SHATTERING THE CONCRETE CEILING: EXPLORING THE MODERATING EFFECTS
OF MASS MEDIA MESSAGES AS ITRELATES TO THE PERCEIVED
SELF-EFFICACY OF AFRICAN-AMERICAN WOMEN

by

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ABSTRACT

Past research has shown that there are few positive ethnically diverse role models in American society (Hackett & Betz, 1981). African-American women have identified the lack of racially identical role models as a significant barrier to attaining leadership positions within Corporate America. A cross-sectional survey was administered to explore how mass media images depicting counter-stereotypical images of African-American role models affect the self-efficacy beliefs of African-American women (195 respondents, 51%). The researcher also examined the participant’s ability to cope with stress and their reported level of career aspirations as predictors of their level of identification with the potential role model. The results indicated that African-American women have lower levels of both self-efficacy and career aspirations than women of other races (187 respondents, 49%). The results also indicated that the participant’s ability to cope with stress and level of career aspirations predicted their level of identification. Furthermore, the study found that a potential role models race significantly influenced the participant’s level of identification. This research will foster social change by identifying an effective approach to combating historical stereotypes that lower the self-efficacy of African-American women. Increasing the self-efficacy of African-American women could advance opportunities for minority women’s leadership and reduce the leadership gap in Corporate America.
DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to everyone who assisted and guided me through the process of creating this manuscript. In particular, Jason Malone who stood by my side throughout the entire process taken to complete this study. Furthermore, this thesis is dedicated to all of the young and ambitious African-American women who aspire to lead within Corporate America in spite of all of the barriers.
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Background

Over fifty years ago, the Civil Rights Act abolished racial and gender segregation within society and the American workforce (Stainback & Tomaskovic-Devey, 2012). Consequently, the establishment of systemic discrimination invariably excluded African-American women from the professional labor market, which forced them to occupy domestic employment positions such as housekeeper, nanny, and cook (Mays, 1995). However, in present society African-American women continue to make progress, they constitute roughly 13 percent of the American female population, one-third of the female workforce and continue to enter the private sector in overwhelming numbers (Catalyst Inc., 2014; Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2003; Mays, 1995; U.S. Census Bureau, 2014). Despite the enhanced workforce visibility, African-American women have experienced difficulty obtaining leadership roles thus remain underrepresented within the senior-level rankings of Fortune 500 companies (Fairfax, 2005; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010; Reynolds-Dobbs, Thomas & Harrison, 2008).

From a historical perspective, Caucasian men constructed American corporations to benefit their homogenous group, in an effort to preserve a homogenous power structure of supremacy based on the exclusion of minorities and women (Callahan & Tomaszewski, 2007; Davies-Netzley, 1998; Maier, 1997; Reynolds-Dobbs, 2007). Due to the historical composition of Corporate America, women and minorities are at a disadvantage when attempting to attain
Executive leadership positions (Reynolds-Dobbs, 2007 & Ibarra, 1993). Previous research supports the notion by suggesting that as women climb the precarious corporate ladder they encounter various invisible barriers that limit their career progression, this notion is often referred to as the “glass ceiling” (Davis & Maldonado, 2015; Reynolds-Dobbs, 2007). Research revealed that all women face discrimination in the workplace, however, due to America’s ignominious history with slavery, African-American women face additional barriers that are detrimental to their career advancement (Reynolds-Dobbs, 2007). The institution of slavery constructed the hierarchal relationship between African-Americans and Caucasians in America (Reynolds-Dobbs, 2007). Researchers attribute the absence of African-Americans in the C-suite of Fortune 500 companies to the historical ideologies of slavery (Reynolds-Dobbs, 2007).

African-American women referred to the contextual and internal career barriers they experience as a “concrete ceiling,” often characterized as an impenetrable opaque barrier that blocks their career advancement (Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008). Overall, African-American women credited their absence in the C-suite to contextual barriers such as stereotypes and the lack of African-American female role models (Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008). Previous research suggested that contextual barriers predispose African-American women to have lower levels of self-efficacy (Hackett & Betz, 1981; Swanson & Woitke, 1997; Shin, Levy & London, 2016; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011). Hackett and Betz (1981) supported the notion explaining that the low self-efficacy beliefs of women are thought to reflect the limited and disadvantaged position of women in the C-suite. According to Sanchez-Hucles and Davis (2010), African-American women remain subject to a unique form of sexism influenced by long-held racist ideologies. Researchers have identified the intersection of race and gender as a “double jeopardy,” that is most keenly supported by the paucity of African-American women
in the C-suite (Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010). In fact, African-American women are the most underrepresented demographic in the Fortune 500, occupying a mere .002% of CEO positions, 1.1 percent of corporate officer positions and 5.3 percent of managerial roles (Stodghill, 2012; Catalyst Inc., 2002; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008).

The absence of African-American women in the C-suite is an issue of importance, largely, because the lack of actual African-American female leaders engenders a lack of African-American female role models demonstrating how challenges can be overcome (Sealy & Singh, 2009). Thus, younger African-American women are not attempting to shatter the concrete ceiling, which further perpetuates the homogenous hierarchy of Caucasian male supremacy within Corporate America. Researchers suggest that the absence of role models is a contributing factor to women’s subordinate professional identity, lower sense of self-efficacy and limited career aspirations (Cheung & Yue, 2003; Hackett & Betz, 1981; Gomillion & Giuliano, 2011; Ibarra, 1993; Itoh, 2014). Roles models are individuals whose actions influence or inspire another person (Sealy & Singh, 2009). According to Gomillion and Giuliano (2011) individuals tend to pursue role models that they can identify with, sharing similar traits such as gender and race. Previous research indicates that the shortage of African-American females in the C-suite directly effects young African-American women, without role models; there is no similar exemplar to observe and emulate (Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008; Hackett & Byars, 1996).

Researchers found that the lack of tangible female role models prompted women to seek role models and draw inspiration from a variety of domains including the mass media (Hackett & Betz, 1981; Simon & Hoyt, 2013; Singh et al., 2003). Bandura (1977) noted that role models presented via mass media have the power to effects the observer’s self-efficacy via vicarious experience similar to tangible role models. Gomillion and Giuliano (2011) added that mass
media messages are influential and have the power to inspire observers. This is of relevance, largely, because within the mass media, African-American women rarely portray the persona of a positive leader (Adams-Bass, Bentley-Edwards, & Stevenson, 2014). A consensus among scholars revealed that in the media African-American women frequently portray negative personas that further preserve the existence of gender and racial stereotypes (Adams-Bass, Bentley-Edwards, & Stevenson, 2014; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008; West, 1995).

Exposure to negative portrayals of African-American women in mass media can distort the ways that younger African-American women perceive themselves and their capabilities (Hudson, 1998). Prior research indicated that stereotypical images have an undermining effect on the self-efficacy of African-American women, which consequently, creates another barrier to their career advancement (Hackett & Byars, 1996; Bhatt, Payne, Feldt & Litzenberger, 2013). Exploring the experiences of African-American women as it relates to role models and career aspirations presents a unique opportunity to examine how images produced by modern mass media messages influence their self-efficacy via vicarious experience.

**Purpose of Study**

The current body of literature on role models indicated that observing successful role models that challenge stereotypes increases a person’s self-efficacy (DeSantis & Quimby, 2004; Shin, Levy & London, 2016; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011). According to research female role models are vital, they stand for - the possibility of success and encourage female observers to believe “If she can do it, so can I” (Hewlett, 2007; Quimby & DeSantis, 2006). A stronger sense of self-efficacy may enable African-American women to become leaders within Corporate America.
Numerous barriers such as racial and gender stereotypes have continued to limit the upward career progression of African-American women within the workplace (Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010). Reynolds-Dobbs et al. (2008) support this notion by suggesting that negative images reinforce stereotypes via mass media messages which subsequently hindering the progression of African-Americans within the workplace. Taken together, the lack of exposure to role models in conjunction with the stereotypical images portrayed in the mass media inevitably undermines the self-efficacy of aspiring leaders (Bandura, 2004; Simon & Hoyt, 2013). Hackett and Betz (1981) postulated that exposure to same-sex and ethnically similar role models via everyday experiences or mass media messages significantly influence self-efficacy expectations.

Self-efficacy is an individual’s belief in his or her ability to accomplish a task within a specific context (Bandura, 1977). The current body of literature on self-efficacy has revealed the powerful role that this motivational construct plays in influencing an individual’s career goals and successful task performance (Hoyt, 2005). Researchers have found that individuals with high-levels of self-efficacy are more likely to succeed and take risk. Conversely, individuals with low-levels of self-efficacy avoid difficult task and fail to seize opportunities (Bandura, 1977). With low-levels of self-efficacy, African-American women may not attempt to demolish the “concrete ceiling” and as a result will remain scarce at the upper echelons of Fortune 500 corporations (Hackett & Byars, 1996). The focus of this research derived from the practical importance of leadership role models for women, especially African-American women and the importance of same-sex and gender roles models for African-American women as they encounter negative stereotypes (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Lockwood, 2006; Hoyt, 2013). Few studies examine the influence of role models presented via mass media on African-American’s career self-efficacy. The paucity of tangible and positive mass media generated African-American role
models could be damaging to the self-efficacy of African-American women who are entering the workforce. Thus to expand the present body of literature, the current study seeks to examine the influence of role models presented via mass media on the self-efficacy of African-American collegiate students by measuring career aspirations, self-efficacy, leader identification, and their ability to cope with stress.

**Significance**

The number of African-American women leaders is particularly low within the C-suite of Corporate America. There is a close relationship between the lack of African-American women leaders and various internal and contextual barriers. Previous research suggests that one factor that can help women overcome these barriers is the presence of a role model.

Role models are critical in the professional development of individuals and their level of career aspirations. A stronger sense of self-efficacy could enable African-American women to shatter the concrete ceiling. The results of this study could support social change not only for African-American women, but also for all potential female leaders in the American workforce. Additionally, increasing the number of African-American women at the upper echelons of Fortune 500 companies would give women a voice, and offer companies a diverse perspective. This in turn could enhance business performance giving corporations a competitive advantage in their respective industry. This study contributes to a more nuanced understanding of the importance of perceived capabilities and the effectiveness of role models. There is a need to examine the convoluted experiences of African-American women as it relates to leadership, and future results could provide a practical approach to remedying this intractable problem (Simon & Hoyt, 2013). By examining role model influence on African-American women in a both male and Caucasian dominated environment, it is possible to reveal whether role models exert
influence over African-American women and how that influence is significant to the self-efficacy of African-American women. Increasing self-efficacy by having positive African-American female role models could advance opportunities for women’s leadership and reduce the leadership gap in Corporate America.

**Summary**

Considering gender and racial differences in levels of self-efficacy, it is important to conduct research on the influence of role models on self-efficacy via the source of vicarious experience for African-American women as they enter their professional career. Research suggests that exposure to role models who obtain success not only by challenging stereotypes but through effort increases a person’s self-efficacy (DeSantis & Quimby, 2004; Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011; Shin, Levy & London, 2016). Accordingly, the purpose of the present study was to examine the influence of role models presented via mass media on the self-efficacy of African-American collegiate students by measuring career aspirations, self-efficacy, leader identification, and their ability to cope with stress.

The current study conducted a systematic literature and theoretical review to understand the current situation of African-American women’s leadership and role model influence on African-American women’s leadership. The first section examined the concept of leadership with Corporate America and the impact that both race and gender have on leadership roles. Within this section, the researcher further discussed the underrepresentation of women and minorities in executive leadership positions. Additionally, the section provided explanations of the various barriers women and minorities encountered in the work place in accordance with theoretical frameworks such as the role congruity theory.
One of the chief contextual barriers related to the underrepresentation of African-American women in leadership positions is the concept stereotypes. The next section focused on the description of stereotypes, elaborating on how they undermine the self-efficacy of African-American women. The mass media serves as a powerful socializing agent, providing images that influence observer’s self-perceptions (Arnett, 1995). Thus, the researcher provided a brief description of stereotypes presented via the mass media followed by a detailed analysis of the three prominent stereotypes of African-American women including the Mammy, Jezebel and Sapphire. In order to examine the current relationship between African-American women and leadership this section also examined the scant percentage of African-American women occupying executive leadership positions today and the internal barriers encountered that further preserve the absence of African-American women the C-suite.

Researchers have identified the concept of low self-efficacy as one of the main internal barriers related to the underrepresentation of women within leadership positions. The next section described the concept of self-efficacy and its four sources. Based on previous research, this study will examine if exposure to a role model that shares similar qualities of the observer and challenged stereotypes increases the self-of African-American women.

In order to examine the impact that role models presented via mass media messages have on self-efficacy, the researcher designed and administered a cross-sectional survey. In this study, the target population refers to female collegiate students. The researcher conducted an online survey using an online questionnaire tool called Qualtrics. The 33-itemed questionnaire assessed the participant’s future career aspirations, self-efficacy, leader identification and their ability to cope with stress. This research tests whether role model biographies presented via mass media
are an effective strategic approach to combating historical stereotypes that lower the self-efficacy of African-American women.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Leadership

The body of literature on leadership has grown exponentially over the past decade, and scholars have revolutionized the concept across various sectors and disciplines. Leadership as a learned process has been widely studied (Bass & Bass, 2008), and utilized as a business management tool (Masood, Dani, Burns, & Backhouse, 2006). A consensus among scholars suggests there is no agreed upon definition of leadership (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; House & Podsakoff, 1994; Stogdill, 1974; Yukl, 1999). However, Northouse (2012) found that all proposed definitions of leadership employed a combination of three central concepts: influence, the ability to work in a group context and attention to common goals. Despite the myriad of definitions, practitioners and scholars alike posited leadership was an essential requirement of basic communal existence (Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Without it, Pierce and Newstrom (2011) noted that society views the absence of leadership as a calamity.

According to Goleman (2014), a leader is an innovative person with an incisive mind, high-degree of emotional intelligence and proper technical training in their respective fields. In the early twentieth century, the “great man” theory of leadership postulated that leaders were born with an innate set of skills or traits that destined them for leadership roles (Pierce & Newstrom, 2011). Contrary to popular belief, research has suggested that leaders develop over time (Northouse, 2004). Researchers described competent leaders as confident change agents who bear a high-level of self-efficacy (Billing & Alvesson, 2000; Paglis & Green, 2002). Research indicates one’s ability
to inspire a group of people to focus on a mutual vision is the accurate definition of leader not one’s gender, race, socioeconomic class or sexual orientation (U.S. Department of Labor, 1995).

Executive Leadership

Leadership is one of the most researched topics in business management research (Masood et.al, 2006). Corporations are multi-billion dollar global enterprises that directly and indirectly affect the welfare of people and the global economic system. Bass and Bass (2008) described executive leadership as a set of procedures that define an organization’s vision. Effective executive leadership is paramount to the success of a corporation and its ability to compete in the global economy. Executive leadership positions usually include C-suite positions such as: Chief Executive Officer, Chief Financial Officer, Chief Operating Officer, Chief Marketing Officer, Chief Communications Officer and General Counsel (Greenberg, 2013).

The upper echelons theory, developed by organizational management scholars Hambrick and Mason (1984) suggested that a corporation’s effectiveness is a direct reflection of the company’s senior executives. Goleman (2004) suggested that executive leaders demonstrate strength, tenacity, business acumen and emotional intelligence. In a comparative study on executive leadership, Chatterjee and Hambrick (2011) added that business leaders who were confident in their own abilities had high-levels of self-efficacy and often took more risks, resulting in the successful completion of task. This article conceptualizes the high-ranking positions held by individuals who occupy the upper echelons of a corporation’s executive structure as executive leadership.

Impact of Gender and Race on Leadership Roles

Gender. The traditional model of leadership suggested that Caucasian men (Davis & Maldonado, 2015) only possessed leadership characteristics. Historically, researchers noted that Caucasian men hold a majority of the leadership positions within corporate enterprises (Davis &
Maldonado, 2015). As a result, society unconsciously accepted their behavior as the norm to which all employees and leaders aspire to demonstrate (Burton & Parker, 2010; Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia & Vanneman, 2010; Dyrchs & Strack, 2012; Frey & Eitzen, 1991; Eagly & Diekman, 2005; Maier, 1997). Egan (2015) found that Caucasian men occupied 85.8 percent of the top five executive leadership positions at companies within the Standards & Poor’s (S&P) 500. They also hold 475 of the Fortune 500’s CEO positions. Caucasian men have governed the United States since its inception, thus prior to the influx of women entering the workforce in the 1980s; men substantially occupied the entire labor force (Carli & Eagly, 2001; U.S. Department of Labor, 1995; Northouse, 2004).

Before the 1960s Feminist Movement, the traditional societal norms for women included taking care of the home and their family’s well-being while their husbands worked to earn the household’s income (Eccles, Jacobs & Harold, 1990). According to Eagly, (1987) traditional societal norms set a precedent for acceptable or appropriate types of behaviors based upon an individual’s gender. Eagly (1987) explained that women were pigeonholed into communal roles, such as nurturance, and men into agentic roles, such as aggressiveness. It became the societal norm for men to work outside of the home and women to work within the home. As a result, men overwhelmingly dominated the workplace and conventionally constructed the term “leadership” to fit into a masculine frame. Consequently, masculine behaviors are the most appropriate characteristics to describe a successful business leader (Burton & Parker, 2010; Frey & Eitzen, 1991; Eagly & Chin, 2010). Due to the described characteristics embedded within these gender roles, stereotypes regarding both males and females exist (Peffley, Hurwitz & Sniderman, 1997).

Stereotypes are generalized beliefs people use to categorize other individuals (Tan, Zhang, Zhang & Dailsay, 2009). According to Ragin, Townsen and Mattis (1998) gender stereotypes have existed
for decades, initially suggesting that women should “take care” and men should “take charge.” Researchers have noted that gender stereotypes have attributed to both men and women selecting careers based upon societal expectations rather than personal preference (Bolat, Bolat & Kilic, 2011; Carli & Eagly, 2001; Eagly & Chin, 2010).

“Think manager, think male” is a concept that was developed in the 1970s after an empirical investigation was conducted addressing gender role stereotyping within the workplace (Schein, 1973). The study revealed that male and female employees believed that men possessed characteristics associated with a leader. The findings supported Bolat et al.’s (2001) notion that an individual’s beliefs and expectations constituted gender roles in society. Schwartz (1989) added, similar to men, women have internalized gender stereotypes; therefore, many of them have embraced the unspoken belief that they were incapable to lead, which only further preserves male dominance in executive leadership positions. Maier’s (1997) research concluded that male managers used gender stereotypes when considering the promotion of employees. The study revealed that male managers associated leadership with masculinity. Due to this, women rarely occupy leadership positions.

Yukl, Gordon, and Taber (2002) developed a hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behaviors. The researcher’s taxonomy described the behaviors demonstrated by effective executive leaders. Using the hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behaviors, Atwater et al. (2004) examined the perception of 263 business students as it related to leadership and gender characteristics. Results of the study indicated that students, regardless of their gender, associated masculine characteristics with effective leadership (Atwater et al., 2004). Within the context of leadership, Eagly and Karau’s role congruity theory suggested that when women occupied leadership roles in male-dominated domains or possessed leadership styles that were stereotypically masculine, they received negative
evaluations by co-workers and supervisors (2002). Research has demonstrated that gender stereotypes effect how people perceive women, especially those who are corporate leaders or who work in male-dominated domains (Catalyst Inc., 2005; Carli & Eagly, 2007; Rosette & Livingston, 2012). Ryan, Haslam, Hersby and Bongiorno (2011) noted that society deemed as an incapable leader if they conformed to the female stereotype. Conversely, society criticized women if they conformed to the masculine stereotype. Carli and Eagly (2001) postulated that people interpret leadership as a position with special challenges not suited for women. Therefore, favorable stereotypical traits of women, such as nurturance, may not benefit them in the workplace. This also stands true in regards to attaining leadership positions (Reynolds et al., 2008). The gender gap in Corporate America leadership positions is largely due to gender role incongruities, and the stereotypes that society holds for women that fail to shape perceptions of them as effective leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Despite gender stereotypes and societal norms, women have made progress in Corporate America (Catalyst Inc., 2014). Women constitute nearly half of the United States population and the American workforce (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014; Beck & Davis, 2005). Women’s increased population in the workforce over the past two decades is a direct result of a federal government initiative that dedicated resources to addressing workplace inequalities (Jackson & O’Callaghan, 2011). Although women’s workforce representation has increased, they continue to remain underrepresented in executive leadership positions (Beck & Davis, 2005; Catalyst Inc., 2014). Women occupy only 36 percent of middle management positions, 25 percent of senior level positions and, 9.9 percent of line positions and 5 percent of CEO positions (Catalyst Inc., 2015; Matsa & Miller, 2011).
negative racial stereotypes appear to be a unique barrier that some professional African-Americans face in the workplace (Catalyst Inc., 2004). The racial stereotypes established in early American history have had a substantial role in shaping society’s attitude towards African-Americans (Bhatt, Payne, Feldt & Litzenberger, 2013). The stereotypes suggested that African-Americans were second-class citizens and intellectually inferior to Caucasians (Roberson and Kulik, 2009). Scholars have noted that early U.S. propaganda portrayed African-Americans as incompetent, lazy, inferior, and incapable of holding any responsibility (Green, 1999; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008). West (2008) added that society viewed African-Americans as disadvantaged in terms of economic and social statuses, thus, regarding leadership people perceived them as incapable. Today, racial stereotypes may not be as powerful or blatant, but these distorted images still unconsciously exist in society through biases (Bhatt, Payne, Feldt & Litzenberger, 2013; Roberson and Kulik, 2009; West, 2008). Eagly and Chin (2010) concluded that racial biases were detrimental to the career advancement of African Americans.

Over time, African-Americans have increased their visibility in the workforce; however, their access to various managerial positions remains limited and their representation at senior-levels within Corporate America is underwhelming (McElvane, 2015). The 1960s Civil Rights Movement played an integral role in strategically removing overt racial barriers in American society and Corporate America (Hall, 2005). In support of the Civil Rights Movement, the U.S. federal government implemented affirmative action policies to enforce equal opportunity in the workplace (Tomaskovic-Devey et al., 2006). As of 2012, African-Americans occupy 11.6 percent of the U.S. workforce (U.S. Bureau of Labor). Despite the fact that African-Americans are increasingly joining the workforce with educational and professional credentials, research has demonstrated they are not
advancing into executive leadership positions (Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008; McElvane, 2015). As of August 2015, there were only five Fortune 500 companies led by African-American CEOs: American Express, Carnival, Xerox, Merck and Delphi Automotive (Berman, 2015; McElvane, 2015). McElvane (2015) added that African-Americans only occupied 7 percent of executive leadership positions (McElvane, 2015). Research focusing on racial and gender stereotypes creates a basis for understanding the various factors that affect professional women and men of color within the workplace as they attempt to reach the upper echelons of management (Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008).

The Glass Ceiling. The “glass ceiling” refers to the underrepresentation of women and minority men at the upper echelons of corporations (Davis & Maldonado, 2015). The concept describes the invisible yet impenetrable barrier that prevents women and African-American men from attaining executive leadership positions despite their expertise, experience or merit. Not only are these demographics being deprived of opportunities, they are also being mistreated and paid less than their Caucasian counterparts. Cotter et al. (2001) added that the “glass ceiling” is rooted in cultural biases and gender stereotypes. Davies-Netzley (1998) concluded that women and African-American men remain scarce in executive leadership positions because of the discriminatory beliefs and practices of the “good old boys club.” The “good old boys club” refers to an informal network developed by affluent Caucasian men (Rand & Bierema, 2009). Caucasians men designed an organizational infrastructure to preserve a homogenous power structure of supremacy based on race and gender (Rand & Bierema, 2009; Ibarra, 1993; Oakley, 2000). The networks founding purpose was to retain financial control corporations through homogeneous hiring practices (Callahan & Tomaszewski, 2007; Davies-Netzley, 1998). According to the U.S. Department of Labor (1995), the “glass ceiling” persists because the majority Caucasian men fear change, and engage in racial
and gender stereotyping which lead to the erroneous belief that no qualified women or minorities are out there.

Due to stereotypes and societal norms, Caucasian men predominately populate the upper echelons of Corporate America, occupying nearly two-thirds of executive leadership positions (Egan, 2015). Because of this, there is a body of research in existence concerning the scarce number of females in executive leadership roles (Adler, 1999; Catalyst Inc., 2000; Maume, 1999; Nierenberg & Marvin, 2006; Catalyst Inc., 2014; Powell & Butterfield, 1994). However, research focusing on the racial discrepancies in leadership is lacking. Only a few studies have examined how race influences executive leadership in dominant culture organizations (Parker & Ogilvie, 1996; Hooks, 1984, Parker, 2005). The present study will examine the intersection of race and gender in occupying executive leadership positions for a particular demographic subset of African-American women.

**Defining Stereotypes and the African-American Woman**

*Stereotypical Images of African American Women in Mass Media*

The mass media serves as a powerful socializing agent, providing role models that influence an individual’s behavior and attitude (Arnett, 1995; Berry, 2000; Hansen & Hansen, 1988; Holt, 2013; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008). For decades, African-American women have attempted to combat historical stereotypes exacerbated via the mass media. (Bhatt, Payne, Feldt & Litzenberger, 2013). Mass media’s images are of relevance because researchers indicated that the lack of tangible female role models prompted women to seek role models and draw inspiration from a variety of domains including the mass media (Hackett & Betz, 1981; Simon & Hoyt, 2013; Singh et al., 2003).
Dalisy and Tan (2009) noted that since the slavery era, television programming, advertisements and the news have negatively portrayed African-American women. According to Cheung (2015), negative imagery of African-American women appears twice as often as positive portrayals. Stereotypes of African-American women portrayed in the media distort the ways that African-American women perceive their capabilities (Hudson, 1998). Current research validates the notion that stereotypes affect self-perceptions as well as the perceptions of others (Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010; West, 2008). Berry (1998) suggested that the exposure to the negative images created false perceptions thus affected how others treated African-American women in regards to obtaining leadership positions. Although the stereotypes may not influence all African-American women, many suffer from the implications of the negative images (Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008). As many stereotypes emerge from the mass media and act powerful sources of information for society, it is imperative to examine how mass media portrays African American women and how stereotypical images affects their career advancement and self-efficacy (Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008; Hackett & Betz, 1981). There are three prominent stereotypes perpetuated via the mass media: the Mammy, Jezebel and Sapphire (McKoy, 2012).

**Mammy.** One of the most prominent images of African-American women that emerged from the slavery era was the Mammy (Bell & Nkomo, 2013). Often described as a supportive docile servant, the mass media portrayed the Mammy as nurturing caretakers who remained loyal to their slave masters despite constant mistreatment (Bell & Nkomo, 2013; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008; West 2012). McKoy (2012) suggested that the Mammy image falsely portrayed African-Americans as ignorant second-class citizens. The mass media began using the Mammy stereotype as widespread image in the 1900s, from the historic Aunt Jemima advertisements to the modern-day Mammy depictions found in films and television series (McKoy, 2012). McKoy
(2012) concluded that mass media presented three prevalent characteristics associated with the Mammy stereotype: (1) dimwitted, (2) nurturing and (3) content. In regards to the workplace and leadership positions, the career advancement of African-Americans is limited due to the Mammy stereotype (Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008). The nurturing qualities that are associated with the Mammy stereotype are incongruent with masculine leadership characteristics, thus African-American occupy support-type positions similar to domestic roles such as housekeeping (Eagly, 1987; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008). Bell and Nkomo (2013) noted that despite competence, the dimwitted characteristic overshadow leadership capabilities thus hindering potential career advancement. Researchers suggested that characteristics of the Mammy stereotype, such as contentment, offer the notion that these women have no desire to advance into senior ranking positions (Bell & Nkomo, 2001; Bell & Nkomo, 2013; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008).

_Jezebel._ The Jezebel is the second stereotypical image of African-American women that arose from slavery (Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008). Caucasian men fostered this image during the slavery era to justify their sexual urges and acts of sexual immortality. Slave owners would use African-American women as scapegoats by insisting these “animalistic” women seduced them (McKoy, 2012 & West, 1995). Researchers describe Jezebels as hyper-sexualized African-American women who lack credibility, demonstrate aggression and egotistical (McKoy, 2012; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008; West, 1995). The mass media introduced the Jezebel in the 1970s through African-American exploitation, known as Blaxploitation, films that featured buxom actresses such as Pamela Greer in her sultry role as Foxy Brown (McKoy, 2012 & Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008). Researchers noted that the mass media displayed Jezebels as fair-skinned, curvaceous and seductive women who slept their way to the top (Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008;
McKoy, 2012). Today, the modern Jezebel is found in advertisements and television series with African-American female leads, such as Olivia Pope in “Scandal”, Mary Jane Paul in “Being Mary Jane” and Annalise Keating in “How to Get Away with Murder” (Ramsey, 2014; Veal, 2015). Each of the characters are portrayed as successful African-American women that have engaged in extramarital affairs, are labeled as sexually promiscuous by their colleagues and are seen as sexual objects by Caucasian men (Ramsey, 2014; Veal, 2015). Due to the Jezebel stereotype, people believe that African-American women use their sexuality as a means to climb up the corporate ladder (Bell & Nkomo, 2001; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008). Resultantly, people perceive African-American women as unqualified executive leaders (Bell & Nkomo, 2001). Unlike the Mammy, Jezebels reach middle management positions, but due to the sexualized stigma of the stereotype, they rarely reach the upper echelons because their credibility and skills are in always question (Bell & Nkomo, 2001; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008).

Sapphire. The third historical stereotypical image is the Sapphire (McKoy, 2012). Scholars describe the Sapphire as an African American woman who is confrontational, emasculating and angry (West, 1995). Introduced via the mass media in the 1950s, actress, Ernestine Ward propagated the stereotypical image as hostile woman that challenged authority (Millner, Burt-Murray & Miller, 2004; Jones, 2004; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008). The Sapphire evolved into the modern “angry black woman,” and to date, is the most widespread stereotype of African-American women portrayed in mass media (Cheung, 2015; Kelley, 2014; Jones, 2004). Reality television series such as “The Real Housewives of Atlanta” and “Empire” feature the Sapphire stereotype (McKoy, 2012; Cheung, 2015; Pallotta & Stelter, 2015). Bell and Nkomo’s (2001) findings suggested that people view Sapphires as women who have an unmanageable attitude; consequently, people rarely want to work with them or for them. Like the Mammy and
Jezebel, the stereotypical traits overshadow their talents and skill sets thus preventing them from occupying leadership roles (Reynolds-Dobbs et al. 2008).

**Intersectionality: The Stereotypes of African-American Women**

The stereotypical images of African-American women presented in the media derived from historically constructed conditions that are formed by structural inequalities such as racism and sexism (West, 2012). Comparative studies concluded that African-American women experience contextual barriers such as racism and sexism within the workplace and society (Hughes & Dodge, 1997; Catalyst Inc., 2004; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010). Catalyst Inc. (2005) suggested that stereotypes in the workplace are especially problematic for racially diverse women because of the notion of intersectionality. Intersectionality is the manner in which multiple facets of an individual’s identity combine in different ways to construct a social reality (Sanchez-Hucles and Davis, 2010). Crenshaw (1989) developed the term intersectionality and suggested that race and gender intersect to shape the multiple dimensions of African-American women and their experiences within the workplace.

According to Stanley (2009) negative stereotypes regarding gender differences combined with race contribute to the dearth of African-American women that occupy executive leadership positions. According to Lloyd-Jones (2009), because of dual discrimination in the workplace, African-American women have little access to leadership position. The scholar added, due to racial and gender stereotypes African-Americans question their ability to lead and have a lower sense of self-efficacy (Lloyd-Jones, 2009).

Several studies have revealed that African-American women are dually penalized and discriminated against because they occupy two discriminatory roles, being a female and African-American, they (Beale, 1970; Epstein, 1973; Reid & Comas-Diaz, 1990; Sanchez-Hucles &
Davis, 2010; Settles, 2006). Rosette and Livingston (2012) asserted that people perceive African-American women as the least typical form of a corporate leader because neither their race nor their gender aligns with the prototypical leader expectations of being a Caucasian male. A comparative study by Sanchez-Hucles and Davis (2010) found that society deemed people with dual subordinate-group identities as non-prototypical leaders that do not have the capability to exert influence or become leaders. Other studies have considered the relationship between gender, race and leadership as a “double jeopardy.” Beale (1970) first carried out the study of double jeopardy; the scholar concluded that African American women are worse off in Corporate America than Caucasian women were because they were subject to both racism and sexism.

A study conducted by Catalyst Inc. (2004) revealed that 56 percent of African-American women in the workplace reported that they consistently encountered gender and racial stereotypes. Eagly and Carli (2007) noted that leadership obstacles were more complex and difficult for African-American women as opposed to Caucasian women and men. Compared to African-American men, African-American women received fewer rewards for their credentials in terms of job authority and earning potential (Hughes & Dodge, 1997).

The extensive barriers that limit African-American women’s career progression are due to the unique set of gender and racial stereotypes (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Koch, Liberman, Merriweather & Roberson, 2011; Stanley, 2009). African-American women described the dense barrier that limits their career advancement as the “concrete ceiling.” (Eagly & Chin 2010; Cain, 2015; Galloway, 2012) The “concrete ceiling” occurs when dual discrimination regarding gender and race increases in severity as African American women advance in the organizational hierarchy (Catalyst Inc., 2015; Jackson & O’Callaghan, 2011).
African-American Women and Leadership

The convoluted position of African-American women in business is an emerging body of research (Hook, 1984; Parker & Ogilvie, 1996; Davis & Maldonado, 2015). Researchers posited that African-American women are collectively at the bottom of the occupational ladder, and the group’s overall social status is lower than that of any other group (Hook, 1984). The “concrete ceiling” phenomenon is supported by the paucity of African-American women in corporate leadership positions (Sanchez-Hucles & Davis 2010). Dissimilar to the “glass ceiling,” the “concrete ceiling” presents more challenges for African-American women to overcome as they aspire to reach the upper echelons of a corporation (Catalyst Inc., 2015; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008).

Rosette and Livingston (2012) noted that while U.S. corporations have made impressive strides in diversifying the workforce, African-American women remain inadequately represented in the upper ranks of organizational hierarchies. In fact, it is noted that African-American women are the most underrepresented demographic in Fortune 500 executive leadership positions (Freeman, 2012 & Stodghill, 2012). In the United States, African-American women comprise 6.5 percent of the population (United States Census Bureau, 2015), and 60 percent of that population participate in the American workforce (Warner, 2014). However, within the Fortune 500, African-American women lead only one corporation, Xerox (Catalyst Inc., 2010). Additionally, a 2002 Catalyst Inc. report examined the representation of African-American women in Corporate America; the report revealed that African-American women (Catalyst Inc., 2002; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008) occupy only 1.1 percent of Fortune 500 executive leadership positions. Not only are African-American women underrepresented in the C-suite, they also receive lower pay than men and Caucasian women (Sanchez-Hucles and Davis, 2010).
Bolat et al., (2011) explained that when it comes to leadership, African-American women faced greater adversities than single-subordinate groups, such as white women or African-American men. In a study conducted by Catalyst (2004), 32 percent of African-American women reported that their white colleagues perceived them as being unqualified. Research has tended to focus on stereotyping and lack of role models as significant contextual barriers that influence African-American women’s level of self-efficacy and career aspirations (Bhatt, Payne, Feldt & Litzenberger, 2013; Catalyst Inc., 2015; Eagly & Carl, 2007; Rosette & Livingston, 2012; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010; West, 2008).

Prior research suggests that the paucity of African-American women occupying executive leadership positions and serving as role models for younger African-American women has a deleterious impact on their career aspirations and further serves as a barrier to career growth (Hackett & Byars, 1996; Reynolds-Dobbs et al., 2008; Sealy & Singh, 2009). Sealy and Singh’s (2009) findings indicate that the observation of role models similar to oneself is a crucial step in an individuals’ professional development. The first research question, then, focused on the career aspiration of African-American women compared to women of other races:

**RQ1**: Do African-American women have lower levels of career aspiration than women of other races?

**Self-Efficacy Theory**

Self-efficacy is an individual’s belief in his or her ability to accomplish a task within a specific context (Bandura, 1977). The basic premise of self-efficacy theory, a construct of the social-cognitive theory, is that if an individual believes he or she is capable to succeed a task within a specific context, then they are more likely to succeed (Bandura, 1977). Bandura and Locke (2003) determined that self-efficacy is a strong determinant in workplace performance
and career advancement. Hackett and Betz (1981) explained that normally an individual only attempted a task they believed they could master and would not attempt a task they believed they could not master. In regards to the workplace, Bandura (1997) suggested that an employee’s sense of capability influences his or her performance and motivation. Thus, the self-efficacy construct is essential in furthering the understanding of the career behavior of African-American women (Hackett & Byars, 1998).

Self-efficacy affects workplace performance in various ways (Bandura, 1982). Lunenburg (2011) noted that self-efficacy influences the goals employees choose. According to Bandura (1994), individuals with a strong sense of efficacy believed that they could accomplish challenging tasks. On the contrary, individuals who doubt their ability to accomplish difficult tasks see these tasks as threats and avoid challenges (Bandura, 1994). Research has suggested that individuals perform at levels consistent with their self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1994; Lunenburg, 2011; Hackett & Byars, 1998).

Self-efficacy also influences how hard an individual works to attain a certain goal (Bandura, 1982 & Lunenburg, 2011). Bolat et al. (2011) further explained that African-American women with high levels of self-efficacy exert more effort to remove workplace barriers as they climb up the corporate ladder. Additionally, self-efficacy influences the persistence with which individuals attempt new or challenging tasks (Lunenburg, 2011). With strong self-efficacy, individuals take on challenges (Bandura, 1997). Under the limiting circumstances of the “concrete ceiling,” research indicates that efficacious individuals increase and sustain their efforts in order to attain their desired goal (Bandura, 1997). Thus, it is important to examine the effect that mass media images have on African-American women’s level of self-efficacy as it relates to career advancement.
The second research question, then, focused on the perceived self-efficacy of African-American women compared to women of other races:

**RQ2:** Do African-American women have lower levels of self-efficacy then women of other races?

*Sources of Self-Efficacy.* The self-efficacy theory presents the notion that four main sources influence an individual’s level of efficacy: (1) somatic and emotional state, (2) mastery experience, (3) vicarious experience and (4) verbal persuasion (Bandura, 1994, 1997; Pajares, 1997).

*Mastery Experience.* According to Bandura (1994), mastery experiences are the most effective ways to improve self-efficacy. Individuals are more likely to believe in their capabilities if they have already mastered a challenging task (Bandura, 1994). Accomplishments build a strong belief in one's personal efficacy (Pajares, 1997). According to Bandura (1994), to develop a strong sense of self-efficacy, individuals must attempt challenging tasks, and they must work through obstacles to develop a sense of resilience. As it relates to the current study, research has indicated that African-American women rarely receive the opportunity to complete challenging tasks due to the stereotypes that insinuate they are incompetent, lazy and lack credibility. (Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010; Bolat et al., 2011).

*Vicarious Experience.* Bandura (1997) explained vicarious experience as an individual’s observations of the successes and failures of a social model (Bandura, 1997). Witnessing role models succeed influences the observers' beliefs that they too possess the capabilities to master an equivalent task (Hackett & Betz, 1981). Individuals exposed to social model that share similar characteristics experience a more effective vicarious experience (Bandura, 1994). Role models provide a social standard through behavior and expressed ways of thinking (Conger & Keane,
Competent role models convey knowledge and teach observers effective skills and strategies for managing environmental demands (Conger & Keane, 1981). The more an individual can identify with the role model they are observing, the greater the influence that model has on the observer’s belief in their capabilities (Hackett & Betz, 1981).

Bandura (1986) suggested that one of the influential antecedents to the career development of individuals is vicarious experience or learning through modeling. Scholars have described the mass media as a source of social learning that essentially models the expected behavior of African-American women (Adams-Bass, Bentley Edwards, and Stevenson, 2014). Bhatt et al. (2013) noted there are few representations of positive African-American women serving as corporate leaders via the mass media, which further explains the paucity of African-Americans at the upper echelons of corporations. Eden (1992) added that the stereotypical media portrayals of African American women affected their self-perception, beliefs and behaviors. Exposure to stereotypical images of African-American women can damage an African-American woman’s self-efficacy and belief in her own leadership potential (Bhatt et al., 2013). There remains a serious lack of competent women of color to serve as models from which other women can learn and formulate realistic occupational goals (Hackett & Byars, 1996). Thus, it is important to understand the role that vicarious experience via mass media images play on African American women’s self-efficacy in relation to career advancement.

Verbal Persuasion. If individuals are verbally encouraged to master a task, then that individual is more likely to believe in his or her ability to master the specific task (Bandura, 1997). Individuals engage in verbal persuasion via messages, encouragement or discouragement (Lunenburg, 2011). Individuals galvanize greater effort in spite of self-doubts because of the influence of verbal persuasion (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Like vicarious experience, Bandura
(1997) noted that verbal persuasion increased an individual’s perceived self-efficacy and led individuals to try harder to succeed. The expertness and similarities of the individual providing the verbal persuasion influences the source’s ability to increase an individual’s self-efficacy (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). As it relates to the current study, it is important to examine the role that the context of mass media messages plays on women, particularly African-American women, in relation to career advancement.

Based on the vicarious experience and verbal persuasion constructs of self-efficacy one would suggest that the race and gender of a potential role model featured in verbal persuasion in form of a feature story could influence the vicarious experience that an African-American exhibits after reading an article. Thus, the following research questions seek to develop an understanding of the variables that influence how African-American women identify with potential role models highlighted in a feature story article.

**RQ3:** For African-American women, does the race of a potential role model featured in an article have an impact on their identification with that role model as a future leader in their field?

**RQ4:** For African-American women, does the gender of a potential role model featured in an article have an impact on their identification with that role model as a future leader in their field?

**RQ5:** Does an African-American woman’s level of career aspiration have an effect on their identification with a potential role model presented in an article as a future leader in their field?
**RQ6:** Does an African-American woman’s initial level of self-efficacy have an effect on their identification with a potential role model presented in an article as a future leader in their field?

_Somatic and Emotional States._ According to Bandura (1977), stressful situations create emotional arousal, which in turn affects a person’s perceived self-efficacy in coping with a task. Individuals that experience stress or feel threatened may avoid challenging tasks because of a lack of motivation. As it relates to the current study, intersectionality, stereotypes, and lack of role models can affect African Americans’ emotional states (Hackett & Byars, 1996; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010). Thus, one could suggest that an African-American woman’s ability to cope with stress could influence how she identifies with potential role models.

The seventh research question, then, focused on African-American women’s ability to cope with stress as it relates to their identification with potential role models:

**RQ7:** Does an African-American woman’s ability to cope with stress have an effect on their identification with a potential role model presented in an article as a future leader in their field?
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Participants

After attaining approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB), data was collected from 382 female respondents at a large, public, Southeastern university. The sample was predominately African-American (195 respondents, 51%), with a large proportion being Caucasian (166 respondents, 43.5%) Respondents had a mean age of 20.7 years (SD = 2.72 years).

Research Design and Manipulations

In order to examine the impact of mass media messages on a student’s leadership identification and self-efficacy, the researcher designed a cross-sectional study. Self-efficacy refers to individual’s belief in his or her ability to accomplish a task within a specific context (Bandura, 1977). According to Schwarzer and Hallum (2008), self-efficacy can enhance the motivation of human beings. The investigator manipulated feature profiles of Fortune 500 CEOs using online content resembling postings from Forbes Media. According to researchers, college-aged news consumers receive their news from online news sources rather than traditional news sources at a greater rate compared to others (Brown, 2014; Coleman & McCombs, 2007; Diddi & LaRose, 2006). As it relates to this study, the consumption of online news among college-aged students adds validity to the use of the sample (Brown, 2014). Researchers have noted that the mass media disseminates messages to produce awareness or encourage behavior change among an intended population through various communication channels (Adams & Stevenson...
The various communication channels include radio, television, magazines, social media, websites and newspapers (Lazarfeld & Merton, 2007). The researcher chose Forbes Media because the corporation’s website, Forbes.com, is a leading business media outlet and draws a monthly audience of more than 27 million unique visitors (Forbes Media, 2015). Forbes Media is referred to as the home page for business leaders (Forbes Media, 2015).

**Manipulations.** The mass media messages manipulated were Forbes Media Fortune 500 CEO profiles. The profiles were manipulated by the gender, race, and company of the Fortune 500 CEOs. Four standardized pictures of Fortune 500 CEOs were culled off of Forbes Media including two African-Americans, male and female (e.g., Ursula Burns, President and CEO of Xerox and Kenneth I. Chenault, CEO and Chairman of American Express) and two Caucasians, male and female (e.g., Mary Barra, CEO of General Motors, and Doug McMillon, CEO of Walmart Stores). Each of the four Fortune 500 CEOs had identical inspirational feature profiles based off the Forbes Media online database titled “World’s Most Powerful People,” (Forbes Media, 2015). The article’s content and company name were manipulated as a statement embedded in a feature article created by the researcher. The study’s manipulations can be found in Appendix A.

**Measures**

A 33-item questionnaire was developed and administered. The questionnaire consisted of five major sections that measured (1) future career aspirations, (2) somatic and emotional states as it relates to self-efficacy (3) general self-efficacy, (4) vicarious experience and verbal persuasion (i.e. leadership identification), and (5) demographics.
Career Aspiration Scale. The Career Aspiration Scale (CAS) assesses a woman’s career aspirations and levels of desired achievement (O’Brien, 2007). Specifically, the scale assesses the value a woman attributes to having a career and the degree to which an individual aspires to attain a leadership position within a chosen field (O’Brien, 2007; Rainey & Broaders, 1997). The participant’s level of career aspiration was measured on a 10-item scale with a Cronbach alpha of .0737. Each item was rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale, participant responses ranged from (not at all true of me) 0 to (very true of me) 4; for example, “I hope to become a leader in my career field,” (O’Brien, Tourajdi, & Eigenbrode, 1996). A score was created for the CAS portion of the survey by calculating the mean score of the instrument’s ten items. Higher scores indicate higher levels of career aspirations.

Coping with Stress Self-Efficacy Scale (CSSES). Using a measure from Garcia-Fernandez et al. (2006), the respondents somatic and emotional states were assessed based upon responses to how confident the respondent is in preventing or managing their actions, thoughts or emotional reactions to problems in their daily lives (Garcia-Fernandez et al., 2006). This instrument consists of eight items, four of which assess efficacy expectations (EE) component, and the remaining four assess the outcome expectancy (OE) component (Godoy-Izquierdo, Sola, & García, 2011). For the purpose of the current study, researchers used the 4-item Efficacy Expectations (EE) Subscale with a Cronbach alpha of .654. Each item was rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale, participant’s responses range from (completely disagree) 1 to (strongly agree) 5; for example, “In order to solve a problem, I use whatever resources are available to me,” (Garcia-Fernandez et al., 2006). A score was created for the CSSES portion of the survey by calculating the mean score of the instrument’s four items. Higher scores indicated that it was
easier for respondents to prevent or manage their actions, thoughts or emotional reactions to problems.

**General Self-Efficacy Scale.** The instrument assesses an individual’s self-efficacy to handle new and difficult tasks (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). The participant’s self-efficacy was measured on a 10-item scale with a Cronbach alpha of .083. Each item was rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale, participant responses range from *(strongly disagree)* 1 to *(strongly agree)* 4; for example, “I can always handle whatever comes my way,” (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). A score was created for the *GSE* portion of the survey by calculating the mean score of the instrument’s ten items. Higher scores on this measure indicated higher levels of perceived self-efficacy (Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008).

**Leader Identification Questionnaire.** The Leader Identification Questionnaire (LIQ) is modified from Dasgupta and Asgari (2004), participants indicated how inspired they were by the models presented in the Forbes Media Fortune 500 CEO profile. The participant’s level of identification was measured on a 5-item scale with a Cronbach alpha of .749. Each item is rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale; participant responses range from *(not at all)* 1 to *(very much)* 7. In general, the questionnaire measured how much the respondents identified with the potential role model they read about (Gilbert-Cote, 2006; Stout, Dasgupta, Husinger & McManus, 2010). A score was created for the *LIQ* portion of the survey by calculating the mean score of the instrument’s five items. Higher scores indicated that the respondent saw the individual featured in the article as someone they aspired to be like.

**Procedure**

The researcher recruited participants for the study from a large Southeastern university. Each respondent identified as female and prompted to visit a distinct web address that directed
the participant to one of four randomly assigned online articles and questionnaires. First, the participants reviewed the informed consent statement, and after reading the statement, if the participant chose to proceed she completed the following questionnaires: (1) Career Aspirations Scale; (2) Coping with Stress Self-Efficacy Scale; (3) General Self-Efficacy Scale; and (4) Leader Identification Questionnaire. The participants viewed one of the four standardized Forbes Media Fortune 500 CEO profile after they completed the CAS, CSSES, and GSE. The researcher equally distributed each of the standardized profile among the respondents. After the respondents read the assigned article, they answered several manipulation checks and complete the questionnaire. Finally, the respondents reviewed the debriefing statement, which explained the purpose of the study.

Protection of Information

The researcher obtained a Waiver of Written Documentation from the University of Alabama Institutional Review Board for all eligible study participants, as no personal identifiers (name, birth date, social security number, mailing address, etc.) other than the specified demographic information on the survey were required to complete the survey. All participants received documentation on the purpose of the study and their rights as research participants prior to the administration of the survey. Participants used Qualtrics to complete the survey. The researcher converted all Qualtrics data into an SPSS file for data analysis. The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved the survey and research methodology for the protection of human subjects in this study. To review the approved IRB proposal refer to Appendix C.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Description of Analyses

The researcher conducted an independent samples $t$-test to examine the first four research questions. To examine research question four, the researcher computed a one-way factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). A multiple regression analysis examined each of the final three research questions. An alpha level of 0.05 was set $a$ priori and used to determine statistical significance. The researcher conducted data analyses using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 23.0.

African-American Women and Leadership

**RQ1:** Do African-American women have lower levels of career aspiration than women other races?

An independent-samples $t$-test was conducted to determine if a difference existed in the level of career aspirations in African-American women and women of other races. The results yielded a significant difference in the level of career aspiration for African-American women ($M = 3.90$, $SD = 0.60$) and women of other races ($M = 4.04$, $SD = 0.50$), based on a 5-point Likert scale ($t(371.91) = -2.49$, $p = .013$). The results suggest that African-American women have lower levels of career aspirations than women of other races.

African-American Women and Self-Efficacy

**RQ2:** Do African-American women have lower levels of self-efficacy than women of other races?
An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to determine if a difference existed in the perceived self-efficacy of African-American women and women of other races. The results indicated that there was a significant difference in the perceived self-efficacy of African-American women (*M* = 3.23, *SD* = 0.34) and women of other races (*M* = 3.34, *SD* = 0.38), based on a 5-point Likert scale (*t* (380) = -3.10, *p* = .002). The results suggest that African-American women have lower levels of self-efficacy than women of other races.

**African-American Women and Leadership Identification**

**RQ3:** For African-American women, does the race of a potential role model featured in an article have an impact on their identification with that role model as a future leader in their field?

An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to determine if the race of a potential role model made a difference in African-American women’s level of leadership identification. The results yielded that there was a significant difference in the level of leadership identification for African-American women when the potential role model is African-American (*M* = 4.54, *SD* = 0.42) and when the potential role model was Caucasian (*M* = 3.44, *SD* = 0.83), based on a 7-point Likert scale [*t* (149.70) = 11.80, *p* = .000]. The results suggest that the race of the potential role model had an impact on African-American women’s level of identification, specifically African-American women had higher levels of identification with African-American role models compared to Caucasian role models.

**RQ4:** For African-American women, does the gender of a potential role model featured in an article have an impact on their identification with that role model as a future leader in their field?

An independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to determine if the gender of a potential role model made a difference in African-American women’s level of leadership identification.
There was a significant difference observed in the level of leadership identification for African-American women when the potential role model is a female ($M = 4.22$, $SD = 0.67$) and when the potential role model was a male ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 0.95$), based on a 7-point Likert scale ($t(179.70) = -4.02$, $p = .000$). The results suggest that the gender of a potential role model did have an impact on African-American women’s level of leadership identification; specifically, African-American women had higher levels of identification with female role models compared to male role models.

To further examine the research question, a one-way factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was computed to determine if there are any differences in the African-American respondents ($N = 195$) level of identification with the featured potential role models based upon the race and gender of the role models featured in each of the four standardized manipulations. There was a statistically significant difference between the four manipulations as determined by a one-way ANOVA [$F(3,191) = 63.94$, $p = .000$]. The mean scores suggest that respondents the most identified with the African-American female ($M = 4.64$, $SD = 0.41$) followed by the African-American male ($M = 4.60$, $SD = 0.41$), Caucasian female ($M = 3.82$, $SD = 0.62$) and Caucasian male ($M = 3.11$, $SD = 0.90$). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated a statistically significant difference between the African-American female and both, the Caucasian male ($p = .000$) and Caucasian female ($p = .000$). However, the African-American female did not significantly differ from the African-American male ($p = .873$). The test also indicated that the mean score for the African-American male was significantly different than the Caucasian male ($p = .000$) and Caucasian female ($p = .000$). Additionally, the test indicated that the mean score for the Caucasian female was significantly different than the Caucasian male ($p = .000$). Taken together, these results suggest that race and gender have an effect on the
respondent’s level of identification with the potential role model. Specifically, the results suggest that race had a greater impact than gender but gender still affected the respondent’s level of identification.

**RQ₅:** Does an African-American woman’s level of career aspiration have an effect on their identification with a potential role model presented in an article as a future leader in their field?

**RQ₆:** Does an African-American woman’s initial level of self-efficacy have an effect on their identification with a potential role model presented in an article as a future leader in their field?

**RQ₇:** Does an African-American woman’s ability to cope with stress have an effect on their identification with a potential role model presented in an article as a future leader in their field?

A multiple linear regression was employed to investigate if the respondent’s level of career aspiration, self-efficacy and ability to cope with stress effects their level of identification with a potential role model presented in the article. The multiple regression model with all three predictors produced \( F (3, 191) = 4.747, p = .007 \) and the predictors accounted for 6.9\% (\( R^2 = .069 \)) of the explained variability in level of identification. The results indicated that the respondents level of career aspiration \( (p = .007, \beta = .192, t = 2.72) \) and ability to cope with stress \( (p = .010, \beta = .210, t = 2.618) \) statistically significantly affected their level of identification with a potential role model. However, the findings revealed that self-efficacy \( (p = .250, \beta = -.091, t = -1.136) \) was statistically non-significant. The regression equation was: level of identification = 2.853 + .272(career aspiration level) + 2.35(ability to cope with stress). Self-efficacy did not contribute to the multiple regression model.
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION
The findings of the current study have a number of implications for theoretical and practical discussions. The purpose of the current study was to expose female collegiate students to a potential role model and examine the influence of those role models on the self-efficacy of the participants by measuring their career aspirations, perceived self-efficacy, leader identification, and their ability to cope with stress. The researcher found that African-American women have significantly lower levels of self-efficacy and career aspirations than women of other races and ethnic backgrounds do. Additionally, the findings indicated that the potential role model’s race and gender significantly affected African-American women’s level of identification. Specifically, the results indicated that race had a greater impact than gender. Furthermore, the current study reveals that African-American women’s level of career aspiration and ability to cope with stress significantly affected their level of identification with a potential role model. However, the findings revealed that self-efficacy was statistically non-significant. In essence, the current study revealed that increasing African-American women’s exposure to positive African-American role models that have overcome barriers benefits their self-efficacy and career aspirations. This study supports and contributes to previous literature by stressing the importance of role models and the influence they have on the construction of African-American’s career identity (Bandura, 1977, Gibson, 2003; Ibarra 1999; Sealy & Singh, 2009).

Self-Efficacy and Career Aspirations. The findings of research questions one and two indicated that African-American women have significantly lower levels of self-efficacy and career aspirations than women of other races and ethnic backgrounds do. In theoretical terms, our findings support and add to Hughes and Demo’s (1989) findings that African-Americans have
lower levels of self-efficacy due to contextual barriers such as stereotypes and discrimination. Shin, Levy and London (2016) asserted that prevailing stereotypes undermine students’ levels of career aspirations. Earlier studies also support the findings noting that African-Americans tend to score lower than Caucasians regarding perceived self-efficacy, which in turn could be a product of social inequality (Gordon 1969; Hunt & Hunt 1977). Since the slavery era, African-Americans have experienced or observed racism and discrimination, which serves as a negative source of self-efficacy, and as a result, report lower levels of self-efficacy (Hackett and Betz, 1981; Hughes & Demo, 1989; DuBois, 1986; Lent & Hackett, 1987). According to Franks and Marolla (1976), discrimination has a significant influence on the self-efficacy of African-Americans because, as a social group, they rarely experience opportunities that increase their levels of self-efficacy. Moreover, the current study’s findings also support Betz and Hackett (1981) results, which argued that women had lower levels of self-efficacy within male-dominated positions such as executive leadership.

The current results suggest that intersectionality and the historical stereotypes presented via mass media significantly affect the self-efficacy and career aspirations of African-American women. This study has taken a step in the direction of justifying the exclusion of these stereotypical images within the mass media. The stereotypical images of the Mammy, Jezebel and Sapphire need replacing. Counter stereotypical images can replace the images in an effort to increase the self-efficacy of African-American women. There is a need to improve the self-efficacy and career aspirations of African-American women in order to reduce the gap in corporate leadership.

Effects of Role Models Race and Gender. The results of research questions three and four yielded that the participant’s race and gender significantly affects their level of identification
with potential role models. Specifically, the results indicated that race had a greater impact than
gender. Moreover, the findings revealed the significant influence that same-sex and same-race
role models have on the level of identification and self-efficacy of African-American women.

In regards to the African-American female participants, the current study found that they
most keenly identified with a counter stereotypical African-American female role model. In fact,
after reading about the role model’s success in spite of adversity, the participants then believed
that they too could succeed and one day become a leader within their respective field. The
findings suggest that exposure to feature stories of role models with similar physical
characteristics could increase the self-efficacy of African-American women via the source of
vicarious experience. This is consistent with previous studies regarding exposure to role models,
scholars indicated that role models are vital and they possess the ability to influence self-efficacy
beliefs (Shin, Levy & London, 2016; DeSantis & Quimby, 2004; Karunanayake & Nauta, 2004). The current findings support and add to Karunanayake and Nauta (2004) research, which
suggested that role models who are similar in regards to gender, socioeconomic class and race,
may have larger influence on a student’s career aspirations and development. The current study’s
findings also support previous research, which asserted that roles models are especially inspiring
when they are the minority within their field (King & Multon, 1996; Sealy & Singh, 2010). As
this study and prior research suggest (Harris, 1996; King & Multon, 1996), African-Americans
admire, identify and imitate the African-American personas they are exposed to via the mass
media. In theoretical terms, the current findings support and add to Bandura’s (1977) notion of
vicarious experience indicating that an individual’s self-efficacy can be influenced via exposure
to a role model similar to them demonstrating a specific task regardless of proximity (e.g. mass
media). This is consist with previous literature indicating that actual experiences and vicarious
learning produce self-efficacy expectations and exposure to positive same-sex and race role models plays a significant role in the process (Hackett & Betz, 1981; Lockwood, 2006; Sealy & Singh, 2009). African-American women are regularly exposed to negative stereotypes in the media (e.g. Empire, Scandal and Real Housewives of Atlanta), and past research has suggested that contextual barriers such as stereotypes undermine an individual’s perceived self-efficacy (Betz & Hackett, 1981). The current findings suggest that exposure to counter stereotypical images of African-American role models immediate concern to address. Due to the lack of actual role models, the mass media can provide these positive role models. This study has taken a step in the direction of justifying the need for more positive African-American role models in the mass media, specifically because the current study’s results indicated that the race of role model had a bigger impact on African-Americans self-efficacy then gender did.

Overcoming Barriers. The findings of the regression analysis indicated that an African-American woman’s ability to cope with stress significantly affects their level of identification with potential role models. These findings suggest that African-American women need to be exposed to role models that have overcome similar contextual barriers and adversities. The current findings support and add to Lockwood’s (2006) research suggesting that women need a role model that represents ‘possibility.’ Previous research indicated that women will inevitably experience adversity within Corporate America, thus, it is imperative that women are exposed to role models similar to themselves that have prospered in spite of various contextual barriers (Lockwood, 2006; Ragins, Townsend, & Mattis, 1998).

A lack of positive African-American female role models that challenge negative stereotypes leads to a continuous circle that further perpetuates the concrete ceiling. If African-American women remain absent within executive leadership positions, they fail to both combat
negative stereotypes and serve as role models for African-American women to follow. The current study demonstrates that exposing African-American women to potential African-American or female role models increases their self-efficacy and enables them to overcome contextual barriers.
Although the research has reached its aim, there were several inevitable limitations. First, the cross-sectional nature of the current study prevents a longitudinal perspective that could detect any changes in a participant’s level of self-efficacy and career aspiration over a period of time. Second, the population of the sample was limited due to time constraints and proximity. All of the participants for the study were students at a large Southeastern university; thus, we may not know whether the findings will generalize to other individuals from various regions. To expand the results, future studies should involve participants from various universities. Third, due to the nature of the study all of the participants within the study were female. Expanding the study to males would also provide a unique perspective.

**Conclusion and Future Implications**

Previous literature suggests that African-American female role models are not readily available for younger African-American women to serve as a guide or example that they can follow. The current findings indicate that if African-American women are exposed to same-race career role models then their level of identification increases thus their self-efficacy and career aspirations increase. In practical terms, the results of the current study suggest that one way to offset contextual barriers and low-levels of self-efficacy is to expose African-American women to counter stereotypic role models that they share similar characteristics with. Additionally, our results indicate that these role models can influence others not through real time experiences but also through mass media mediums just as feature articles. Prior research supports the implication by suggesting that exposure to role models, even momentarily, can significantly influence
students’ self-efficacy about their potential within their field (Lockwood, 2006; Stout, Dasgupta, Hunsinger, & McManus, 2011).

In light of the results presented above, there are various implications for academia. In future research, it will be useful to examine the participant’s level of self-efficacy over a period to examine or detect any changes. Previous research revealed that African-American men encounter the “glass ceiling,” thus in an effort to expand the current body of literature future research should focus on the career self-efficacy of African-American men and compare it to men of other races. Additionally, future studies could also expand the participant pool and look at the self-efficacy of various regions to examine the regional differences.

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APPENDIX A

**Manipulations**
Marilyn Hewson was nine years old when her father died of a heart attack. Her father's sudden passing was a terrible shock to Marilyn's entire family. Unexpectedly, her mother found herself a single parent of five children. In an effort to be closer to relatives her mother moved the family to Tuscaloosa, Alabama. While her mother mourned her father's passing, Marilyn knew she had to take responsibility for her younger siblings. Money was tight, and with raising five kids her mother worked two jobs stretching every dollar as far as it could go. As one of the oldest children, Marilyn was challenged with responsibilities beyond her years. Not only did she care for her younger siblings but she cleaned, painted and did countless odd jobs around the neighborhood to assist her mother with household bills.

To this day, Marilyn believes that her childhood experiences taught her everything she needed to know about leadership and unwavering determination in the face of extraordinary adversity. She believes that taking on those responsibilities made her stronger, wiser and more self-reliant. At a young age she understood that great leaders are driven by purpose, and the impact they leave must be larger than their own footprints. Marilyn's hard work and determination resulted in a merit-based college scholarship to The University of Alabama. Not only was Marilyn involved in numerous extracurricular activities she also graduated with honors earning a bachelor degree in Business Administration and a masters degree in Economics. Following graduation Marilyn began working with Lockheed Martin as an entry-level employee.

After over 25 years with Lockheed Martin, Marilyn Hewson is now taking the helm as the CEO. Hewson has charted out record profits and helped its stock price more than double. To that end, the company spent nearly a billion dollars on acquisitions last year. To this day, no matter how tough things get, Marilyn wants her unflagging optimism to be an inspiration to all future leaders. In a recent interview Hewson stated "Leaders have to see past the problems of today to a brighter tomorrow." By refusing to let her childhood adversity stop her from building a brighter future, Marilyn has paved the way for the leaders of today.
Ursula Burns was nine years old when her father died of a heart attack. Her father’s sudden passing was a terrible shock to Ursula’s entire family. Unexpectedly, her mother found herself a single parent of five children. In an effort to be closer to relatives, her mother moved the family to Florence, Alabama. While her mother mourned her father’s passing, Ursula knew she had to take responsibility for her younger siblings. Money was tight, and with raising five kids her mother worked two jobs stretching every dollar as far as it could go. As one of the oldest children, Ursula was challenged with responsibilities beyond her years. Not only did she care for her younger siblings but she cleansed, painted and did countless odd jobs around the neighborhood to assist her mother with household bills.

To this day, Ursula believes that her childhood experiences taught her everything she needed to know about leadership and unwavering determination in the face of extraordinary adversity. She believes that taking on those responsibilities made her stronger, wiser and more self-reliant. At a young age she understood that great leaders are driven by purpose, and the impact they leave must be larger than their own footprints. Ursula’s hard work and determination resulted in a merit-based college scholarship to the University of Alabama. Not only was Ursula involved in numerous extracurricular activities she also graduated with honors earning a bachelor’s degree in Business Administration and a master’s degree in Economics. Following graduation, Ursula began working with Lockheed Martin as an entry-level employee.

After over 25 years with Lockheed Martin, Ursula Burns is now taking the helm as the CEO. Burns has churned out record profits and helped its stock price more than double. To that end, the company spent nearly a billion dollars on acquisitions last year. To this day, no matter how tough things got, Ursula wants her unflinching optimism to be an inspiration to all future leaders. In a recent interview Burns stated “leaders have to see past the problems of today to a brighter tomorrow.” By rousing to let her childhood adversity stop her from building a brighter future, Ursula has paved the way for the leaders of today.
Ken Chenault was nine years old when his father died of a heart attack. His father’s sudden passing was a terrible shock to Ken’s entire family. Unexpectedly, his mother found herself a single parent of five children. In an effort to be closer to relatives his mother moved the family to Tuscaloosa, Alabama. While his mother grieved her father’s passing, Ken knew he had to take responsibility for his younger siblings. Money was tight, and with raising five kids his mother worked two jobs stretching every dollar as far as it could go. As one of the oldest children, Ken was challenged with responsibilities beyond his years. Not only did he care for his younger siblings but he cleaned, painted and did countless odd jobs around the neighborhood to assist his mother with household bills.

To this day, Ken believes that his childhood experiences taught him everything he needed to know about leadership and unwavering determination in the face of extraordinary adversity. He believes that taking on those responsibilities made him stronger, wiser and more self-reliant. At a young age he understood that great leaders are driven by purpose, and the impact they leave must be larger than their own footprints. Ken’s hard work and determination resulted in a merit-based scholarship to The University of Alabama. Not only was Ken involved in numerous extracurricular activities he also graduated with honors earning a bachelor’s degree in Business Administration and a master’s degree in Economics. Following graduation Ken began working with Lockheed Martin as an entry-level employee.

After over 25 years with Lockheed Martin, Ken Chenault is now taking the helm as the CEO. Chenault has churned out record profits and helped its stock price more than double. To that end, the company spent nearly a billion dollars on acquisitions last year. To this day, no matter how tough things get, Ken wants his unflagging optimism to be an inspiration to all future leaders. In a recent interview Chenault stated “leaders have to see past the problems of today to a brighter tomorrow.” By refusing to let his childhood adversity stop him from building a brighter future, Ken has paved the way for the leaders of today.
Doug McMillon was nine years old when his father died of a heart attack. His father’s sudden passing was a terrible shock to Doug’s entire family. Unexpectedly, his mother found herself a single parent of five children. In an effort to be closer to relatives, his mother moved the family to Tuscaloosa, Alabama. While his mother grieved the father’s passing, Doug knew he had to take responsibility for his younger siblings. Money was tight, and with raising five kids his mother worked two jobs stretching every dollar as far as it could go. As one of the oldest children, Doug was challenged with responsibilities beyond his years. Not only did he care for her younger siblings but he cleaned, painted and did countless odd jobs around the neighborhood to assist his mother with household bills.

To this day, Doug believes that his childhood experiences taught him everything he needed to know about leadership and unwavering determination in the face of extraordinary adversity. He believes that raising such responsibilities made him stronger, wiser, and more self-reliant. At a young age he understood that great leaders are driven by purpose, and the impact they leave must be larger than their own footprints. Doug’s hard work and determination resulted in a merit-based college scholarship to The University of Alabama. Not only was Doug involved in numerous extracurricular activities he also graduated with honors earning a bachelor’s degree in Business Administration and a master’s degree in Economics. Following graduation Ken began working with Lockheed Martin as an entry-level employee.

After over 25 years with Lockheed Martin, Doug McMillon is now at the helm of the COO. McMillen has charted out record profits and helped its stock price more than double. To that end, the company spent nearly a billion dollars on acquisitions last year. To this day, no matter how tough things get, Doug retains his unflagging optimism to be an inspiration to all future leaders. In a recent interview McMillen stated “leaders have to see past the problems of today to a brighter tomorrow.” By refusing to let his childhood adversity stop him from building a brighter future, Doug has paved the way for the leaders of today.
APPENDIX B

Survey Items

Career Aspirations Scale:

In the space next to the statements below list a number between “0” (not at all true of me) and “4” (very true of me). If the statement does not apply, list “0”. Please be completely honest. Your answers are entirely confidential and will be useful only if they accurately describe you.

1. I hope to become a leader in my career field.

2. When I am established in my career, I would like to manage other employees.

3. I would be satisfied just doing my job in a career I am interested in.

4. I do not plan to devote energy to getting promoted in the organization or business I am working in.

5. When I am established in my career, I would like to train others.

6. I hope to move up through any organization or business I work in.

7. Once I finish the basic level of education needed for a particular job, I see no need to continue in school.

8. I plan on developing as an expert in my career field.

9. I think I would like to pursue graduate training in my occupational area of interest.

10. Attaining leadership status in my career is not that important to me.
General Self-Efficacy Scale:

In the space next to the statements below please list a number between “1” (not at all true) and “4” (exactly) indicating how much you agree with statement. Please be completely honest. Your answers are entirely confidential and will be useful only if they accurately describe you.

1. I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough
2. If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.
3. It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.
4. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.
5. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations
6. I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.
7. I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.
8. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions
9. If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.
10. I can usually handle whatever comes my way.

Women Leader Questionnaire:

In the space next to the statements below please list a number between “1” (not at all) and “7” (very much) indicating how much you agree with the statement. Please be completely honest. Your answers are entirely confidential and will be useful only if they accurately describe you.

1. How much do admire the individual you just read about?
2. How much do you identify with the individual you just read about?
3. In the future, can you imagine yourself achieving a similar level of success in your own profession?
4. In your opinion, how successful do you consider this individual you read about?
5. Do you think its possible for other women to be as successful as the individual you read about?
Coping with Stress Self-Efficacy Scale:

In the space next to the statements below please list a number between “1” (Strongly Disagree) and “5” (Strongly Agree). Please answer each statement by thinking “how confident you are” in preventing or managing the actions, thoughts or emotional reactions expressed in each one. Your answers are entirely confidential and will be useful only if they accurately describe you.

1. When I have problems or hassles in my life, it is harder for me to function normally.
2. When I have problems or hassles, I doubt about my ability to cope with them efficiently.
3. I do not exaggerate problems, and I able to maintain a sense of proportion.
4. In order to solve problems, I use whatever resources are available to me.

Demographics:

1) Gender : Female [       ]

2) What is your age? _________

3) What is your current status of enrollment?
   [ ] Freshman
   [ ] Sophomore
   [ ] Junior
   [ ] Senior
   [ ] Post-baccalaureate
   [ ] Graduate student
   [ ] Other: ______________________ (please specify)

4) Which of the following best describe your racial or ethnic identification?
   [ ] White/Caucasian
   [ ] African American
   [ ] Asian American
   [ ] Latino/Hispanic
   [ ] Native American
   [ ] International
   [ ] Other: ______________________
APPENDIX C

IRB Proposal

January 28, 2016

Brittany Galloway
Dept. of Advertising and Public Relations
CCSB
Box 870172

Re: IRB #: 16-08-040 "Shattering The Concrete Ceiling: Exploring the Moderating Effects of Mass Media Messages as it Relates to the Perceived Self-Efficacy of African American Women"

Dear Ms. Galloway:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for your proposed research.

Your application has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part 46. You have also been granted the requested waiver of written documentation of informed consent. Approval has been given under expedited review category 7 as outlined below:

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies

Your application will expire on January 26, 2017. If your research will continue beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of the IRB Renewal Application. If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved Protocol Form. Changes in this study cannot be initiated without IRB approval, except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants. When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of the IRB Request for Study Closure Form.

Please use reproductions of the IRB approved stamped consent forms to provide to your participants.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the above application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Carrolinda F. Murphy, MSPH, CIP
Director & Research Compliance Officer
UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD FOR THE PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS
REQUEST FOR APPROVAL OF RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

Identifying Information

Principal Investigator
Name: Brittany Galloway
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Title of Research Project: Shattering The Concrete Ceiling: Exploring The Moderating Effects Of Mass Media Messages As It Relates To The Perceived Self-Efficacy Of African American Women

Date Printed: October 11, 2015
Funding Source: none

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UA faculty or staff member signature:

II. NOTIFICATION OF IRB ACTION (to be completed by IRB):
Type of Review: Full board
Expedited

IRB Action:

X Approved—this proposal complies with University and federal regulations for the protection of human subjects.

Approval is effective until the following date: 12/01/2017

Items approved:
X Research protocol: dated
X Informed consent: dated
X Recruitment materials: dated
X Other: waiver written doc dated

Approval signature: [Signature]
Date: 12/08/2016
Appendix D
Debriefing Statement and Follow Up Questions

To the Participant:

I want to thank you for participating in this study, entitled Shattering The Concrete Ceiling: Exploring The Moderating Effects Of Mass Media Messages As It Relates To The Perceived Self-Efficacy Of African American Women. The questionnaire was designed to examine the effects of the mass media on college student’s self-efficacy, particularly African American women as it relates to their professional career aspirations. As stated on the consent form, your participation in this study was voluntary, and your identity will remain confidential and anonymous.

As a reminder, if you have any questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher. If you have any questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact Brittany Galloway at 517-348-7765 or by email at bigalloway@crimson.ua.edu. You may also contact Kenon A. Brown, by mail at the Department of Advertising and Public Relations, 412 Reese Phifer Hall, Box 870172, Tuscaloosa, AL 35487, or by email at brown@apr.ua.edu. If the participant has any concerns or experience stress due the nature of the study the participant should be directed to call The University of Alabama’s Counseling Center at 205-348-3863 or visit at 1000 South Lawn Office Building, 1101 Jackson Avenue, Tuscaloosa, Alabama, 35401. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, contact Ms. Tanya Myles, the Research Compliance Officer of the University of Alabama at 205-348-8461 or toll-free at 1-877-820-3066. You may also ask questions, make suggestions, or file complaints and concerns through the IRB Outreach Website at http://osp.ua.edu/site/PRCO_Welcome.html. You may email us at participantoutreach@bama.ua.edu. If you wish to withdraw your participation from this study, please skip to the end of the questionnaire and exit.

Thank You,

Brittany Galloway
Masters Student
College of Communication and Information Sciences