15.

____

____

____

17. Please provide any suggestions or insight that you may have to younger professional educators, regarding ways to succeed in the higher education field:

____

____

____

If you would like the results of this survey sent to you, please write your email address below:

____

Please mark the appropriate boxes below:

What is your gender?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

What is your racial/ethnic background?

- ☐ African American
- ☐ Hispanic
- ☐ Native American
- ☐ Caucasian
- ☐ Asian/Pacific Islander

What is your salary level?

- ☐ <$30,000
- ☐ $30,001-$49,999
- ☐ $50,000-$69,999
- ☐ $70,000-$89,999
- ☐ >$90,000

What is your professional rank?

- ☐ Faculty member
- ☐ Dean
- ☐ Assistant/Associate Vice-President
- ☐ Vice-President
- ☐ Provost
- ☐ President/Chancellor

What is your level of education?

- ☐ Bachelors degree
- ☐ Masters degree
- ☐ Doctorate degree
- ☐ Other

____

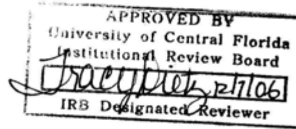
Thank you for completing this survey.

APPENDIX D
POTENTIAL RESPONDENTS (LISTSERV)

First Name	Last Name	School	Title
Cathy	Akens	Florida International University	Assistant Vice President for Student Affairs
Maria	Alvarez	Barry University	Dean of Students and Associate VP
Bea	Awoniyi	Florida State University	Assistant Dean and Director
Lisa	Bardill	Florida Atlantic University	Associate Dean of Students
Ann	Becks	University of Florida	Assistant Dean of Students
Glenda	Belote	Florida International University	Associate Dean-retired
Marcia	Brooks	International College	Assistant Dean of Students
Jennifer	Capeheart-Meningall	Univeristy of South Florida	Vice President for Student Affairs
Ainsley	Carry	University of Florida	Assistant VP for Student Affairs
Michelle	Castro	University of Miami	Assistant Dean of Students
Rosa	Cintron	University of Central Florida	Faculty
Mary B.	Coburn	Florida State University	Vice President for Student Affairs
Jody	Conway	Univeristy of South Florida	Assistant Dean
Paige	Crandall	University of Florida	Associate Dean of Students
Lucy	Croft	University of North Florida	Assistant Vice President for Student Affairs
Linda	Croley	Lake City Community College	Dean Student Services
Janice	Daly	Florida State University	Assistant Dean of Students, Director of FYE
Judy	Deshotels	University of West Florida	Dean of Students
Darby	Dickerson	Stetson University College of Law	Vice President and Dean
Pam	Doerr	University of South Florida	Associate Vice President Student Svcs.
Maribeth	Ehasz	University of Central Florida	Associate Vice President
Sharon	Ekern	University of Central Florida	Asst. V.P., Adminstrative Svcs
Helen	Ellison	Florida International University	Associate Vice President, Student Affairs
Michelle	Espinoza	Stetson University	Dean of Students
Zina	Evans	University of Florida	Assistant Provost and Director of Admissions
Gina	Firth	University of Tampa	Associate Dean of Students
Mary Etta	Fisher	Central Florida CC	Vice President for Student Affairs
Debby	Ford	University of West Florida	Vice President for Student Affairs
Maribel	Garrett	Hillsborough Community College	Assistant Dean of Student Services
Joy	Gaston Gayles	Florida State University	Assistant Professor
Kristie	Gover	Jacksonville University	Assistant Dean of Students
Karen	Grosby	Nova Southeastern University	Dean
Sandra	Harris	Eckerd College	Associate Professor
Greta	Henglein	Northwood University of Florida	Dean of Students
Wilma	Henry	University of South Florida	Associate Professor
Gay	Holliday	Nova Southeastern University	Associate Dean of Student Affairs
Alfonsa	James	Pasco-Hernando CC	Dean of Student Services
Rosa	Jones	Florida International University	Vice President
Megan	Kilburn	University of Miami	Assistant to the VP of Enrollment Management
Robin	Leach	Florida State University	Associate Dean of Students
Donna	Lee	Rollins College	Dean of Student Affairs
Sara	Mayer	Florida Tech	Assistant Dean for Student Activities
Eileen	McDonough	Barry University	Assoc. V.P. for Student Services
Tammy	McGuckin	University of West Florida	Executive Asst to VP of Student Affairs
Marion	Merzer	Florida Atlantic Univeristy	Associate Dean
Marion R.	Merzer	Florida Atlantic University	Associate Dean of Student Affairs
Joan	Miller	Chipola Junior College	Dean of Student Services
Patricia	Mills	Hillsborough Community College	Assistant Dean of Student Services
Carole	Obermeyer	Florida Southern College	Vice President for Student Life
Edith	Pendleton	Edison College	District VP for Student Services
DeLaine	Priest	University of Central Florida	Interim Assistant Vice President
Jaquelyn Liss	Resnick	University of Florida	Professor
Kerri	Riegler	Univeristy of South Florida	Asst. Dean of Students
Silvia Patricia	Rios_Husain	Broward Community College	VP for Student Affairs

Jayne	Roberts	Chipola Junior College	Dean of Enrollement Services
Joyce	Romano	Valencia	Vice President for Student Affairs
Mary Kay	Schneider	University of Florida	Associate Dean of Students
Mary Ann	Searle	Palm Beach Atlantic University	Vice President for Student Development
Sarah	Shumate	St. Thomas University	V.P. for Student Svcs.
Deborah	Sloan	Broward Community College	Dean of Student Affairs
Michelle	Snyder	Stetson University	Dean of Students
Patricia	Telles-Irvin	Univeristy of Florida	Vice President
Tracy	Tyree	Univeristy of South Florida	Associate Vice President
Megan	Vadnais	University of South Florida	Assistant Dean of Students
Nanette	Vega	University of Miami	Assistant Dean of Students
Tammy	Walsh	Ringling School of Art and Design	Dean of Students
Jeanine	Ward-Roof	Florida State University	Dean of Students
Monnie	Wertz	University of Tampa	Associate Dean of Students
Patricia	Whitely	University of Miami	Vice President
Lusharin	Wiley	University of West Florida	Interim Dean of Students
Rozalia	Williams	Florida Atlantic University	President, Hidden Curriculum Education
Regina	Young Hyatt	Univeristy of South Florida	Associate Dean of Students
Lisette	Yovanovich	Florida Gulf Coast University	Dean of Students
Gene	Zdziarski	University of Florida	Dean of Students

APPENDIX E
FOLLOW-UP COVER LETTER



December 1, 2006

Dear Dr. X:

I am writing to ask your help in a gender discrimination study for higher education administrators in the state of Florida.

It is my understanding that you hold an administrative position at a college or university in Florida. I am contacting all female administrators at the dean, assistant/associate vice-president, vice-president, provost, and president/chancellor levels at two-year and four-year colleges and universities in Florida for this study.

Results from the survey will be used to help current and future females in higher education administration relate their own experiences to those at various schools and positions. By having a better understanding of how females are treated and perceived at various institutions, female administrators will gain a better understanding of their status in higher education.

Your answers are completely confidential and will be released only as summaries in which no individual's answers can be identified. I will not be collecting names or signatures in this questionnaire. This survey is voluntary. However, you can help me very much by taking a few minutes to share your feelings and opinions about gender discrimination. If you are willing to consent in participating in this study please click here to begin the questionnaire: www.surveymonkey.com/XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX. Please note that you must be at least 18 years old to complete this survey.

If you have any questions or comments about this study, I would be more than happy to talk with you. The contact information for myself, my dissertation advisor and the UCF Institutional Review Board (IRB) is listed below for your convenience.

Stacey L. Malaret	Dr. LeVester Tubbs	Institutional Review Board
Doctoral Candidate	Dissertation Advisor	University of Central Florida
University of Central Florida	University of Central Florida	407-823-2901
407-823-6492	407-823-1466	IRB@mail.ucf.edu
malaret@mail.ucf.edu	ltubbs@mail.ucf.edu	12201 Research Parkway
PO Box 160126	PO Box 161250	Suite 501
Orlando, FL 32816-0126	Orlando, FL 32816-1250	Orlando, FL 32826-3246

Thank you very much for helping me with my dissertation study.

Sincerely,

Stacey L. Malaret

P.S. If by some chance I made a mistake and you are not currently an administrator in Florida, please respond to this email and note that you are not an administrator in Florida in the body of the message. I appreciate your assistance.

APPENDIX F
FREE RESPONSES TO SURVEY ITEM 15

16. Please explain your response to question #15: Female mentors are important for higher education professional women

Female mentors are better able to guide upcoming professional women through the obstacles and barriers set by the establishment, especially in a private institution.

Mentors and role models are important for just about anyone, but especially for women in higher education where they tend to be underrepresented in the upper levels of faculty (e.g. full professor) and administration. Women benefit from learning from someone like them who has traveled the road and can share their experiences.

Female mentors are important in any profession. Women deal with a host of different issues, and it is very helpful to have a mentor that can relate to that.

It is critical to develop leaders among diverse populations, including women and ethnic minority faculty/administrators. I think mentors need to be strong leaders and a strong leader as mentor is likely more important than the fact of gender or race of the mentor. However, I do think female mentors are helpful to women given special challenges they may face in the environment or their need to develop skills, strategies and experiences.

It is important that we assist one another and create opportunities for professional development, and advancement.

I believe a receptive junior administrator can grow professionally from capable mentoring, regardless of the sex of the mentor. Put in other words, an ambitious and capable female can achieve success regardless of the gender of her role models and supervisors.

Important to have advice from someone with knowledge and experience and who can guide you through the frustrations and hierarchy.

Female mentors are critical to role-modeling appropriate expectations and behaviors just as in every other area of life.

It is important to have a role model and someone that you can confide in - who can help you strategize and plan for future opportunities

We have so many historic perspectives on strong male leaders. Much harder still to picture women in certain roles. It is important to learn from women with more

experience as to how they have navigated difficult political situations in (at times) a male dominated area. This will eventually change those with new generations.

While mentors of either gender can be empowering, I believe that having a female mentor shows new professional women that there do not have to be limits on their achievement.

I've had male mentors too, but it's hard for them to understand the unique challenges associated with being a woman in any male-dominated profession.

Any mentors are important, but having specific female mentors who have succeeded and been successful in navigating the politics and issues re-gender is important.

I think that female mentors may be important.

I believe having women role models helps one become at ease with their profession. It is nice to have someone to talk to about what you are experiencing and how you can help other women in the profession.

Women have a different and more realistic view of the status of women in higher education. They can assist younger women in understanding the informal networks and decision-making processes that are critical to success in a university.

It helps to have the support and guidance she can provide.

Female mentors can provide insight in to how to navigate the career path as a woman. Their personal experience offers content for other women in similar positions or who aspire to a similar position.

Having a mentor creates opportunities for: (1) Advancement, (2) Social Networking and (3). The ability to navigate the system.

The good old boy network is still alive and well. Female mentors help you learn to negotiate the minefield!

It is important to have mentors who can help you negotiate the environment.

As a woman it is important to have a female model to mentor you at an institution. It helps guide you in the right direction and gets you around the red tape and helps you to know the political climate.

I firmly believe that female mentors are important to other females in any type of industry or role. Women come into the workplace with somewhat of a disadvantage and need to learn quickly the political climate; how to be seen, heard, and assert themselves in a positive manner; some need tips on how to dress professionally; and others on what committees or organizations to become involved with in order to get involved within the institution and community.

Women have different issues than men. Mothers are particularly different because of the need to manage home and work responsibilities. It is nice to have a mentor to encourage you during the difficult times.

Good role models are necessary for support and mentoring and to assist in meandering through a male dominated leadership arena.

In order to work in a highly competitive university where there is a 70% male to female ratio it is vital that women are in key roles. We only have 30% women. They need to see that they can be leaders in male dominated fields.
I believe mentors are important but having women mentors can provide different insights and thoughts about how to navigate a somewhat still male dominated field.

Female mentors can provide insight in to how to navigate the career path as a woman. Their personal experience offer content for other women in similar positions or who aspire to a similar position.

The idea of mentorship is not something that I've bought in to. I think we have a variety of people in our lives that we aspire to be like but I don't know that I think that's mentorship.

I don't believe an assigned mentor is important to success.

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