An Analysis of Racial Identity Attitudes and the Perception of Racial Climate on Job Satisfaction of African American Faculty at Historically White Institutions

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This dissertation titled
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Abstract

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An Analysis of Racial Identity Attitudes and the Perception of Racial Climate on Job Satisfaction of African American Faculty at Historically White Institutions

Director of Dissertation: Yegan Pillay

The representation and retention of African Americans have long been issues in higher education. Historically White Institutions (HWIs) have struggled with the ability to promote and retain African American faculty. African American faculty at HWIs have reported issues of hyper visibility, lack of diversity, chilly campus climates, and culture, as factors impacting their workplace satisfaction. In an attempt to understand African American faculty work experiences, more information needs to be gathered on their unique tenure in academia. Despite the increase in the literature on job satisfaction of African Americans, there is a scarcity of information that examines the impact of racial climate or racial identity attitudes on job satisfaction. With the accounts of slavery and racism in the United States and its residual effects on today’s society, racial identity can give insight into individual responses to societal racism. Racial climate can also assist with understanding job satisfaction levels of African American faculty, due to the role racism has historically played in the work environment.

This study explores the connections between gender, racial identity, perceived racial climate, and job satisfaction of African American faculty. Data was collected from 100 African American participants who work in various teaching roles at HWIs in the Midwest. A hierarchical regression analysis was employed to investigate the salient
intersections of gender and race-related variables. The independent variables included
gender, perceived racial climate, and Black racial identity status. The dependent variable
was job satisfaction. This study used a block-wise regression analysis, in which gender
was entered first; perceived racial climate, as a total score, was entered second; and the
four Black racial identity statuses by Helms and Parham (1996) (Pre-Encounter, Post-
Encounter, Immersion/Emersion, Internalization) were entered last. The results showed
that all three variables contributed to a variance of job satisfaction; however, Black racial
identity subscales individually did not significantly contribute variance in job
satisfaction. A discussion of the survey instruments, procedures for data collection, and
implications were also presented.
Dedication

I dedicate my work and this manuscript to Matilyn Rose Beatty, Rose Marie Brown, and Mattie Mae Nettles. Mom and Grandma, you always instilled the importance of education although you never have the opportunity to achieve all the educational dreams you so longed for. I am completing this because you always let me stand on your shoulders and see further and higher the possibilities of what I could accomplish.

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## Table of Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedication</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgments</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Tables</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Figures</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 1: Introduction</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background of the Study</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance of Working</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction and Theory Evolution</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender and Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racial Climate and Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racial Identity and Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American Faculty Work Perspectives</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance of the Study</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Question</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Hypothesis</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study Limitations</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delimitations</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Definition of Terms ................................................................. 36

Summary ................................................................. 37

Chapter 2: Literature Review ................................................................. 39

Job Satisfaction ................................................................. 39

Job Satisfaction Theoretical Framework ........................................ 39

African Americans’ Job Satisfaction ........................................ 45

African American Faculty Job Satisfaction ................................ 49

Gender and African American Faculty Job Satisfaction ............ 54

Measurement of Job Satisfaction ........................................ 55

Racial Identity ................................................................. 57

Historical Development of Race Construct ............................. 57

Racial Identity Theory Development ........................................ 59

Black Racial Identity Development .......................................... 60

Black Racial Identity and Job Satisfaction ............................... 64

Measurement of Black Racial Identity ..................................... 66

Racial Climate ................................................................. 67

Organizational Racial Climate .............................................. 67

History of Racism in Higher Education .................................. 68

Racial Climate in Higher Education ...................................... 71

Perceived Racial Climate and Job Satisfaction ...................... 73

Measurement of Racial Climate ........................................... 74

Summary ................................................................. 77
Chapter 3: Methodology ................................................................. 79

Research Design .............................................................................. 79
Participants ...................................................................................... 80
Sampling Plan .................................................................................. 80
Instrumentation ................................................................................ 81

- Biographical Data Questionnaire........................................ 81
- Racial Climate Scale ................................................................. 81
- Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale ........................................ 82
- Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire .................................... 83

Data Collection Procedure ............................................................ 84
Data Analysis Procedure ................................................................. 85
Summary ......................................................................................... 86

Chapter 4: Results ............................................................................. 87

Description of Participants ............................................................... 87

- Demographic Variable Descriptive Analysis .............................. 87
- Gender and Age .......................................................................... 88
- Teaching and Academic Title ..................................................... 88
- Course Load ................................................................................. 89
- Years in Position ....................................................................... 89
- Highest Level of Education ....................................................... 89

Independent and Dependent Variable Descriptive Analysis ......... 89

- Perceived Racial Climate ........................................................... 89
List of Tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 1: Sample Demographic Descriptive Data</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 2: Summary of Model</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3: ANOVA</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Figures

Page

Figure 1: Histogram of Distribution of Regression Standardized Residual.................155

Figure 2: Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual..............................156

Figure 3: Scatterplot of Regression Standardized Predicted Value and Standardized Residuals to Test Homogeneity..............................................................157
Chapter 1: Introduction

Race-related issues have been a salient dimension in shaping the societal domain in the United States for decades (West, 1993). Moreover, the continued impact of racism and other forms of discrimination against African Americans continues to flow through the undercurrent of society but is rarely acknowledged or addressed openly in higher education settings (Constantine, Smith, Redington, & Owens, 2008). The realm of education in the United States has historically been built on racist laws and ideologies that catered only to White male Americans and discriminated against other racial minorities, including African Americans (Trower & Chait, 2002). This not only has impacted the inception of these institutions but also has created a race-based residue that remains negatively apparent in the undertones of policies and procedures at higher education institutions (Constantine et al., 2008).

Some research has focused on examining how African American students function within race-related paradigms and how it impacts their perception and tenure in higher education (Park, 2009). However, there is a void in the literature that investigates how African American faculty members experience these work environments (Jayakumar, Howard, Allen, & Han, 2009). With work being an important aspect of daily routine, identity, and livelihood, it is important to understand how African American faculty function and perceive their experience of work and job satisfaction at Historically White Institutions (HWIs). For the purpose of understanding the racial impact, HWIs are used to describe the historical and contemporary racialized infrastructure in place within colleges and universities. This study focused specifically
on race-related variables that may directly impact African American faculty job satisfaction levels. Specifically, the impact of gender, Black racial identity, and perceived racial climate on job satisfaction levels of African American faculty at HWIs were examined.

The first chapter is divided into the following sections: background of the study, the statement of the problem, research questions and hypothesis, the study’s significance, study limitations/delimitations, and the definition of terms. This chapter serves as an introduction to the study and body of literature needed to understand the salient intersections of gender, racial identity attitudes, racial climate/environment, and job satisfaction for African American faculty.

**Background of the Study**

To understand job satisfaction for any group, it is important to comprehend the benefits and importance of working. A brief orientation to the evolution of job satisfaction theory is presented to help illustrate the theoretical concepts employed in understanding emotions as they relate to work. In addition, variables that could specifically relate to African American faculty and their job satisfaction levels are introduced. These variable intersections include gender and job satisfaction, racial climate and job satisfaction, and racial identity and job satisfaction.

**Importance of working.** Work has been a fundamental ingredient of civilized society for centuries, and it has played a significant role in each individual’s unique described identity (Landy & Conte, 2007). The Task Force on Work in America (1973) report examined documents from early Hebrew and Greek literature to the famous
Hawthorne Studies by Elton Mayo in 1933 regarding views of work. The Task Force found that work played an integral role in sustaining life, producing goods and services, structuring time, serving God, providing self-fulfillment and identity, and contributing to the improvement of society.

The National Research Council (1999) studied the impact that work has on how people define themselves. The authors found that an average of 70% of the participants indicated that if they had sufficient monetary savings to live comfortably they would still continue to be employed. Work is also considered one of the key life factors related to wellness and is a strong predictor of longevity and quality of life (Hill, 2009).

The importance of work is further expanded on by individuals who have lost their jobs or are about to lose their jobs (Bobek & Robbins, 2005; Landy & Conte, 2007). A common theme has emerged that job loss has been associated with a decrease in psychological and physical health and is related to depression, anxiety, low self-esteem and somatic complaints (Bobek & Robbins, 2005). Working is part of how individuals define their character and how they assess their worth in the societal realm and in their familial relationships (Landy & Conte, 2007). One can infer from these studies that work is important to people and is a large part of identity formation.

**Job satisfaction and theory evolution.** A great part of an individual’s time is spent at work or in work-related activities. It is therefore important to examine issues that may impact job satisfaction as a pertinent factor in improving their overall well-being (Gruneberg, 1979). With work as a defining characteristic of an individual’s identity, researchers have explored factors that contribute to worker satisfaction.
Initially, little interest was given to workers’ emotions because it was assumed that they were concerned only with wages. Elton Mayo, an Australian psychologist, introduced the role of emotions at work into the mainstream of Industrial Organizational Psychology. In addition, the notion of job satisfaction became prominently studied after Mayo’s research (Landy & Conte, 2007). Most notable are the experiments that occurred at the Hawthorne plant of the West Electric Company in Cicero, Illinois (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939).

The initial focus for the Mayo research was to investigate correlations between the work atmosphere and levels of productivity. The timing of breaks, lighting, and workday length were all variables manipulated to examine their influence on productivity. When these variables were manipulated, results showed that with almost all experimental conditions production improved. Further investigation of self-reported experiences revealed that the workers who received more attention from supervisors and managers were more productive and displayed positive attitudes (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). It gave light to the concept that a change in behavior or attitude can result from a simple interaction of increased attention. This research, along with others, birthed the interest in job satisfaction of workers (Hoppock, 1935; Landy & Conte, 2007; Taylor, 1911).

Job satisfaction can be categorized into groupings of process and content theories (Cambell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weike, 1970). The theories designated as content theories examine several variables that can impact an individual’s job satisfaction. In content theories, it is assumed that everyone has the same set of needs. In contrast,
process theories examine how the variables of expectations, desires, and principles interrelate with the characteristics of the specific work situation to construct job satisfaction. Process theories take more into account regarding individual differences and what occurs to create it.

Abraham Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and Frederick Herzberg’s two factor theories are content theories. Maslow hypothesized a “needs hierarchy,” with needs divided into those of a lower/basic needs category and ascending into higher and more complex needs, such as self actualization. Although Maslow’s (1943) theory was not created to explain job satisfaction, it was postulated that job satisfaction involves fulfilling one’s basic needs, which in turn results in improved job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979). Herzberg’s two factor theory (1966) was similar to Maslow’s theory but had distinct differences that were recognized among the leading job satisfaction theories. In attempting to understand what motivated workers, Herzberg’s research distinguished between “factors” that led to job dissatisfaction and job satisfaction.

John Locke’s value theory (1976) is a reputable process theory. Locke described a value as “that which one regards as conducive to one’s welfare. A value is what a person consciously or subconsciously desires, wants or seeks to attain” (p. 1304). Locke’s theory implies that job satisfaction can only be examined individually because each individual defines what they value related to each job element. This suggests that something that is valuable for one worker and results in job satisfaction may not necessarily be valuable for another (Landy, 1978).
Locke (1976) also completed a comprehensive assessment of variables that add to job satisfaction. He was one of the initial theorists to assess how conditions and events at work and its agents, including how self, supervisors, and coworkers, impact satisfaction (Locke & Herme, 1986). Although this theory is highly noted, it has been critiqued for not being a comprehensive analysis of the phenomenon of job satisfaction (Landy, 1989).

The theory of work adjustment (Dawis, 2000; Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1964) has been regarded as a theory that is commonly used in defining job satisfaction (Lyons & O’Brien, 2006). In contrast to process and content theories (Cambell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weike, 1970), the theory of work adjustment is classified as P.E. theory (Dawis, 2000). In P.E. theories the focus is on interactions among the P (person) and the E (environment), and how a relationship provides an explanation of behaviors. The theory of work adjustment focuses specifically on how job satisfaction is accounted for when factors in the environment and the person interrelate to forecast the worker’s job satisfaction (Dawis et al., 1964; Holcomb-McCoy & Addison-Bradley, 2005).

Although African Americans have a unique experience in regard to job satisfaction, researchers conclude the applicability of job satisfaction theories have some universality and can apply across races, including African Americans (Holcomb-McCoy & Addison-Bradley, 2005; Lyons & O’Brien, 2006; Weaver, 1998). Understanding the study of job satisfaction and its theoretical concepts is important because they illuminate the significance in understanding how a worker’s job satisfaction has a direct impact on sense of self, coworkers, and the organization as a whole. In this study, African American faculty members’ job satisfaction at HWIs is explored. The basic shared
premise linking theories of job satisfaction is used for conceptual understanding. Additionally, the influence of gender, racial identity, and racial climate at HWIs are examined to determine its impact on job satisfaction.

**Gender and job satisfaction.** In general, career theories have illuminated the fact that multiple variables, including gender, can impact one’s career choice, development, and outlook (Pearson, 2008). Donald Super’s (1954) theory of vocational choice; Robert Lent, Steven Brown, and Gail Hackett’s (1987) theory of social cognitive career theory; and John Holland’s (1959) career typology theory all allude to gender impacting not only occupational choice but also occupational environment (Lent & Brown, 2006). Although career theories focus specifically on the development of career choice, it can be implicitly understood that gender also impacts job satisfaction levels as well (Pearson, 2008).

As a shift in the number of women working has risen, it is increasingly important for organizations to differentiate between the factors that increase or decrease women’s job satisfaction levels and explore differences in regard to gender (Sabhawal & Corley, 2009). A notable contribution to job satisfaction variation includes the impact of multiple responsibilities and roles that women have. When compared to men, women who work have more responsibility for tasks at home and primary caregiver responsibilities. Role overload has proven to be a strong predictor of job satisfaction levels in women (Pearson, 2008). It has also been proven that in faculty members, women express lower levels of job satisfaction than male faculty members (Sabharwal & Corley, 2009).
African American female faculty members also report unique experiences impacting their work lives in higher education that differ from their White counterparts. African American women report feelings of hyperinvisibility, overcoming over sexualized stereotypes, as well as challenging the stereotype of being labeled the “angry black women” (Cooper, 2006). These variables are worth noting because they impact African American women’s view of work and therefore could also have an impact on their sense of job satisfaction. In understanding the job satisfaction levels of African American faculty at HWIs, it is important to explore the role gender plays in the job satisfaction levels of both men and women.

**Racial climate and job satisfaction.** Racial climate is the atmosphere that the majority of racial group members create in an organization (Barbarin & Gilbert, 1981; Jackson & Carter, 2007; Watts & Carter, 1991). Roderick Watts and Robert Carter (1991) set out to understand the experience of racism by understanding the climate and the experience of those who work within a specific environment. The researchers developed a survey instrument to assess the perceived racial climate in regard to how race impacts the decision-making process, rewards system, and interpersonal processes (Lyons & O’Brien, 2006). A work environment with lower racial climate scores was described as possessing an antagonistic climate toward a minority employee, and a work environment with higher scores corresponded with a more positive racial climate (Holder & Vaux, 1998).

The correlation among job satisfaction and the racial climate in organizations has mostly been examined in organizational and business environments (Ensher, Grant-
Researchers have found that individuals from different racial backgrounds view racial climate as significantly related to their job satisfaction. Tack and Patitu (1992) assert that racial minority faculty members report discrimination at work as it related to their race and ethnicity. There are however gaps in the literature evaluating African American faculty’s levels of job satisfaction and how they are impacted by their perspective of their university’s racial climate.

In one of the few empirical studies that investigated the job satisfaction and organizational racial climate relationship, results indicate that faculty members of color often had more stressful experiences and lower levels of job satisfaction (Astin, Antonio, Cress, & Astin, 1997). Another study concluded that faculty perception of the department’s racial climate was more likely linked to workplace satisfaction (Holcomb-McCoy & Bradley, 2005). Although no conclusions can be drawn from limited empirical research, it can be inferred that perceptions of departmental and campus climate may be predictive of levels of overall job satisfaction (Turner, 2002).

**Racial identity and job satisfaction.** Racial identity is defined as “a sense of group or collective identity based on one’s perception that he or she shares a common racial heritage with a particular group” (Helms, 1990, p. 3). Janet Helms and Thomas Parham (1984) described four stages of Black racial identity: Pre-encounter, Post-Encounter, Immersion/Emersion, and Internalization. During the Pre-encounter stage, individuals construct an identity oblivious to their race and observe the world through the viewpoint of the dominant White culture, while holding a deprecation of a Black
worldview (Helms & Parham, 1984; Helms, 1990). When individuals begin to explore their identity as a Black person, due to the reality that they cannot be accepted by the White world, it is considered the Post-Encounter stage (formerly known as the Encounter stage) (Helms & Parham, 1984; Helms, 1996). This usually occurs as a result of an incident regarding the race of the Black individual. In the stages of Immersion/Emersion, the people psychologically (and sometimes physically) engross themselves into Black culture and the world (Helms & Parham, 1984; Helms, 1990). Later in the stage, with a new Black outlook, individuals actively engage in exploration and critical analysis of the Black community. Finally, in the Internalization stage is when individuals positively acknowledge and are comfortable in their Black identity and begin to reconnect to White culture for its strengths as well as its weaknesses (Helms & Parham, 1984).

Race is a factor that has had a significant impact on every aspect of culture in the United States, including aspects in statutes and law, language terms, and political ideals (Fox & Stallworth, 2005). Janet Helms (1994) discussed the potential of examining racial identity theory in relation to explaining vocational behavior. Helms further explains that because the basic premise of one group in society (White) historically has defined and controlled access to the work of all other racial groups (most notably, African Americans), people from other cultures have had to function in a societal work environment that they have had comparatively little control over or influence in shaping.

Racial identity theory addresses the process of developing, or the inability to develop, a healthy racial identity attitude in an atmosphere where an individual’s socially ascribed racial group has limited access to sociopolitical power (Helms, 1990). In this
case, the differential access is represented by the access to work. Traditional theories of
career development have been criticized for overlooking such factors as race (Parham &
Austin, 1994). Conceptual literature has been written on how racial identity theory and
the career development model connect (Evans & Herr, 1994; Parham & Austin, 1994;
Tinsley, 1994). However, empirical research that addresses how the levels of racial
identity development coincide with job satisfaction of African Americans working in
HWIs is conspicuously absent.

**African American Faculty Work Perspectives.** There are notable voids in peer
reviewed literature regarding African American faculty work perspectives regarding job
satisfaction. However, there is a plethora of anthologies written by African American
faculty and staff discussing their experience of being educated and working in at HWIs.
African American faculty experiences are often written in self help and navigational
guides based on the individual’s experience, some including a collaborative of stories
including that of mentors and peers as well (Mabokela & Green, 2001; Tuch & Martin,
1991; Young & Trinity, 2010). Many of these anthologies are written in as self help
books for other African American’s working at HWI’s or those looking to enter that
domain (Johnson, 2009; Mabokela & Green, 2001; Xavier 2007; Young & Trinity, 2010).
Although not presented in peer reviewed journals, it is still important to note the personal
experiences to understand the background for this study.

African American faculty often note that while beginning work in higher
education, they are often not made aware or mentored about the process and steps needed
to have a successful career as a faculty member (Apple, 2001; Erins & Edwards, 2008;
Xavier, 2007; Young & Trinity, 2010). This also includes guidance and direction of how to create a successful research agenda and steps to take to create a portfolio to be considered for tenure (Alger, 2007). Several books have discussed the lack of guidance in this area and how difficult it is to be successful for a tenured position without a viable research outline (Alger, 2007).

African American faculty often allude to the departmental and campus climate and culture that does not foster positive growth in the area of diversity (Tuch & Martin, 1991). In addition, African American female faculty note gender discrimination and have access to leadership positions (Mabokela & Green, 2001). A theme regarding overcoming stereotypes of being an “anger black woman” is often discussed throughout the anthologies (Mabokela & Green, 2001).

Having research diminished that focuses on African American and women is reported within the narrative reflections of African American faculty experiences (Mabokela & Green, 2001; Young & Trinity, 2010). Particularly, receiving academic and university sponsored grants to support to research regarding racial minority populations is noted amongst many authors (Alger, 2007; Vergas, 2002; Young & Trinity, 2010).

**Statement of the Problem**

In recent decades, a demographic shift of significant proportions has occurred in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). As the number of ethnic and racial minorities increase, changes in the field of higher education can be expected (Bradley & Holcomb-McCoy, 2004). Diverse thought is important in higher educational settings due
to the ability for students to challenge their own ideals and views from those who viewpoints are different (Stanley, 2006). The American Council on Education and the American Association of University Professors (2000) conducted a study that revealed that 69% of surveyed faculty members think that their university should place importance on ethnic and racial diversity. Such beliefs capture the significance of diversity in a campus climate, as well as articulate how it can offer a considerable impact on societal and global levels (Stanley, 2006).

The increase in the census numbers of minority citizens has not matched the growth of racial minority students and faculty at the collegiate level (Shineer & Modood, 2002). Representation of minority faculty has remained at a low level throughout several academic disciplines (Alger, 2007). Specifically in HWIs, there has been a large gap in the amount of faculty of color employed, in comparison to the racial diversity of the student body (Snyder & Hoffman, 2001). Despite many researchers arguing the benefits of the diversity added by faculty of color within higher education (approaches to teaching, recruiting of students of color, contributions to new scholarship), there is a disproportionately and alarmingly low rate of representation in comparison to White faculty (Bronstein, Rothblum, & Solomon, 1993; Cross, 1991; Hale, 2004; Johnsrud & Des Jarlis, 1994; Snyder & Hoffman, 2001; Stanley, 2006; Turner & Myers, 2000).

Representation and retention of African Americans, especially, has been an ongoing issue in higher education (Trower & Chait, 2002). African Americans represent 12% of the overall U.S. population but only 5% of the total faculty population (National Center for Education Statistics, 2007). This percentage has remained stagnant for several
years as evidenced by the statistic that in 1975, 4.4% of faculty members were African American (Turner, Gonzalez, & Wood, 2008). According to a study conducted over a seven-year period, African American faculty members compared to White faculty were more likely to leave their institution (Trower & Chait, 2002). Historically, White institutions have struggled with the ability to promote and retain African American faculty (Turner & Myers, 2000).

Faculty retention is reliant on job satisfaction (Tack & Patitu, 1992). More notably, the literature has supported the concept that African American faculty members tend to have greater job satisfaction at Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) than at HWIs (Berrian, 2006; Logan, 1990; Tack & Patitu, 1992). African American faculty at HWIs have reported issues of hypervisibility within invisibility, lack of diversity, chilly campus climate, and culture as factors impacting their workplace satisfaction (Stanley, 2006; Turner & Myers, 2000). These findings naturally lead to questions regarding the work experiences of African American faculty at HWIs.

**Significance of the Study**

In general, African Americans’ work lives have been examined to a lesser degree in comparison to White work lives (Brown, 1995; Fitzgerald & Betz, 1994). Among minorities in the United States, African Americans occupy a unique position in relation to work experiences in that African Americans have historically had a different experience in association to work due to slavery, racism, and other prejudices (Alexander, 2005). Africans were the only group to be brought to America and enslaved to work for hundreds of years. Shortly after that, the Black Codes were passed, which were a series
of laws to control African Americans. These codes continued to limit African Americans’ civil liberties, basic human rights, and working privileges. African Americans continued to endure racism through the Jim Crow laws and discrimination and segregation on societal, political, and educational levels. Although these experiences are from the past, significant discriminatory practices, policies, and environments still exist and continue to have an impact on African Americans who work at HWIs (West, 1993).

With HWIs changing in their demographics and evolving into a more diverse racial environment, this still has not reduced any race related apprehension or improved communications between the various groups (Chavous, 2005). Colleges and universities have historically struggled with the underrepresentation of African American faculty (Jayakumar et al., 2009). Diversity is increasing in the United States, and it is becoming more imperative that faculty member demographics mirror those represented in the population (Bradley & Holcomb-McCoy, 2004). Jayakumar et al., (2009) assert that the recruitment of minorities into the teaching profession is not a sufficient strategic plan in managing or solving the problem.

Additional research is required to better comprehend how colleges and universities can not only recruit but more importantly “retain African American faculty in an appropriate and ethical manner” (Jayakumar et al., 2009, p. 558). In an attempt to understand African American faculty work experiences, more information needs to be gathered on their unique tenure in academia. Examining specific factors in regard to racial experiences and attitudes of African American faculty can help understand the unique experience of this subset of the overall faculty population, which in turn could aid
HWIs in hiring and retaining African American faculty in the future. It is important to understand job satisfaction for all faculty members; however, understanding job satisfaction for faculty of color can have strong implications throughout the university (Laden & Hagedorn, 2000).

Research has concluded that White faculty members and nonminority faculty members experience college work environments differently than do faculty of color. African American faculty experience the academy very differently even from other minority faculty members (Turner & Myers, 2000). HWIs have a legacy that has historically catered to the well-being of White male faculty, thus creating divergent perspectives and experiences in the work environment for faculty of color (Aguirre, 2000). One research study (Astin et al., 1997) found that African American faculty had double the chances of identifying subtle experiences of racial discrimination as a source of stress than Whites. Specifically in higher education, racial discrimination against African American faculty included limited occasions for opportunities, disparity in task assignments, amplified inclusion in activities related to service, limited access to serve in leadership positions, social seclusion, and devalued research that specifically focused on ethnic/racial minorities and women (Harvey & Scott-James, 1985).

Research studies on life quality for faculty of color demonstrate that job satisfaction is a pertinent factor to examine (Palepu, Carr, Friedman, Ash, & Moskowitz, 2000; Thomas, 1995). The significance of this exploratory analysis is that it increases awareness about African American faculty in academia and the salient intersections between racial identity and perceived racial climate on job satisfaction. Critical analysis
can assist with the retention and recruitment of African American faculty, in addition to preparing those seeking an occupational role in the academy.

This study also appeals to a humanitarian perspective because people merit the opportunity for fair treatment and respect. Job satisfaction can be an indicator of being treated fairly (Spector, 1997). In addition, the results of study will have implications for researchers and future employers.

**Research Question**

What is the impact of racial identity and perceived racial climate on the job satisfaction of African American faculty at Historically White Institutions?

**Research Hypothesis**

**Hypothesis 1.** Gender contributes to a variance in the job satisfaction levels in African American faculty members at HWIs, as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

**Hypothesis 2.** Perceived racial climate, as measured by the Racial Climate Scale, contributes to the variance in job satisfaction of African American faculty at HWIs above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender.

**Hypothesis 3.** Racial identity, as measured by the Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale (BRIAS), namely Pre-encounter, Post-Encounter, Immersion/Emersion, and Internalization scales—contributes to a variance in job satisfaction above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender and racial climate.
Study Limitations

The percentage of African American faculty at HWIs is relatively smaller than that of White members. Although there were sufficient participants for statistical power the return rate was low. Findings of this study may not be generalizable to the entire population of African American faculty in the United States because the sample was drawn only from one Midwestern state. There also was an unequal distribution of males and females in the sample, which may influence any comparisons that can be made with regard to gender. The sample of African American faculty included part-time adjunct and non–tenure track faculty rather than the traditional standing of tenure track faculty members.

Presently, adjunct faculty constitutes 40% of the faculty who provide instruction in higher education institutions (Wickun & Stanley, 2000). Utilization of part-time faculty has become a mounting movement occurring in higher educational institutions (American Association of State Colleges and Universities, 1999; Leslie, Kellams, & Gunne, 1982). The experiences of adjunct faculty are unique because they may not spend as much time in the work environment as full-time tenure track faculty and this may have skewed the findings. Additional limitations of the study include not being able to make casual statements because the study is a correlational design and lower response rates.

Delimitations

The sample was delimited to adjunct and full-time African American faculty at predominantly White academic institutions in a Midwestern state.
**Definition of Terms**

The following definitions best explain the terms presented in this study:

**Black/African American:** an individual who has ancestry connected to an African Black racial group. The terms “Black” and “African American” are used interchangeably (Executive Office of the President, 1997).

**Job Satisfaction:** a positive cognitive state or outlook that results from the appraisal of one’s own work experience (Landy & Conte, 2007).

**Historically Black College and University (HBCU):** a college or university created for the education of Black students who were not allowed to attend other higher education institutions because of the color of their skin.

**Historically White Institution (HWI):** a college or university where the majority of students, staff, and faculty are of European decent. The term is used to illuminate the fact that the historically and contemporarily racialized infrastructure that is in place in current campus culture and ecology still benefits Whites over Blacks and other racial minorities.

**Racial Climate:** the social and institutional environment from which employees’ race and organizational racism determine the incentive structure and interpersonal and decision-making procedures (Barbarin & Gilbert, 1981; Watts & Carter, 1991).

**Racial Identity:** “the sense of group or collective identity based on one’s *perception* that he or she shares a common racial heritage with a particular racial group” (Helms, 1990, p. 3).

**Faculty:** an educator who instructs part-time or full-time at a collegiate-level academic institution.
Summary

The U.S. population has become more diverse over the past two decades, as the minority population has increased more rapidly than the White populace (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2007). As the racial makeup of individuals in the United States continues to evolve, representation of that shift in higher education faculty is not visible in institutes of higher education (Cole & Barber, 2003), especially among African Americans. Considering the experiences of African American faculty members who are in the numerical minority can help better facilitate an understanding of the impact of the work environment on their levels of job satisfaction. Researchers presented confirmation regarding the significance of job satisfaction by demonstrating its connection to several end results such as job dedication and life contentment (Tuch & Martin, 1991).

Several researchers have highlighted that minorities, specifically African Americans in higher education, may have experiences that can be demeaning, oppressive, and often exclusionary (Bradley & Holcomb-McCoy, 2004; Jayakumar et al., 2009). Despite the increase in the literature on job satisfaction of African Americans, there is a scarcity of information that examines the impact of racial climate or racial identity attitudes on job satisfaction. With the accounts of slavery and racism in the United States, in addition to the residual effects on today’s society, racial identity can give insight into an individual’s response to societal racism (Helms & Cook, 1999; West, 1993). Racial climate can also assist with understanding the job satisfaction of African American faculty due to the role racism has historically played in the work environment.
The following chapter will present a review of the literature as it relates to job satisfaction, faculty job satisfaction, African American job satisfaction, racial identity, and racial climate. A critical examination of historical content, construct measurement, and previous research outcomes are discussed.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter presents an introduction and examination of the literature regarding job satisfaction, racial identity, and racial climate. Each section will discuss instruments used to measure each construct.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction theoretical framework. Job satisfaction is a commonly examined construct when analyzing organizational and work behaviors (Bellou, 2010). Frank Landy (1978) described job satisfaction as an optimistic feeling that is produced from the evaluation of a person’s work. During the early 1930’s, researchers began to focus on the notion of job satisfaction. In 1935 Robert Hoppock surveyed 351 adults who worked in a small town in Pennsylvania to determine the workers’ job satisfaction level. Hoppock was interested in the workers’ responses to two questions: (a) How happy are they in the community? and (b) Is job satisfaction related to types of jobs? To analyze the data, workers were classified into the categories of unskilled, semiskilled, semiprofessional, and professional. He found that 63% of the population surveyed “liked” their jobs, 9% were “enthusiastic about” their jobs, and 5% “loved” their jobs. He also discovered that 12% of workers “disliked” their jobs.

Hoppock (1935) also discovered that the workers whose jobs were classified as professional reported a higher level of job satisfaction. Those with more specialized jobs reported greater satisfaction in their jobs than those who could be classified as unskilled. As one of the first recorded investigations studying the phenomenon of job satisfaction,
Hoppock’s study is often credited with initializing the movement to assess job satisfaction in the business and organizational industry (Bellou, 2010).

The Hawthorne studies were also pivotal in conceptualizing how performance in job settings can be influenced by the individual worker’s desire, motivation, attitude, and personal interactions with supervisors and peers (Locke, 1976). During the 1920’s, researchers conducted several inquiries at the Western Electric Company of Chicago to establish what could advance production within the plant. Initially, investigators sought to study two groups of workers and establish how varied lighting conditions would impact their production levels. The results indicated that lighting changes increased production.

The researchers expanded the scope of the studies and included variables such as the amount of break time, the compensation that the employee received, and the duration of the shift. In conclusion of the 12-year studies, they summarized that the relationships with supervisors, managers, and coworkers impacted employees’ performance to a greater extent than the work and organizational guidelines (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). The Hawthorne studies were essential in helping to create improved job atmospheres by the creation of a human resource policy (Wooten & Finley-Hervey, 2003). The established guidelines prompted managers to exhibit respect for their employees and in turn encouraged more positive interactions between them. Study investigators noted that the results of their research indicated that physical demand impacted production but also that workers’ emotions, cognitions, and job satisfaction impacted overall production as well (Locke, 1976).
The Hawthorne studies and the Hoppock studies increased interest in job satisfaction. The Hawthorne studies have provided empirical evidence of the role that workers’ desires and beliefs played in their productivity and job satisfaction, while Hoppock’s study created techniques to gauge workers’ job satisfaction. Although there may be some debate as to which study had the most influence in studying job satisfaction, researchers in general agree that both studies played an important role in forming a theoretical perspective of job satisfaction (Bellou, 2010; Locke, 1976).

Starting in the 1960s, many researchers attempted to provide a theoretical explanation of job satisfaction. However, many researchers conclude that Maslow’s *Hierarchy of Needs* was the precursor in explaining job satisfaction, and subsequently many theorists based their assumptions on the groundwork set by that theory (Gruneberg, 1979).

**Maslow’s hierarchy of needs.** Maslow’s (1943) needs hierarchy was not originally created with the intent to explain job satisfaction. However, many job satisfaction theorists credit his theory with providing a structure to help understand satisfaction in the world of work (Landy & Conte, 2007).

Maslow (1943) constructed his theory to focus on personal motivation guided by unmet needs, and the needs were arranged in order of importance (Gruneberg, 1979; Maslow, 1954). The first and basic level of physiological needs is the desire for food, water, air, and sleep (Maslow, 1943). Maslow stressed that this first level of needs is required to provide stability in the person (1954).
The next needs level in the hierarchy consists of protection and security, which includes the desire for refuge and defense against danger (Maslow, 1943). When endangered, ill, worried, or in pain, humans became safety-seeking organisms (1954). During the creation of Maslow’s theory, nothing was more important than the safety of individuals in the general population due to World War II occurring during this time frame.

The third level of needs focuses on love and social affection, specifically the desire for belonging, love, and affection. Friendship, warmth, and a sense of belonging are needed when a person has met the lower-level needs (Maslow, 1954). Maslow (1954) believed that if the third level of needs were unmet, individuals could display psychological angst and turmoil.

The fourth level of needs focuses on self-esteem, fulfillment, sense of worth, and admiration. Lastly, Maslow advocated that people have the need to self-actualize. Self-actualization occurs when all other needs levels are met and individuals begin striving to reach their own distinctive growth. Even if all lower needs are met, people would still be dissatisfied unless they reached their level of self-actualization. Maslow stated, “A musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately at peace with himself. What a man can be, he must be. This need we may call self-actualization” (Maslow, 1954, p. 91).

**Herzberg’s two factory theory.** Herzberg’s two factor theory (1966) primarily attempted to explain motivation as it pertains to the completion of work. Leading to the creation of his theory, Herzberg interviewed a sample representative of the industry in
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. To understand more about job satisfaction, 200 engineers and accountants were asked about work-related experiences that either increased or decreased their satisfaction levels related to work. Participants were asked to recall thoughts and emotions that impacted their execution of work, friendships and associations, and overall comfort. Following those inquiries, participants were asked about a time in which they had experiences that led to negative feelings about their job (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959).

In Herzberg’s theory, job satisfaction was not measured on a linear continuum. There were both job dissatisfaction and job satisfaction that resulted separately from divergent “factors” and existed on separate scales. The factors were based on either motivational factors (satisfaction) or environmental factors (dissatisfaction). The factors that contribute to job satisfaction included accomplishment, acknowledgment, the actual occupation, dependability, and opportunity for growth (Herzberg et al., 1959). The factors that contributed to job dissatisfaction included organizational rules, management, the work environment, income, position, and occupational security. A key proposition of Herzberg’s theory is that job dissatisfaction does not mean there is a deficiency in satisfaction, and it does not predict the performance of the employee.

Locke’s value theory. Locke (1976) stated that job satisfaction occurs when work adds value to the individual’s life. Locke described a value as “that which one regards as conducive to one’s welfare. A value is what a person consciously or subconsciously desires, wants or seeks to attain” (p. 1304).
Locke’s value theory (1976) proposes a unique look at how individuality can lead to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction as individuals determine what factors they place value upon in the workplace. When a factor has value and is achieved, it is more likely that it will increase job satisfaction (Landy, 1978). For example, if someone values working with other people and the public, they will likely have a higher job satisfaction level than if they worked at a job that required them to remain more solitarily confined.

Locke and Herme (1986) also offered a comprehensive evaluation of several variables pertaining to job satisfaction. Locke was one of the earliest theorists to explore the conditions and events at work and the agents, including self, supervisors, and coworkers, to understand the role that these variables play in job satisfaction.

*Theory of work adjustment.* The theory of work adjustment was created by Rene Dawis, George England, and Lloyd Lofquist (1964) and is highly regarded and commonly used to explain job satisfaction (Lyons & O’Brien, 2006). This theory focuses on the individual or person (P) and the environment (E). Specifically, this theory addresses the interaction of P with E to account for behavioral outcomes.

There are two constructs that explain the relationship linking P with E (Dawis et al., 1964). The first of these is the *fit.* Fit describes the extent to which a P’s character matches E. An illustration of fit is in a work environment where workers with dissimilar abilities and outlooks have contrasting occupations because each job necessitates special talents and aptitudes. The second construct, *interaction,* implies that the relationship between a P and E is based on a reciprocal relationship. According to the theory of work adjustment, employees and their job environment have the potential to change (Dawis,
In regard to change, employees who experience job dissatisfaction have the ability to adapt to the work environment by talking with their supervisors. The supervisor or organization can then respond by asking the employees to demonstrate why there needs to be changes and then change aspects about the work environment if deemed necessary.

The theorists behind the theory of work adjustment also predicted that this model would be applicable to people of color (Dawis, 2000). They suggested that race and ethnicity could account for where cultural factors may impact the fit between P and E, thus having an influence on an individual’s job satisfaction (Lyons & O’Brien, 2006).

According to Frank Landy and Jeffery Conte (2007), theorists still continue to develop theories and measurements to explain and assess job satisfaction. However inclusive or exclusive these theories may be, their applicability is dependent on the study and understanding of how a specific group’s lived experience and history adds to the understanding of factors that contribute to improving or reducing job satisfaction (Tack & Patitu, 1992).

**African Americans’ job satisfaction.** Many researchers have concluded that there may be divergent ways that Whites and African Americans think about, experience, and utilize employment (Hill, 2009; Wooten & Finley-Hervey 2003). In general, research reveals that in comparison to Whites, African Americans generally report lower levels of job satisfaction (Austin & Dodge, 1992; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990; Tuch & Martin, 1991), which contradicts some studies that suggest African Americans experience job satisfaction at higher levels than Whites (Bartell, 1981;
McNelly, 1989; Mueller, Finley, Iverson, & Price, 1999). There is also a body of research that suggests that no differences exist between the two groups relative to job satisfaction (Hurtado & Ponjuan, 2005; Katzell, Ewen, & Korman, 1974; McNeely, 1987; Moch, 1980; O’Reilly & Roberts, 1973). It is evident when scanning the literature that studies related to African American job satisfaction have focused primarily on comparing African Americans with their White counterparts and have neglected variables within the groups that may contribute to these differences (i.e., racial identity or perceived racial climate).

Tuch and Martin (1991), in their study examining race and job satisfaction between African Americans and Whites, were interested in the existence and cause of the differences between these groups. The study examined the possible rationalization of the differences between each group. The first explanation focused on a structural perspective that centered on objective job rewards that affect all workers similarly. The second explanation implied a distinction between the two groups, because each race differs in terms of the needs and values required of workplaces. The researchers asserted that it is important to understand job satisfaction because it correlated closely with issues of absenteeism, productivity levels, substance abuse, job loyalty, and overall life quality.

Tuch and Martin (1991) evaluated data sets from 1985, 1987, 1988, and 1989, collected from the National Opinion Research Center’s General Social Surveys (Davis, 1989). The information from the surveys was based on full probability sampling designs and represented noninstitutionalized adult populations in the United States. The authors focused on data related to workers’ job satisfaction levels, sociodemographics, workplace
characteristics, and work values. To assess for Whites and Blacks separately, the data was analyzed by regressing job satisfaction on demographics and job variables. The sample was restricted to part-time and full-time workers.

There were a total of 2,517 cases, composed of 271 African Americans and 2,246 Whites. The average age for African Americans was 38.90 years; for Whites it was 39.58 years. Information regarding the number of females and males was not reported. Several patterns emerged from the research. White respondents had job satisfaction levels that were higher, and African Americans’ were reportedly lower (Tuch & Martin, 1991). The study also revealed that African Americans valued more extrinsic variables, such as maintaining relationships and helping others, and placed lower values on the variables related to the structure of the job, which was thought to increase job satisfaction levels.

Roy Austin and Hiroko Dodge (1992), analyzed overall attitudinal differences between African Americans and Whites. The researchers were not specifically studying job satisfaction, but it was included as a variable of interest. The authors also analyzed data from the General Social Survey. The national surveys collected were from 1973, 1974, 1976, 1977, 1980, 1982, 1984, 1985, and 1987, earlier than the Tuch and Martin (1971) survey data. Austin and Dodge hypothesized that African Americans who experienced discrimination would face lowered levels of satisfaction in assorted aspects of their life, including employment.

The authors limited their description of the sample and reported that data from 1,500 participants. Information was collected on participants’ background information, including socioeconomic status, age, and gender. Job satisfaction was assessed with one
question in the survey: “On the whole, how satisfied are you with the work you do—would you say you are very satisfied, moderately satisfied, a little dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied?” (Austin & Dodge, 1992, pg. 585)

The authors reported that African Americans were more dissatisfied in their jobs compared to Whites (Austin & Dodge, 1992). The dissatisfaction was consistent with African Americans across the socioeconomic spectrum. The researchers also found that African American women had greater levels of job dissatisfaction than their male counterparts.

The study by Jeffery Greenhaus, Saroj Parasuraman, and Wayne Wormley (1990) explored further how race may impact workers’ job satisfaction. The authors predicted that due to the bias African American workers experienced, they would encounter fewer affirmative work incidents and lower scores on work performance assessments, which would impact their job satisfaction.

In the study, data was collected from 373 African Americans and 455 Whites who were employed as managers at three companies. There were a total of 228 women and 140 men whom were African American and 221 women and 231 men who were White in the final overall sample. The researchers tried to find managers who were comparable in age, amount of time employed, occupational role, and position within the company. The participant’s average age was reported as 38.72 with a salary that ranged from $30,000 to $39,000.

Each participant took surveys that assessed job satisfaction, experience within the company, and vocational results. In addition, the supervisors of the managers completed
assessments to evaluate the participant’s performance and potential to be promoted in the company. The results of the study concluded that, African American managers in comparison to White managers experienced reduced amounts of positive experiences with the organization. Additionally, when the African Americans were evaluated, they had fewer opportunities for promotion and lower assessment scores on their evaluations. The study also confirmed the researchers’ hypothesis that the African American participants would be less satisfied with their jobs in comparison to the White participants.

Some researchers have found that African American workers have a higher level of job satisfaction than Whites (Bartell, 1981; McNelly, 1989) or that no difference exists (Katzell et al., 1974; Moch, 1980). Weaver (1998) offered a twofold explanation to account for the differences. This first limitation, Weaver noted, was that several of the research projects did not have an adequate sample of African Americans participating in their study. The studies may have been looking at a limited quantity of companies to obtain their sample. Weaver stated that instead of attributing the findings to employment as a whole, the results should be referenced to that particular group of organizations. In addition, Weaver pointed out that many researchers had poor response rates or simply did not report the response rate. Weaver further stated that the inadequate sample size may be a factor for the findings.

**African American faculty job satisfaction.** Historical accounts of minority scholars in higher education are almost entirely absent from the standard histories of the American education system (Turner & Myers, 2000). This in part could be attributed to
White institutions traditionally excluding minority scholars from their facilities and from academic discourse altogether. When initially accepted into teaching at HWIs, African American scholars’ research was unpublished and even unrecorded (Weinberg, 1977). A collection of writings about college professors and their concerns within academia (Finnegan, Webster, & Gamson, 1996) acknowledged the many obstacles that prevented African American faculty with opportunities for entrée before the Civil Rights Acts of 1964. The collection illustrated the abundance of literature focusing on White male faculty and the absence of studies involving faculty of color prior to the 1980s. Other collections and books have composed and presented the historically unwelcoming environment for faculty of color in the past. Current scholars continue to lack exposure and access to information concerning the contributions of African Americans in a variety of academic areas (Turner & Myers, 2000).

While several research studies focus on the workplace satisfaction of faculty members as a whole (Hagedorn, 1996; Sanderson, Phua, & Herda, 2000; Valadez & Anthony, 2001), many neglect to address the influence of culture and societal factors such as racism, social isolation, departmental support, or climate (Johnson, Bradley, Knight, & Bradshaw, 2007). These are factors that are often experienced by faculty who are African American.

Yolanda Niemann and John Dovidio (1998) examined reports of job satisfaction of African American faculty who worked in psychology departments at a variety of universities in the United States. It was hypothesized that in positions where they were
the only racial minority (solo status), the individuals who held an inferior rank academically would have lowered job satisfaction.

The study included Asian, African American, Hispanic, and White faculty from university psychology departments. In the study of 513 respondents 219 were women and 280 men. Whites accounted for 247 participants; African Americans, 88; Hispanics, 50; Asians, 63; Arabs, 6; and 34 others.

Participant information was gathered with instruments that included items examining perceived climate in departments and job satisfaction. Using a Likert scale, responses were rated with 1 representing strongly agree, and 7 representing strongly disagree. In the Niemann and Dovidio (1998) study, questions related to perceived climate included, “In my department, it takes longer for minority faculty to prove themselves than it does for White faculty” (p. 63); “The activities of minority faculty are monitored more closely than are those of White faculty” (p. 63); and “At work, I feel like I’m in a glass house” (p. 63). Items related to job satisfaction included, “I find fulfillment in my work,” “I feel free to do the work that is important to me,” and “I am satisfied with my job.”

The study utilized a hierarchical multiple regression analysis in regard to race and academic rankings. The findings demonstrate minority faculty within specified settings were reportedly satisfied less than Whites (Niemann & Dovidio, 1998). African Americans were significantly less satisfied with their jobs, Hispanics were reportedly somewhat less satisfied with their jobs than were Whites, and Asians were a bit more satisfied.
April Berrian (2006) conducted a study with African American and White faculty to examine variations in job satisfaction. The author sought to identify sources of general job dissatisfaction that influenced the turnover of African Americans faculty members. Berrian examined potential sources of what could have been contributed to solo status held by African Americans, such as insufficient departmental support and perceived inequality.

The participants were from HBCUs and HWIs. This study had 170 subjects participate, with 110 men and 60 women. African Americans represented 74 individuals in the study sample and 96 were White. Study participants completed a self-report survey about level of satisfaction on the job, opportunities for advancement and promotion, salary, supervision, and colleagues. Participants also answered questions regarding fair treatment received in departmental procedures and rewards and the degree of support by the department in achievement of specific tasks. The specific measures used were a demographics questionnaire, the Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al., 1969), the Departmental Support Scale (Dawis, 2000), and the Distributive Justice Index (DJI) (Price & Mueller, 1986).

Results indicated a significant difference of perceived departmental support and job satisfaction between the two types of universities, with faculty at the predominantly Black university reporting less perceived departmental support and less job satisfaction than faculty at the predominantly White university. Significant differences were also found on perceived departmental support and fairness among White and African American faculty members. African American faculty perceived that they were
supported less by their departments and were treated less fairly than White faculty (Berrian, 2006).

Carol Logan (1990) examined the difference in African American faculty job satisfaction at HBCUs and HWIs in the South. Overall, 28 collegiate institutions had participants in the study. The author sampled participants from 13 HBCUs and from 15 HWIs. Job satisfaction was assessed with the Job Descriptive Index along the following subscales: (a) Work on the Present Job, (b) Present Duties, (c) Opportunities for Promotion, (d) Supervision, and (e) Coworkers. The investigator also used a demographic questionnaire to determine age, tenure status, salary, faculty rank, number of years of experience, gender, and size of institution.

Results indicated a significant difference between participants at the two types of universities on the Opportunities for Promotion, Supervision, and Coworkers subscales. Blacks at predominantly Black institutions reported greater opportunities for promotion, more collegial support, and better supervision than Blacks at predominantly White institutions (Logan, 1990).

It is evident in the literature that African Americans have varied work experiences in terms of hiring, salary, and layoffs. Historically, African Americans have disproportionately held unskilled and low-paid positions. African Americans who have completed higher education and have worked in semiprofessional and professional positions often report feeling discriminated against in the selection process. If they are successful in being employed, they tend to experience discrimination in promotion and advancement (Winkler, 2000).
Consistent with the literature of African Americans in general, job satisfaction levels are lower in comparison to Whites in higher education. In collegiate institutions, job satisfaction can be subjected to the atmosphere, among other issues (Hill, 2009).

**Gender and African American faculty job satisfaction.** Although some studies have researched job satisfaction of faculty, fewer have focused specifically on African Americans and even less have focused on gender-based differences in job satisfaction levels of African American faculty (Sabharwa & Corley, 2009). Kusum Singh, Adriane Robinson, and Joyce Williams-Green (1995) are part of the small number of researchers who examined levels of job satisfaction among between African American male and female faculty and administrators.

The authors (Singh et al., 1995) were interested in several aspects of differences between African American faculty and administrators, including overall work satisfaction levels, perception of organizational climate and policies, differences in promotion process, and level of difference in position type. A total of 1054 faculty and administrators participated in the study with a response rate of 39%. Of the study participants, 51.3% were female and 48.7% were male. In the study of 413 participants, 167 identified as holding faculty positions.

The researchers created the Black Instructional Faculty and Administrators Satisfaction Survey to obtain data related to the participant’s job, perception of the organizations policy and procedures, perception of promotion process and over satisfaction at their place of employment (Singh et al., 1995). The survey had 70 items, and participants responded using a 4-point Likert scale.
Results concluded that African American women faced a twofold burden of sexism and racism at their specific college or university (Singh et al., 1995). In addition men were more likely to be promoted and reported higher levels of satisfaction. Women faculty and administrators reported more experiences of discrimination, lowered perceptions of positive work climates and lowered overall satisfaction in the work place.

This study illuminates the importance of differentiating and distinguishing how gender may or may not contribute variance in job satisfaction in addition to perceived racial climate and racial identity of African American faculty at HWIs.

**Measurement of job satisfaction.** Several assessments are available for measuring job satisfaction. Landy and Conte (2007) state that researchers are resistant to using assessment tools created by a different investigator other than themselves; therefore job satisfaction surveys and assessment tools flourish abundantly. Methods of measuring job satisfaction include questionnaires, interviews, and the critical incident method.

The critical incident method allows participants to describe unpleasant and pleasant facets of the job while the investigator looks for fundamental themes. This qualitative form of research requires the researcher to be highly trained in the skills of data collection and analysis. When initially studying job satisfaction, researchers heavily relied on interviews. Interviewing was used to generate empirical information by asking participants to discuss and explain their experiences. Structured, semistructured, and unstructured interviews have been used for many years in researching job satisfaction, but this format is often expensive and susceptible to biases by the study investigator (Landy & Conte, 2007).
Job satisfaction can be a very personal and subjective topic, and questionnaires are currently the most commonly used assessment tool. The literature supports the benefits of the questionnaire because of its cost-effectiveness, anonymity for participants, and ability for mass administration at one time. With all participants receiving the same questions, it allows for analysis, interpretation, and generalizability of data (Landy & Conte, 2007). The Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) are instruments that are frequently cited in the literature.

Patricia Smith, Lorne Kendall, and Charles Hulin (1969) created the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). This instrument has been used widely in research related to job satisfaction and in studies pertaining to business and organizations. Job satisfaction is measured in five subscales related to work: the work itself, supervision, people, pay, and promotion. Each subscale contains a small phrase or adjective in a list. Subjects select “Y” for “yes” beside the phrases that pertain to a particular characteristic of their work. If the phrases do not depict that facet of their work, subjects are asked to select “N” for “no.” Participants also have an option to mark a “?” if they cannot decide.

When scoring the JDI, “yes” as an answer to a positive question or “no” for a negative item equals three points. Should subjects answer with “?” on any item, they receive one point. Zero points are scored for answering “yes” to negative questions or “no” to positive questions. The JDI validity and reliability coefficients range from the .80 to .90 range (Logan, 1990; Smith et al., 1969).
The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss et al., 1967) is another satisfaction questionnaire that is widely used (Landy & Conte, 2007). While the JDI consists of 72 questions to evaluate job satisfaction, the MSQ assesses the more refined aspects of job satisfaction. The MSQ is unique as it allows for calculations of intrinsic and extrinsic scores related to job satisfaction.

The MSQ evaluates 20 subscales, including ability utilization, achievement, activity, independence, variety, compensation, security, working conditions, opportunity for advancement, recognition, authority, social status, coworkers, moral values, social service, reactions to company policies and practices, the human relations aspects of supervision, the technical aspects of supervision, creativity, and responsibility (Weiss et al., 1967, p.2).

The MSQ asks participants to evaluate their satisfaction with a variety of characteristics related to their job using a 5-point Likert scale. The scales range from 1 through 5 with 1 meaning “Very Dissatisfied” and 5 “Very Satisfied.” Some example questions on the MSQ are “The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities,” and “The way company policies are put into place” (Weiss et al., 1967, p. 31). The areas are added together to establish an overall score. Scores that are higher signify a greater level of job satisfaction versus scores that are lower. The MSQ has a reported full-scale reliability coefficient between .87 to .92. For this study, the reliability coefficient was .86.
Racial Identity

**Historical development of race construct.** The concept race was not always prevalent in American society. Although the origination of the word “race” is uncertain, it is said to have emerged as part of the English language during the sixteenth century. Social scientists, including anthropologists, state that there has been significant disagreement in defining race (Hays & Chang, 2003). The term has notoriously acquired a vague and confused meaning that has persisted to the present day.

The earliest efforts to systematically arrange human groups were made in the eighteenth century (Landy & Conte, 2007). These early classifications took the most obvious physical trait, skin color, as their basis. The Dutch Linnaeus, Carol Linne, detailed information and listed four “races,” representing the type of human being inhabiting the four largest continents. Later German J. F. Blumenbach expanded on the concepts to distinguish five races of people based on distinctions of color, hair, and descriptive features of the skull and face (Bunche, 1936). They were Caucasian, Mongolian, Ethiopian, American, and Malayan. Later, F. Muller created a new classification including hair texture and established 17 main races and 29 sub-races (Bunche, 1936). Among those were the Negroid race, which was characterized by dark pigmentation, frizzy hair, full lips, broad nose, long arms and legs, and comparatively little bodily hairiness.

As society has progressed, scholars agree that race has taken on close ties with economic and political policy for dominant groups and industrialized nations (West, 1993). For example, the United States has historically used race as a classification tool to
protect the privileges of Whites (Hays & Chang, 2003). Because of race, African Americans have suffered prolonged injustice, terrorization, mob violence, lynching, rape, inadequate educational facilities, political disfranchisement, and severe economic exploitation (Bunche, 1936). Hays and Chang (2003) assert that the hierarchal structure of U.S. society across multiple domains places minorities in a position of oppression and inferiority, thus impacting their individual and collective identity.

**Racial identity theory development.** The concept of race in the United States is multifaceted and often elusive (Harris, 1995). In addition, there is no consensus among investigators regarding its definition. To understand how race impacts specific groups of individuals, theories regarding racial identity development began to emerge. Racial identity is a “sense of group or collective identity based on one’s perception that he or she shares a common racial heritage with a particular group” (Helms, 1990, p. 3).

Similar to race, racial identity also became poorly understood and highly debated. Some definitions of racial identity were based on genetic perspectives while others were from societal perspectives (Helms, 1995; Spickard, 1992). When racial identity was viewed from a genetic group, the focus was a derivative of bodily characteristics. When utilizing this perspective, Whites were structured at the top of the hierarchy with great physical and moral superiority. Trailing behind were Asian Americans, Native Americans, and lastly African Americans (Spickard, 1992). Limiting racial identity to genetic perspectives is laden with discriminatory factors but also demonstrates how it is socially constructed (Helms, 1990). The notion of racial identity typically gets framed in a context where people are grouped with other persons of color based on their skin.
However, in the United States, the concept was utilized to label people so that others would declare them dissimilar (Harris, 1995).

**Black racial identity development.** Kenneth Clark and Mamie Clark (1939) were African American psychologists who pioneered the evolution of research on how Black identity developed. Their study focused on how children, particularly African Americans, developed preference and identification in regard to their race. Overall, 253 children who identified as African American participated in the research and were divided into groups from the southern and northern United States. The children gave their preference regarding four dolls and pictures that ranged from a white complexion to a brown complexion. The African American children had a tendency to select the pictures and dolls that were White versus the ones that depicted African Americans. Also, the children drew with shades that were lighter when asked to draw using colors that were equal to their own skin color. The results indicate that a child begins to become aware of race roughly at three years old. Results also indicated that at the same age they were already conscious of potential rewards or negative attributes socially assigned to Black or White racial groups (Cross, 1991).

This study not only contributed to understanding how racial identity develops but also brought racial identity to the forefront of race relations in the United States. Kenneth Clark testified in the Brown versus the Board of Education hearing about race (1954). During Clark’s testimony he stated,

Like other human beings who are subjected to an obviously inferior status in the society in which they live, they have been definitely harmed in the development
of their personalities; that the signs of instability in their personalities are clear, and I think that every psychologist would accept and interpret these signs as such.

(as cited in Beggs, 1995, p. 10)

His statements contributed to the court’s ruling that segregation based on race was unconstitutional (Cross, 1991). This decision was recognized as an example where the court’s finding was more reliant on a researcher’s statement than on an already recognized pre-standing law (Beggs, 1995).

Shortly thereafter, several scholars embarked on developing theoretical explanations of how African Americans moved throughout phases to develop their identity in regard to race (Helms, 1990). The earliest model regarding racial identity development was the theories of Nigrescence by Charles Thomas (1971) and William Cross (1995). Nigrescence refers to the French term that means progression in becoming Black (Cross, 1994).

Racial identity as conceptualized by Thomas (1971) presented the concept of negromachy. Negromachy was considered a condition where Black Americans had confusion of self-worth and were overly dependent on Whites for their definition of self (Cross 1978). Cross’s depiction of negromachy paralleled the characteristics of children found in the studies of Clark and Clark, but it applied to adult Black Americans. According to Thomas (1971), these individuals often demonstrated conduct such as conformity, submissiveness, introverted anger, and excessive sympathy regarding concerns of race.
Thomas (1971) also theorized that the notion of negromachy was conquerable by seeking racial identity as a medium for understanding and discovering one’s unity with humankind. Thomas’s model consisted of five stages, but none contained an identifiable name. In redefining racial identity, individuals begin to slowly decrease their sense of worth. Next, African Americans recognize societal bias, then empower themselves by creating a sense of worth reliant on their own unique characteristics. The final stage results in African Americans standing up in opposition to societal tyranny and biases.

William Cross (1971) also similarly speculated on the Nigresence Theory. However, Cross recognized that as early as 1883, racial identity conversations were taking place, as noted by the experience of scholar W. E. B. DuBois (Cross, 1994). Cross recognized that DuBois discussed a new identity formation while completing his undergraduate studies at Fisk University between 1883 and 1888. DuBois proclaimed he became a Negro as the product of enduring racism in the South and even began to call himself “The New Negro.” Because of this, Cross recognized DuBois’ experience as one of the earliest written records of Nigresence (Cross, 1994).

In the Cross (1994) model of Nigresence Theory, there were a total of five stages, with most theorists utilizing four of the stages. The stages consisted of Pre-encounter, Encounter, Immersion-Emersion, Internalization, and Internalization-Commitment. The initial stage of Pre-encounter is one of pre-change, where the idea of race is given little salience because of denying self. Individuals may have another identity that dominates, such as religious orientation. They may have a functional identity, but Black is somewhat insignificant in the overall scheme. The second stage, Encounter,
characterizes dealings as well as occurrences that cause individuals to sense that change is needed. During this stage, individuals typically have an encounter that moves them into a state of confusion and disorientation. These experiences leave individuals feeling as if they have been miseducated and are not Black enough. The third stage, Immersion-Emergence, identifies the peak in changing as the battle occurs with the former identity and the evolving one. In this stage individuals are immersed into their own race and characterize a high expression of racial identity. During the fourth stage, Internalization, a greater comfort and the new identity becomes internalized. A group-centered identity has evolved but also involvement with other groups can occur, including with those that are White. In the final and fifth stage of Internalization-Commitment, individuals embrace group connections with the least degree of defensiveness, and they revisit their personal identity while linking themselves to all human beings.

The Nigresence theory influenced the further development of racial identity models, along with cultural identity models, White identity models, and womanist identity models. Janet Helms and Thomas Parham (1990) are credited with expanding and clarifying elements of the African American identity development created by Cross. The Black Racial Identity model (Helms & Parham, 1984) was theorized and converted into a scale that would be able to measure the racial identity of African Americans.

In contrast to Cross’s model of Nigrescence, Helms adapted the Black Racial Identity model to consider distinct worldviews as a template for helping individuals organize and understand concepts pertaining to race and applying them to self, Whites, and organizations (Helms, 1990). Helm’s theory suggested that each worldview or stage
is suggestive of the person’s cognitive maturation level when interacting with societal forces. The initial Pre-encounter stage mirrors Cross’s (1994) stages, where people think of themselves as non-Black. In this stage, individual thoughts are dominated by the White American position and orientation. The Encounter stage is characterized by questioning the old identity because of a distressing event caused by an encounter at an event or with a person. In the third stage of Immersion/Emersion, individuals begin to connect with everything Black and separate from all that is White. During this stage individuals withdraw from White society to become completely emersed in their Black identity. This stage contains anger and anxiety. The final stage, Internalization, is where people begin to achieve inner peace about their Blackness. A general decrease in anti-White feelings occurs, and ideological flexibility instead of reasoning based on emotions becomes more prominent (Helms & Parham, 1984).

The stages eventually evolved into being called statuses because it was clarified that each schema did not progress linearly as in development stages. As well, a clarification in the title of the Encounter being renamed Post-Encounter. This is to more accurately reflect that the change in thinking occurred after a specific encounter.

**Black racial identity and job satisfaction.** Racial identity may explain the career experiences (e.g., job satisfaction) of African American faculty members. A sociopolitical premise about race in vocational counseling and psychology regards Blacks as operating and functioning in a work environment in which they have little control or influence (Helms & Piper, 1994). Within this framework, racial identity theory is a mechanism through which people can nurture a sound racial identity in environments
where the socially constructed attributions of their racial group deny them sociopolitical power, including entrée and access in the world of work (Helms & Piper, 1994).

Helms (1995) postulated that differential access to rewards and punishments dependent on race, would make racial group identity an important part of the individual’s psychosocial identity. Furthermore, she suggested that identity development is dependent on a combination of situational factors, which include intrapsychic dissonance and race-related environmental pressure, along with cognitive ability. Racial identity theory, which addresses individual differences, could possibly explain job satisfaction, but this has not yet been empirically validated (Helms & Piper, 1994).

There are currently voids in the literature examining the relationship between job satisfaction and racial identity (Byars-Winston, 2010). However, there are several collected works regarding African American faculty personally discussing how their view of their own individual and collective identification to their racial group impacts their satisfaction on the job at HWIs (Cooper, 2006; Jones & Akbar, 2000; Mabokela & Green, 2001; Turner & Myers, 2008; Vargas, 2002).

There are also studies that have been conducted that examined the importance of racial identity in the psychological health of African Americans. Pillay (2005) conducted a study on the impact of gender, acculturation, and Black racial identity attitudes on African American college students at a predominantly White institution in the Midwest.

A total sample population of 136 African American students, 82 women and 54 men ranging in age from 18 to 24, participated in the study. Each participant completed the Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale (Parham & Helms, 1981), the African American
Acculturation Scale (Landrine & Klonoff, 1994), the Mental Health Inventory (Veit & Ware, 1983), and a demographic questionnaire (Pillay, 2005).

The author reports that racial identity attitudes were predictors of psychological health in African American college students at a predominantly White institution. More specifically, Encounter and Pre-encounter had a significant impact on the psychological health and well-being of participants. As the researcher predicted, racial identity’s impact on psychological health was above and beyond that of gender and acculturation.

**Measurement of black racial identity.** Several instruments were developed to measure Black racial identity (Milliones, 1980; Sellers, Rowley, Chavous, Shelton, & Smith, 1997; Vandiver et al., 2001). For this study, the Parham and Helms (1984) Black Racial Identity Attitudes Scale (BRIAS; formerly the RIAS-B) was used.

The BRIAS (Helms & Parham, 1996) categorizes four racial identity attitudes: Pre-Encounter, Post-Encounter, Immersion/Emersion, and Internalization. Each of these scales represents a developmental process from a lack of understanding to appreciating race as it relates to self (Cross, 1971). The BRIAS (Helms & Parham, 1996) continues to be widely used, thus providing reliability and validity information across diverse groups of African Americans.

The BRIAS was originally administered to 250 college and university students ranging in age from 17 to 72 years. The study yielded the following subscale reliability coefficients: Pre-Encounter = .76; Post-Encounter = .51; Immersion/Emersion = .69; Internalization = .80. Noticeably, the Post-Encounter subscale is quite modest in comparison to the other reliability subscale scores. In reflection, the Post-Encounter
stage is when an individual has a critical incident involving race (i.e., hearing a racial slur by a White counterpart or witnessing a racially charged event). The encounter encourages the individual to be cognizant and deliberately develop a Black racial identity while viewing the world through the lens of a Black experience. Due to this critical incident or event, an individual in the Post-Encounter ego status is continuously interpreting the condition of Blacks in America (Cross, 1971). To this, Helms pointed out that lower scores for Post-Encounter are attributable to varying temperament in thoughts found in this ego status, further indicating the difficulty in “measuring a phenomenon consistently if the phenomenon itself is not consistent” (Helms, 1990, p. 44). Overall, reliability scores of the BRIAS are moderate and favorably compared to those of other nonculture specific personality measures (Pillay, 2005). For this study the reliability coefficients were: Pre-Encounter = .68; Post-Encounter = .77; Immersion/Emersion = .86; Internalization = .76.

**Racial Climate**

**Organizational racial climate.** An institution’s climate represents an important depiction of the overall environment. By examining the thinking, outlook, and standards sustained over time by the institution’s members, researchers can inspect the climate thereby providing an explanation of the cultural views of the organization (Pieterse, Carter, Evans, & Walter, 2010). An institution’s climate, while representing ideals of how its members should interact, can be viewed as positive or negative, or sympathetic or nonsympathetic.
When a collective group of persons possesses greater authority than that of an individual, it quickly can generate an atmosphere where the socially ascribed superior members place themselves in the center and marginalize the social ascribed inferior members. The individuals who possess greater power become customized as the model, and being in that group can make it harder to see the benefits received. Having socially ascribed power as tradition creates a predicament, in that it creates a system of hierarchy to be established (Hale, 2004).

Racial climate is the atmosphere that majority group members create in an organization that addresses organized racism and employees’ race as it relates to interpersonal procedures, as well as the process of making decisions, and the employee incentive structure (Barbarin & Gilbert, 1981; Jackson & Carter, 2007; Watts & Carter, 1991). Racial climate is based largely on examining the concept of racism in an institution (Watts & Carter, 1991). Judith Holder and Alan Vaux (1998) expanded the concept by stating that the climate impact on race in an organization stems from the perception of how race and discrimination at work are decided, based on the environment’s objective characteristics as well as subjective personal characteristics.

**History of racism in higher education.** The history of racism in academia began with the origin of institutions of higher learning (Smith, Altback, & Lomotey, 2002). Although a few colleges were known to accept racial minorities, many HWIs were built on limiting entrance and excluding the opportunity for racial minorities.

Past accounts of prohibiting various racial groups from access can continue to perpetuate an atmosphere where racial diversity is not appreciated and create a negative
undertone in the current racial climate (Hurtado, 1992). Overt racism continues to exist in higher education institutions, but most of the time it is subtle (Reid & Radhakrishnan, 2003). Although it may be less common than in previous eras, racism continues to surface in higher education (Reid & Radhakrishnan, 2003; Turner & Myers, 2000; West 1993).

However, one cannot fairly discuss and assess current racism and racial climate in higher education without considering the history, role, purpose, and special mission of HWIs (Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pedersen, & Walter, 1999). During the chronological beginnings and fight toward access for equal education of African Americans, racial climate could be better understood because of the role the legal system played in suppressing the rights of African Americans in an attempt to keep White Americans elevated in the societal hierarchy (Byrd-Chichester, 2000).

The shift in this hierarchy began with minor changes when Congress approved the Morrill Land Grant Act in 1862 (Alexander, 2005). This declaration gave states the opportunity to use land to create colleges. However, the newly established colleges were for White citizens. Before the Civil War, college access for African Americans was virtually nonexistent. Shortly after the war ended, African Americans began the fight to enjoy the civil liberties afforded by being a citizen, which included formalized education. Another land act was passed by Congress in 1890, essentially for African Americans, creating sixteen colleges, most of which were in the South (Alexander, 2005).

The U.S. Supreme Court’s decision in Plessy v. Ferguson (1896) negatively affected education and other areas of social life. From the beginning, this ruling
permitted states to implement educational policies that clearly discriminated against African Americans. Before the court ruling segregation was the way of life, a fact first acknowledged in the national policy by the Morrill Act of 1890. This act required states that had segregated educational systems to split any funding received through the government between both White and Black institutions (Brown, 2001).

The *Plessy* decision for public and higher-education institutions began to take precedence because it mandated the practice of separate but equal, and also because of the scope the case had given to the concept of equality under states’ rights (Alexander, 2005). However, the decision also accepted the legal definition of race that was already being employed by states to allocate public and private funds prejudicially and upheld state autonomy in educational policy making (Alexander, 2005; Brown 2001).

*Plessy* and other cases such *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* (1954) illuminated that the physical separation of the races was a central component of America’s racist social order. The Supreme Court’s *Brown* ruling served as a public blow to the nation’s racial hierarchy (Brown, 2001). Even with the necessary legal system requiring African Americans admittance to colleges in the 1960s, HWIs continued to aggressively resist. Legal battles were initiated by many states in the South for “interposing” their own state-level authority to decide about the federal-level mandates for desegregation (Milem, Clayton-Pedersen, & Allen, 1999; Resolution of Interposition, 1956). Confrontations took place at several schools that formerly admitted only White students. Governor George Wallace historically blocked the door to the University of Alabama to prevent Vivian Malone and James Hood from entering. His historic stand at
the school’s door when a federal judge ordered the students admitted to the University of Alabama marked the beginning of struggles for African Americans gaining entrance at HWIs (Smith et al., 2002).

After massive struggles for equal liberties during the 1960s, several universities and colleges began to foster procedures to further disband environments put into place by segregation, through affirmative action strategies (Hurtado et al., 1999). Under the banner of preventing so-called reverse discrimination, the challenge to these efforts began immediately. This was just the beginning of what would turn into an aggressive campaign to challenge measures that supported race consciousness in the hope of accomplishing desegregation on all educational levels (Smith et al., 2002). Ironically, after decades of racial discrimination, modest efforts to bring Blacks into mainstream education were immediately challenged as going too far and discriminating against Whites (Hurtado et al., 1999).

The residue from segregation continues to have an influence on climates regarding race and diversity in institutions of higher education (Hurtado, 1992). Opposition can be seen in the preservation of outdated university policies and strategic plans at HWIs that seek to serve a homogenous group, thus neglecting approaches and actions that aim to increase the interface of issues about racial diversity (Hurtado et al., 1999). HWIs undoubtedly need to be much more responsive and engaged in addressing these longstanding problems.

**Racial climate in higher education.** Racial minority faculty members report different experiences as employees in the collegiate realm than their White counterparts
(Turner & Myers, 2000). Differences may be a result of the history of oppression because HWIs originally catered and benefited White faculty, especially White men (Aguirre, 2000). Discriminatory practices regarding race, specifically toward African American faculty, have been reported, such as limited opportunity for advancement, more assignment to participate in service committees, social seclusion, and reduced recognition of studies that focus on race (Hurtado et al., 1999).

Joseph Silver, Rodney Dennis, and Curtis Spikes (1988) conducted a survey of African Americans’ experiences and perceptions while working at predominantly White institutions. A total of 460 participants were surveyed about attitudes and perceptions in their universities, including the aspect of racial climate. In the questions related to racial climate, participants were asked to answer the following questions: “The institution is committed to improvement in minority affairs,” “Faculty search committees have sufficient minority membership,” “The department has appropriate minority faculty representation,” “The institution has appropriate minority faculty representation,” and “My ethnic background enhances my opportunity for advancement.”

While 51.7% of respondents agreed that their institution was committed to diversity, other results about racial climate indicated the participants were not at institutions that valued racial diversity and positive racial climate (Silver et al., 1988). Over 79% disagree that their department had appropriate minority faculty representation, and 74.9% disagreed that the faculty search committees have sufficient minority membership. Moreover, 91.3% disagree that their institutions had appropriate minority
faculty representation, and 74.6% disagree that their ethnic background enhanced their opportunity for advancement.

HWIs will have to be much more responsive and engaged in addressing these long-standing problems. This will require, among other things, a new approach and significant changes in admissions standards, monetary assistance, curriculum, collegiate reputation, diversity in hiring, coupled with support, racial climate, and other support efforts for minority students (Pieterse et al., 2010).

**Perceived racial climate and job satisfaction.** Holder & Vaux (1998) conducted a study to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and other factors, including work stress (both specific to race and not related to race), the ability to embrace religion or spirituality at work, inner locus of control, and social connections. The study had a total of 112 participants who identified as African American. Each participant was selected based on working at an organization that had less than 20% African American workers. A total of 68 men and 41 women made up the sample population, with salaries greater than $40,000 per year.

Data was collected using the Racial Treatment Scale (Holder & Vaux, 1998), the Personal Discrimination Scale, and the Racial Climate Scale (Watts & Carter, 1991). The researchers also collected information regarding the internal locus of control, spiritual practices in the workplace, job satisfaction, and support from social interactions.

The researchers concluded that there was a negative relationship between stress linked to race and the employee’s job satisfaction level. In addition, negative racial climate and discriminatory practices because of race were related to the level of
satisfaction. Having social outlets and support and internal locus of control related positively in job satisfaction levels, while spirituality at work was not specifically correlated with workplace satisfaction. To summarize, researchers were able establish that stressors related to racial climate can forecast job satisfaction in African American workers (Holder & Vaux, 1998).

Cheryl Holcomb-McCoy and Carla Addison-Bradley (2005) also conducted a study investigating African American counseling professors’ job satisfaction levels and perceptions regarding racial atmosphere and climate. A total of 48 participants, 26 women and 22 men, participated in the study. Of the 48 participants, 39 reported working in accredited programs by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP), while nine did not.

The participants completed questions on job satisfaction and racial climate. Findings indicated that participants overall were “generally satisfied.” However, there was a negative relationship when assessing racial climate and job satisfaction scores (Holcomb-McCoy & Addison-Bradley, 2005). Results of this study suggested that participants were satisfied regarding work but the level of satisfaction was largely dependent on how they viewed the racial climate of their department (Holcomb-McCoy & Addison-Bradley, 2005).

**Measurement of racial climate.** Oscar Barbarin and Renee Gilbert (1981) initially developed a scale to research institutional racism. The Institutional Racism Scale (IRS) was constructed based on studies regarding racism that occurred on an institutional level. The instrument consisted of 72 items, and the scale measured the
constructs of how people construed racism on an institutional level and how they disengaged from racism. It also took into account companies’ efforts designed to reduce racism in the workplace. A total of four subscales composed the IRS: the Indices of Racism subscale, the Use of Strategies for Reducing Racism subscale, the Effectiveness of Strategies for Reducing Racism subscale, and the Personal Efforts to Reduce Racism subscale.

The first subscale consisted of items that asked individuals to rate items designed to measure racism at an institutional level. The second scale regarded the use of strategies for reducing racism and included interventions (e.g., elections and law interventions). The third subscale consisted of questions used to rate additional approaches used to reduce racism. The last scale addressed various statements that measured how individuals rated themselves in actively participating in ways to reduce racism.

Barbarin and Gilbert (1981) had three groups in their study. One group consisted of 56 participants who attended a conference related to racism on an institutional level; another was from one government agency; the third group was college students in a psychology course. The participants were all racial minorities and identified themselves as Native American, Asian American, Latino American, or African American. There was no indication of the number of participants from the agency, but a total of 48 students were reported from the third group. All participants completed pretests and posttests. The results concluded that negative racial incidents were significantly related to the climate.
Watts and Carter (1991) also studied the experience of racism. In their study, the researchers were concerned with understanding African American perceptions regarding racism in the workplace in connection with racism on an institutional level, racial climate, and individual discrimination. The authors defined institutional racism as taking place when procedures and policies inspired by the majority group, create privileges and advantages for that group but exclude and deprive all others. They described the racial climate as the perception held by individuals about the organization’s environment that replicates the relationship among objective events and traits of the company in respect to the perceivers’ values and needs. They placed personal discrimination at the most concrete level where racism is experienced, occurring in the area of employment hiring, advancement, and work appraisal.

Watts and Carter (1991) predicted that workers’ job experiences would be influenced more by racial climate than racism on the institutional level. For this study, they described racial identity as being a “psychological variable” that correlated with the participants’ race. To measure the association between the organization’s climate and racial identity, the authors used the racial climate scale and the institutional racism scale (Watts & Carter, 1991), along with the racial identity scale (Helms & Parham, 1990).

Institutional racism identified was developed based on the Barbarin and Gilbert (1981) scale to conclude what participants would associate with racism regarding institutional and policy items. Individuals responded to nine items on a 5-point scale for researchers to use for descriptions.
The Racial Climate Scale (RCS) was adapted from the Barbarin and Gilbert’s (1981) Climate for Racism scale. The 18-item scale was created to measure the perception of African Americans who are impacted by unfavorable policies and climate. The RCS consists of two subscales: the experience and intensity of racism subscale and the management power and policy subscale. The RCS is used as a global scale but conceptually created using two subscales. The first subscale examined how an individual perceived racism in personal exchanges with coworkers and on an organizational level. The second subscale determined participants’ perception of whether authority is utilized to enhance African American experiences on the job. The second scale also touched on the question of African Americans holding any advanced positions within the organization.

The personal discrimination scale assessed the type and frequency of discrimination on a personal level. The authors (Watts & Carter, 1991) collected data from 142 African American employees from a local social service organization. A total of 52 women and 90 men participated. Most individuals worked longer than 10 years and earned a salary between $25,000 and $35,000.

The results of the study concluded that racial climate and racial identity were related for participants who were at the within the Pre-encounter level of racial identity development and had positive appraisal of their organizational racial climate. In addition, participants who corresponded with the Immersion/Emersion status and the Internalization status reported more intense encounters with racism and had lower
appraisal of work experiences. Results that essentially supported personal discrimination were reported more by those in the Immersion/Emersion stage.

**Summary**

Understanding the historical development of job satisfaction theory is instrumental in grasping the concept of how job satisfaction is currently measured. Job satisfaction is a universal concept, but the experience of job satisfaction can be very different for diverse groups of people. In particular, variables such as gender, kind of job, and type of institution can elicit distinct ranges for job satisfaction. This is also true of the experiences of African Americans faculty members. Their experience of job satisfaction can be markedly different based on race-related variables as they work at HWIs.

The social construction of race, which has been historically used to create a hierarchy in society, still impacts the current climate in higher education. Attitudes of Black racial identity help to explain how African Americans interpret and adjust to the racist social order. Understanding how the perception of racial climate and Black racial identity impact job satisfaction may give a glimpse into the unique experiences of African American faculty.

The following chapter will discuss the methodology used for research. Included are hypotheses, instrumentation, and the data analysis procedure.
Chapter 3: Methodology

Chapters 1 and 2 provided an overview of the research, as well as described the theoretical support for the relationships this study sought to examine. This chapter describes the methodology used to examine the influence that gender, racial climate, and racial identity have on the job satisfaction of African American faculty at HWIs. The sections that follow highlight the research design, the sampling plan, the instruments used, and the data collection and data analysis procedures.

Research Design

The research design is a correlational study. This study explored the impact of gender, racial identity, and perceived racial climate on the job satisfaction of African American faculty at HWIs. The hypotheses for this study are:

Hypothesis 1. Gender contributes to a variance in the job satisfaction levels in African American faculty members at HWIs, as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ).

Hypothesis 2. Perceived racial climate, as measured by the Racial Climate Scale (RSC), contributes to the variance in job satisfaction of African American faculty at HWIs above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender.

Hypothesis 3. Racial identity, as measured by the Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale—Revised (BRIAS), namely Pre-encounter, Post-Encounter, Immersion/Emersion, and Internalization scales—contributes to the variance in job satisfaction above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender and racial climate.
This study utilized a hierarchical-ordered regression analysis, thus necessitating that an order be chosen for the variables, as listed in the hypotheses. This method was used for two reasons. The first is that the researcher hypothesized that Black racial identity would account for the largest amount of variance in job satisfaction in comparison to the racial climate and gender of African American faculty members.

This data was collected using the survey method. Landy and Conte (2007) assert that the advantage of using questionnaires include their cost effectiveness, anonymity for participants, and ability for mass administration at one time. Based on the low number of African American faculty at HWIs and the low response rates of mail surveys, the survey was converted to an electronic format to enhance the response rate.

**Participants**

A sample of African American faculty participants was drawn from eight pre-selected HWIs in a Midwestern state. To calculate the needed sample size, an a priori power - analysis was computed using the statistical program G*Power 3.1.2. To obtain a medium effect size as described by Cohen (1988), an alpha of .05 and effect size of .15 were entered into G*Power which determined that 98 participants were needed for the analysis.

**Sampling Plan**

A non-probability convenience sample was used to maximize participation given there are a limited number of African Americans employed as faculty members at HWIs. The researcher received contact information of possible participants from the public records office at the eight preselected public HWIs in a Midwestern state. Once the
information was compiled by the investigator, an email was sent to each faculty member inviting them to participate in the anonymous survey via a secured internet survey program, Survey Monkey.

Instrumentation

The participants of this study completed a biographical data questionnaire, the Black Racial Identity Attitudes Scale (BRIAS), the Racial Climate Scale (RCS), and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ).

Biographical data questionnaire. The biographical data sheet (see Appendix B) was created by the researcher to obtain information regarding the participants including gender, race, occupational position, and level of education. This information was used for descriptive purposes and to conduct post-hoc analysis.

Racial climate scale. The perception of racial climate was measured with the Racial Climate Scale (RCS) developed by Watts and Carter (1991). The RCS assesses individual workers’ perceptions of racial climate. It consists of 18 questions that measure the practice of making decisions, incentive system, perception of “adverse impact,” and processes on the interpersonal level. The RCS consists of two subscales: the experience and intensity of racism subscale (which measures perceptions of racial discrimination from personal exchanges and on an organizational level) and the management power and policy subscale (which measures perceptions of whether authority is utilized more effectively to enhance African Americans’ encounters at work). Examples of some of the items on the scale are “It's just as hard for Whites to get ahead here as for Blacks” and “Blacks are given the respect they deserve from Whites at work” (Watts & Carter, 1991,
Study participants responded to each item using a 5-point scale that ranges from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). When summed, a low score indicates a negative racial climate, and a high score indicates a positive racial climate. The alpha statistic as reported by Watts and Carter (1991) was .83. An alpha of .91 was reported by Holder and Vaux (1998) and alpha of .93 was reported by Holcomb-McCoy and Addison-Bradley (2005). The reliability coefficient for this study it was .91.

**Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale (BRIAS).** Black racial identity was assessed using the Black Racial Identity Attitudes Scale (BRIAS; formerly the RIAS-B) (Helms & Parham, 1996). The BRIAS measures the four central themes of Cross’s (1971) Nigrescence Theory and assesses African Americans’ connection and awareness of the social implications of race (Helms, 1990; Neville et al., 1997). Black racial identity attitudes include Pre-encounter, Post-Encounter, Immersion/Emersion, and Internalization.

The BRIAS consists of 60 questions. Participants are asked to respond to items using a 5-point Likert-like scale that ranges from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Each subscale is calculated by averaging the selected questions related to one of the four racial identity attitudes. A higher subscale score indicates a higher value of that racial identity attitude.

The BRIAS subscale reliability scores were reported as follows: Pre-encounter = .76; Post-Encounter = .51; Immersion/Emersion = .69; and Internalization = .80 (Helms, 1990; Ponterro & Wise, 1987). Support from the reliability data makes it reasonable to
assume the BRIAS could appropriately assess racial identity attitudes of African Americans.

In addition, Helms and Parham (1985) assessed the construct validity of the BRIAS. They found that in several separate analyses four orthogonal factors explained the BRIAS, and these factors seemed to reflect the four types of racial identity attitudes. For this study the BRIAS subscale reliability coefficients were: Pre-encounter = .66; Post-Encounter = .77; Immersion/Emersion = .86; and Internalization = .72

**Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ).** Job satisfaction was assessed by using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire–Short Form (MSQ-SF; Weiss et al., 1967). The MSQ assesses 20 dimensions related to job satisfaction including: ability utilization, achievement, activity, independence, variety, compensation, security, working conditions, opportunity for advancement, recognition, authority, social status, coworkers, moral values, social service, reactions to company policies and practices, the human relations aspects of supervision, the technical aspects of supervision, creativity, and responsibility. Study participants responded to questions using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied). Examples of items on the scale are “The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities,” “The chance to be ‘somebody’ in the community,” and “Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience.”

High scores on the MSQ-SF indicate a higher level of job satisfaction. According to the developers of the MSQ-SF (Weiss et al., 1967), job satisfaction scores lower than 50 indicate dissatisfaction, 50 to 69 are considered neither dissatisfied or satisfied (neutral), and scores above 70 denote satisfaction. The short scale has a reported .90 for
the reliability coefficient. Research continues to provide verification of the reliability and validity of the MSQ (Hirschfeld, 2000; Holcomb-McCoy & Addison-Bradley, 2005).

The MSQ-SF continues to be one of the more widely used measures to assess job satisfaction across multiple job fields and it has commonly been used with individuals who work in collegiate environments (Holcomb-McCoy & Addison-Bradley, 2005; Landy & Conte, 2007). For this study, the reliability coefficient was .86.

**Data Collection Procedure**

Participants for this study were African American faculty members at HWIs. The Office of Public Records was contacted at the eight preselected public HWIs from a Midwestern state. These institutions were chosen due to their proximity to the researcher, who had contacted the universities in advance regarding obtaining email addresses of their African American faculty members for dissertation-related research. Participants were asked to voluntarily participate in the study using their university email accounts.

The study participants were directed via a hyperlink to a secure Internet website (www.surveymonkey.com/s/KYWVMNB) to take the survey. On the introductory page, a statement regarding the purpose of the study, including confidentiality, was presented. Participants were informed that the data collected was part of research for a dissertation study. Participants were also informed that their participation was voluntary and that they could willingly discontinue their participation at anytime.

Each survey consisted of questions corresponding to the biographical data questionnaire, the Racial Climate Scale (RCS), the Black Racial Identity Attitudes Scale
(BRIAS), and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The researcher scored and entered the data into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 19.0 for analysis.

**Data Analysis Procedure**

This study examined whether gender, perceived racial climate, and racial identity attitudes in a sample of African American faculty were predictive of their job satisfaction. There were six predictor variables with one criterion variable. The predictor variables were racial identity (4 subscales), perceived racial climate, and gender. The criterion variable was job satisfaction. It was hypothesized that gender, perceived racial climate, and racial identity would account for variance in levels of job satisfaction for the sample of African American faculty.

The study utilized hierarchical regression analysis to analyze the data. Each scale is considered a predictor variable and was entered in the following order: First, gender was entered as predictor variable, followed secondly by racial climate. Although it was predicted that gender and racial climate would contribute to job satisfaction, there is not substantial literature available to suggest that these two variables would have a significant impact on the job satisfaction of African American faculty beyond racial identity status. Because of this, the predictor variable of racial identity was entered last into the equation. The researcher believed that the racial identity attitudes of participants would account for a significant amount of the variance in job satisfaction above and beyond that accounted for by racial climate and gender.
Summary

This chapter described the methodology the researcher employed to examine the relationship between gender, perceived racial climate, racial identity, and job satisfaction of African American faculty members at HWIs. Outlined in this chapter are the six predictor variables for this study, namely: gender; RCS (total score); and the four subscales of the BRIAS (Pre-encounter, Post-Encounter, Immersion/Emersion, and Internalization). The criterion variable was job satisfaction and was measured using the MSQ-SF. In addition to the research design, a description of the participants, the sampling plan, the instrumentation used, and the collection and data analysis procedures were summarized. In chapter four, the researcher will provide the results of the data analysis.
Chapter 4: Results

In this, it was explored to see whether gender, perceived racial climate, and Black racial identity attitude was predictive of variance in the job satisfaction of African American faculty members working at HWIs. Presented are the results of a hierarchical regression analysis as described in the preceding chapter. In the sections that follows are; the demographic information of the participants, rate of response, analysis of reliability, and descriptive data are provided. Additionally, information regarding the analysis of the hypotheses is presented.

Description of Participants

**Demographic variable descriptive analysis.** The participants were African American faculty from eight HWIs in the Midwestern state. A total of 628 survey requests were submitted by email to potential participants via their university email addresses, but 12 addresses were invalid and purged from the list. Overall, 109 participants (17.35%) accepted the emailed request for participation to the survey. Conversely, nine responses were not used because the respondents did answer beyond the demographic stage of the survey. Of the 628 survey requests, a total of 100 responses (15.92%) were used to analyze the data.

Responses were evaluated with the IBM SPSS 19 software. The data collected included demographic information and responses from the Racial Climate Scale (RCS; Watts & Carter, 1991), the Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale (BRIAS; Helms & Parham, 1996), and the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ-SF; Weiss et al., 1967).
Information from the demographic questionnaire, the information included gender, age, race, Hispanic origin, teaching title, administrative role, courses taught per year, years in position, and highest level of education and is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1
Sample Demographic Descriptive Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Male</td>
<td>36</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (in years)</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>49.01</td>
<td>11.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Title</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Courses (yearly)</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>5.56</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years in Position</td>
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<td>40.00</td>
<td>10.27</td>
<td>9.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
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<td>6.00</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>7.330</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gender and age.** The sample of this study was composed of 64% women and 36% men. The sample participants age ranged from 28 to 72 years. For this study, the mean age was 49.01 years (SD= 11.94).

**Teaching and academic title.** Participants were asked to select their teaching titles. The sample was consisted of 1% teaching assistants, 25% instructors, 27% assistant professors, 30% associate professors, and 17% professors. The mean was 3.37 (SD= 1.07) and a mode of 4. Of the participants only seven (7%) reported an additional academic title of “administrator”. 
Course load. Participants were asked to give an account of the average number of courses they taught in an academic year. The mean was 5.65 courses (SD=2.60). The range was from one to 12 courses, with a mode of 6.

Years in position. Participants were asked to report the number of years they’ve been in their current position. The range of responses was between one and 40 years. The mean was 10.27 years (SD=9.20).

Highest level of education. Participants also reported their highest level of education. Participants from the sample identified as 26% reporting a master’s degree, 15% reporting a professional degree, and 59% reporting a doctorate (Ph.D, Ed.D, Psy.D, etc.). The mean was 7.33 (SD = .87), with a mode of 7.

Independent and Dependent Variable Descriptive Analysis

Perceived racial climate. The RCS (Watts & Carter, 1991) is an 18-item scale which measured the decision-making processes, reward system, perceptions of adverse impact, and interpersonal processes related to the racial climate of an institution. In response to each item, study participants responded using a 5-point scale, ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). For the RCS, individual total scores could range from 18 to 90. A lower score on the RCS denotes a negative racial climate, whereas a higher score denotes a positive racial climate. For the study sample, the range was from 23 to 75. The mean score for the RCS was 48.29 (SD=12.39) and fell within a neutral racial climate to a moderately low positive climate. It should also be noted that some questions were reverse coded as outlined in the directions in order to accurately get a correct score for the RCS.
**Black racial identity.** The BRIAS (Helms & Parham, 1996) consisted of 60 items, measuring the four central themes of Cross’s (1971) Nigrescence Theory. The Black racial identity attitudes accounted for in the scale are Pre-encounter, Post-Encounter, Immersion/Emersion, and Internalization. Participants were asked to respond to items using a 5-point Likert-like scale that ranges from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The subscales were scored by totaling the raw scores of keyed items, and then converted into T-scores so that a scale score was calculated for each of the four Black racial identity attitudes, as outline by scale creators. The higher subscale T-score, indicated a greater extent of that particular Black racial identity attitude. The highest subscale T-score was used to categorize each participant’s Black racial identity attitude. The mean for the Pre-Encounter subscale was 50.01 (SD=9.98) and the Post-Encounter was 50.09 (SD=9.92). The mean for the Immersion/Emersion subscale was 50.01(SD=9.99) and the Internalization was 49.99 (SD=10.02).

**Job satisfaction.** The MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967) assesses 20 dimensions related to job satisfaction. Using a 5-point Likert-like scale, study participants responded to items ranging from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (5). A higher score on the MSQ represents a greater level of job satisfaction. In particular, a score lower than 50 denote dissatisfaction, 50-69 are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (neutral), and greater than 70 indicate that the individual is satisfied. For the current study sample, the range was from 46 to 94. The total mean for the study population was 73.75 (SD = 10.61).
Assessing the Regression Model

To determine if the regression model was accurate, it was analyzed to see if the model fit the observed data well or if it mainly had influence from a small number of cases (Fields, 2009). It was also assessed to see if the model could be generalizable to other samples. Analysis was computed using IBM SPSS 19 software to test for statistical assumptions of linear regression, hierarchical regression, and additional supplementary analysis.

**Testing assumptions of hierarchical regression analysis.** For hierarchical regression analysis, certain assumptions must be met to ensure that the data is a representative sample. Tests were conducted for the following assumptions: normally distributed data, linearity between variables, independent errors, and homeoscedasticity (Fields, 2009). In addition, the absence of multicollinearity and the absence of outliers were tested for.

The first assumptions regard normality, linearity, independence of predictors, and homeoscedasticity. Normality of the data was assessed by inspecting the histogram of standardized residuals (Figure 1) and the Probability-Probability Plot (P-P plot) (Figure 2) that compares observed versus expected cumulative probability. The assumption of normality is met when the sample data in the histogram visually follows the standard normal distribution curve (Fields, 2009) and when the P-P plot visually follows the diagonal line representing a normal probability plot. The data for this study indicate that the assumption of normality was not violated.
Linearity of the data was assessed by inspecting scatterplot matrixes and through analysis of the variance (ANOVA). The assumption of linearity by examining the relationship between dependent and independent variables, enables the generalization of findings (Fields, 2009). With variables that are distributed normally and are related linearly, the scatterplots tend to be shaped like an oval, with the points being distributed symmetrically around either a diagonal or horizontal line (Cohen, 2001). The ANOVA tests whether the model is significant in predicting the outcome by specifically looking at the F-ratio (Fields, 2009). The ANOVA table (Table 2) indicated that the F-ratio for each model was significant. The data indicated that the assumption of linearity wasn’t violated.

The assumption that residual terms are uncorrelated and independent (Fields, 2009) was tested using the Durbin-Watson test. This test specifically examines serial correlations between errors. The Durbin Watson test statistic could range from 0 to 4. If the value is 2, it indicates the residuals are uncorrelated. An acceptable range is 1.50 to 2.50. The data set produced a Durbin Watson score of 1.983 which indicate that the residual terms were uncorrelated and independent.

Homogeneity of the variance means that at each level of the predictors, the residuals should have the same variance (homoscedasticity) (Cohen, 2001). If they are not equal there is heteroscedasticity, which can result in the confidence intervals being too wide or too narrow. This was assessed by examining the standardized residual scatterplot (Figure 3) to make sure data was not scattered evenly around the zero
benchmark line. The data for this study indicate that the assumption of homoscedasticity was not violated.

If two or more predictors have a strong correlation, multicollinearity can exist. Multicollinearity can be problematic in a hierarchical regression analysis, because it can limit the size of R, the measure of multiple correlations between the predictors and the outcome (Cohen, 2001; Fields, 2009). Multicollinearity also limits R^2 which can indicate the variance in the outcome that the predictors account for (Fields, 2009). In addition, multicollinearity can add difficulty in assessing the importance of an individual predictor (Field, 2009). Lastly, multicollinearity can make the estimated causes of the regression coefficient unstable from sample to sample (Myers, 2006).

Multicollinearity was assessed in this study using SPSS to look at the variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance statistics. Values above 10 for the VIF are an indicator of concern for multicollinearity (Myers, 2006). In addition, a tolerance statistic with a value below .1 indicates serious problems (Field, 2005). In this sample, multicollinearity didn’t appear to be a problematic.

The sample data was monitored for outlier and residual cases that would substantially impact any of the regression coefficients and appear as extreme cases (Field, 2009). In any ordinary sample, it is expected that 99.9% of z-scores (standardized residuals) would fall +/- 3.29. From the SPSS output of the sample data, none of the standardized residuals exceeded +/- 3.29% of cases that fell outside of those limits.

Mahalanobis distance calculates the impact of a case by assessing the distance from the means of the predictor variables (Myers, 2006). Establishing the cutoff for
Mahalanobis distance is not easy, but in smaller samples where “N=100 and with 3 predictors, values greater than 15 are problematic” (Field, 2009; Barnett & Lewis, 1978). In addition, Cook’s distance statistics also assess specific cases, and overall influence on the regression model over one is cause for concern (Field, 2009). Using this assessment, no cases needed to be excluded from analysis. Therefore, the data for this study indicate that there was not a violation of outliers or residuals.

Table 2
Summary of Regression Model (N = 100)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE B</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Model 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>4.731</td>
<td>2.170</td>
<td>.215*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Model 2</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>2.574</td>
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<td>.117</td>
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<tr>
<td>Racial Climate</td>
<td>.484</td>
<td>.071</td>
<td>.566*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Model 3</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>2.891</td>
<td>1.798</td>
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<tr>
<td>Immersion-Emersion</td>
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<td>.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internalization</td>
<td>.141</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>.133</td>
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</table>
Table 3
ANOVA

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Model</th>
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<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>515.668</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>515.668</td>
<td>4.754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>10631.082</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>108.480</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Regression</td>
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<td>1987.380</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>73.938</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11146.750</td>
<td>99</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Regression</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11146.750</td>
<td>99</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^a. Predictors (Constant): Gender
^b. Predictors (Constant): Gender Total Racial Climate
^c. Predictors (Constant): Gender, Total Racial Climate, PostEncounter, Immersion/Emersion, PreEncounter, Internalization

d. Dependent Variable: Total Job Satisfaction
Hierarchical Regression Analysis

The hypothesis suggests that the variance in job satisfaction levels of African American faculty at HWIs was accounted for by gender, perceived racial climate, and Black racial identity attitude. Analysis using hierarchical regression was used to determine the regression through six predictor variables for this study, namely, gender; RCS (total score); and the four subscales of the BRIAS (Pre-encounter, Post-Encounter, Immersion/Emersion, and Internalization) (see Table 2 & 3). The order was predetermined by the researcher using the enter method in SPSS. Specifically, gender was entered first in step 1, with perceived racial climate as a total score entered in step 2. Lastly, black racial identity attitude was entered as a block in step 3. Job satisfaction, measured using the MSQ total score, was entered as the dependent variable.

In step one, gender significantly predicted job satisfaction levels (t(100) = -2.205, p = 0.032), with the adjusted $R^2 = 0.037$ and $R^2$ change = 0.046. The change in $R^2$ was significant with $p = 0.032$. The 4.6% variance in job satisfaction was predicted from gender. For the second step, perceived racial climate significantly predicted job satisfaction scores (t(100) = 6.840, p = .000), with the adjusted $R^2 = .343$ and $R^2$ change = .310. The change in $R^2$ was significant with $p = .000$. Therefore the 31% variance in job satisfaction was predicted from racial climate above and beyond gender. Lastly, in the Black racial identity subscales were entered as a block. Racial identity significantly predicted job satisfaction scores, with the adjusted $R^2 = .426$ and $R^2$ change = .070. The change in $R^2$ was significant with $p = .000$. Therefore, the 7% variance in job
satisfaction was predicted from Black racial identity as gender and perceived racial climate were controlled for.

However, the Pre-Encounter \( t(100) = -0.404 \ p = 0.687 \), Post-Encounter \( t(100) = -0.395 \ p = 0.693 \), Immersion-Emersion \( t(100) = 0.870 \ p = 0.387 \), and Internalization \( t(100) =1.068 \ p = 0.288 \) subscales individually were not statistically significant. The equation for regression was defined as

\[
\text{score} = 36.759 + 2.891 \times \text{gender} + 0.547 \times \text{perceived racial climate} - 0.053 \times \text{Pre-encounter} - 0.057 \times \text{Post-Encounter} + 0.101 \times \text{Immersion-Emersion} + 0.141 \times \text{Internalization}.
\]

Each step turned out to be significant in the hierarchical regression model of predicting job satisfaction for the sample population. Specifically, gender, perceived racial climate, and the BRIAS scales together significantly contributed to the variance in job satisfaction. Individually, the BRIAS scales did not significantly contribute to job satisfaction of the sample population.

**Analysis of Research Hypothesis**

Analysis was conducted to see if gender, perceived racial identity, and Black racial identity attitudes were predictive of job satisfaction in African American faculty at HWIs. In the following section, the hypotheses and results are discussed.

**Hypothesis 1.** Gender contributes to a variance in the job satisfaction levels in African American faculty members at HWIs, as measured by the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.

This hypothesis was supported. For this sample, gender contributed significantly, accounting for a 4.6% variance for job satisfaction scores \( t(100) = -2.205, \ p = 0.032 \).
Hypothesis 2. Perceived racial climate, as measured by the Racial Climate Scale, contributes to the variance of job satisfaction of African American faculty at HWIs, above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender.

This hypothesis was supported. For this sample, perceived racial climate contributed significantly above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender, accounting for a 31% variance for job satisfaction scores ($t(100) = 6.840, p = .000$).

Hypothesis 3. Racial identity, as measured by the Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale (BRIAS), namely Pre-encounter, Post-Encounter, Immersion/Emersion, and Internalization scales—contributes to a variance of job satisfaction above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender and racial climate.

This hypothesis was supported. For this sample, Black racial identity as a whole contributed significantly to the variance in job satisfaction by 7%. However, Pre-Encounter ($t(100) = -.404 p = .687$), Post-Encounter ($t(100) = -.395 p = .693$), Immersion-Emersion ($t(100) = .870 p = .387$), and Internalization $t(100) = 1.068 p = .288$ subscales individually were not a significant contribution to variance.

Reliability Coefficients

For each survey instrument, the internal consistency reliability was analyzed. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was as follows: Racial Climate Scale = .908 and Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale as a whole = .673. For the fours subscales the reliability coefficients were as follows: Pre-Encounter = .675, Post-Encounter = .766, Immersion/Emersion = .861, and Internalization = .762. The reliability for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was .862.
Correlations

A total of six predictor variables were in this study, namely, gender, perceived racial climate, and the Black racial identity subscales (Pre-Encounter, Post-Encounter, Immersion/Emersion, and Internalization). The one criterion variable was job satisfaction.

Analysis was completed regarding the correlations of these variables. The correlation analysis indicated that MSQ scores were significantly correlated at the p = 0.05 level in a positive direction, with gender (r(100) = .215, p = .016). MSQ scores were also significantly correlated in positive directions, with RCS scores (r(100) = .586, p = .000). MSQ scores were not significantly correlated, with Pre-Encounter scores (r(100) = -.024, p = .405), Post-Encounter (r(100) = -.1.46, p = .074), Immersion/Emersion (r(100) = -.033, p = .374), and Internalization (r(100) = .134, p = .091).

Additional correlational analysis was done between the independent variables. RCS scores were significantly correlated in a negative direction with the Immersion/Emersion subscale of the BRIAS (r(100) = -.389, p = .000) and significantly correlated in a positive direction with the Pre-encounter subscale (r(100) = .252, p = .006). RCS scores were not significantly correlated with subscales Post-Encounter scores (r(100) = .090, p = .185) and Internalization (r(100) = -.160, p = .056). Within the BRIAS, intersubscale correlations indicated significant correlations between each of the subscales (Appendix I).
Additional Analysis

Additional analysis was completed to examine the differences between females and males in levels of perceived racial climate, Black racial identity, and job satisfaction levels. The independent samples t-tests indicated a significant difference between females and males regarding job satisfaction (t(100) = -2.180, p = .032). The females’ mean score for the MSQ was 72.05 (SD = 10.81), and the males’ mean score was 76.78 (SD=9.66). There were no additional statistically significant differences for females or males regarding their levels of perceived racial climate or on the subscales of the BRIAS.

Exploratory Analysis

Additional analysis was conducted to see if the total years in position as a predictor variable added to the variance in job satisfaction scores. The analysis showed that total years in position did not contribute significantly to R² beyond the variances contributed by gender, perceived racial climate, or Black racial identity. There was no significant correlational relationship linking total years in position with the other predictor variables.

Summary

The points previously discussed are the results of a hierarchical regression analysis. In testing the hypotheses, the following predictor variables were examined regarding their contribution to the variance of job satisfaction: gender, perceived racial climate, and Black racial identity. An analysis of the results indicated that gender significantly contributed to job satisfaction in the sample of African American faculty at HWIs. Gender contributed to a 4.6% variance in job satisfaction scores.
Additionally, the perceived racial climate also significantly contributed to the job satisfaction levels of the sample population. The variance for perceived racial climate was 31% above and beyond gender. Lastly, as a whole, Black racial identity attitudes contributed to the job satisfaction of the sample population with a variance of 7% above and beyond gender and racial climate. However, the individual subscales of the Black racial identity scale did not have a significant impact in the hierarchical regression model. According to Jacob Cohen on effect size, an R² of .02 percent is small, .13 is medium and .26 is large. Therefore the effect size of racial climate can be considered large. Further discussion pertaining to the results, are presented in chapter 5.
Chapter 5: Discussion

This study examined the influence of gender, perceived racial climate, and Black racial identity attitudes on the job satisfaction levels of African American faculty at HWIs. This was assessed by administration of an electronic survey, containing a demographic questionnaire, the Racial Climate Scale (RCS; Watts & Carter, 1991), the Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale (BRIAS; Helms & Parham, 1996), and the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ-SF; Weiss et al., 1967). A hierarchical regression analysis was then conducted to answer the research question and to analyze the hypotheses presented. This chapter presents a summary of the findings, an examination of the research hypotheses, and an explanation of the significant results. In addition, implications, limitations, and future research recommendations are discussed.

Study Summary

Restatement of the problem. When comparing work experiences and job satisfaction levels, in general, African Americans tend to be studied less than their White counterparts (Jayakumar et al., 2009; Turner & Myers, 2000). Even among other racial minorities in the United States, African Americans have historically had different experiences in association with work, given the history of slavery, racism, and prejudices against them as a racial minority. Despite the fact that laws and codes legally permitting the discrimination and segregation of African Americans on several levels have ended, the ramifications of past discriminatory practices, environments, and policies still exist (West, 1993).
Few studies have examined how work institutions that previously employed and serviced Whites only, are currently experienced by African Americans today. There is also a lack of research investigating how African American faculty levels of job satisfaction at HWIs may be directly related to race-related variables. Although demographic compositions at HWIs have become more racially and ethnically diverse, it has not necessarily translated into lessened racial tensions on campus (Chavous, 2005). Therefore, it is important to understand if current racial climates impact the job satisfaction of the African American faculty population. In addition, very little research is available that examines how Black racial identity attitudes can influence job satisfaction levels of African American faculty at HWIs, given that racial identity is a direct reflection of how individuals cope in response to the discriminatory racial hierarchy set in place by the majority population (Hays & Chang, 2003; Helms & Piper, 1994).

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore the salient intersections between Black racial identity and perceived racial climate on job satisfaction levels of African American faculty at HWIs. In addition, the impact of gender was also explored.

**Characteristics of Sample and Research Tools**

Participants consisted of 100 African American faculty members who, at the time of the study, worked at HWIs in a Midwestern state. Participants completed an electronic survey via a secured Internet website that consisted of a demographic questionnaire, the RCS (Watts & Carter, 1991), the BRIAS (Helms & Parham, 1996), and the MSQ-SF (Weiss et al., 1967). The survey took between 15 and 20 minutes to complete.
Evaluation of Research Hypotheses

**Gender.** As the number of women working has shifted upward, it is increasingly important for organizations to differentiate what factors increase or decrease women’s job satisfaction levels and to explore differences in regard to gender. Research has previously shown that female faculty members tend to express lower levels of job satisfaction than male faculty members (Sabharwal & Corley, 2009). In addition, African American faculty members report unique experiences impacting their work lives in higher education that differ from their White counterparts. African American women report feelings of hyperinvisibility and the need to overcome oversexualized stereotypes as well as to challenge the label of the “angry black women” (Cooper, 2006). These variables impact African American women’s view of work and therefore could also have an impact on their sense of job satisfaction.

In understanding more about the job satisfaction levels of African American faculty at HWIs, it is important to investigate the role gender plays between men’s and women’s job satisfaction levels. The first hypothesis predicted that gender would contribute to the job satisfaction levels of African American faculty at HWIs. Analyses of the data suggested that this hypothesis was supported.

There was a significant contribution regarding gender impacting the variance level of job satisfaction of the sample population. Consistent with previous research, males’ scores for overall job satisfaction were higher than females’ as measured by the MSQ. Of the 20 questions asked on the MSQ, there was only one question where the mean score of African American female faculty was higher than African American male
faculty. For question # 2 regarding “the chance to work alone on the job,” females were more “satisfied” and males were more “neutral.” This question was assessed specifically to examine how working independently contributed to total job satisfaction. Because African American women reported feelings of being invisible and the need to challenge stereotypes, working independently could be more preferable than working with peers or administrators who perhaps subjected them to adverse working conditions.

In addition to further analyzing job satisfaction scores, when assessing the difference in means of questions that specifically focused on extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction, male African American participants still had higher mean scores than their female counterparts for extrinsic questions. Again, this supports literature that notes males have greater job satisfaction than females overall in working conditions (Austin & Dodge, 1992; Pearson, 2008; Sabharwa & Corley, 2009; Singh, 2009).

**Perceived racial climate.** Racial climate is the atmosphere that the majority racial group members create in an organization (Barbarin & Gilbert, 1981; Jackson & Carter, 2007; Watts & Carter, 1991). A work environment with lower racial climate scores was described as possessing an antagonistic climate toward a minority employee, and a work environment with higher scores corresponded with a more positive racial climate (Holder & Vaux, 1998).

Researchers have found that individuals from different racial backgrounds view racial climate as significantly relating to their job satisfaction (Ensher et al., 2001; Holder & Vaux, 1998). Tack and Patitu (1992) assert that racial minority faculty members report discrimination at work as it related to their race and ethnicity.
However, there are gaps in the literature evaluating African American faculty’s levels of job satisfaction and how they are impacted by their perspective of their university’s racial climate. In this study it was hypothesized that racial climate would have an impact on job satisfaction. The second hypothesis predicted that the perceived racial climate would contribute to the variances in job satisfaction of African American faculty at HWIs above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender. The results indicate that this hypothesis was supported.

Racial climate accounted for the largest portion of variance in job satisfaction levels in this sample of African American faculty at HWIs. Previous studies have reported that faculty members of color often had more stressful experiences and lower levels of job satisfaction (Astin et al., 1997). Another study concluded that faculty perception of the department’s racial climate was more likely linked to workplace satisfaction (Holcomb-McCoy & Addison-Bradley, 2005). The results of this study are consistent with the study by Turner (2002) who suggests that perceptions of racial climate may be predictive of levels of overall job satisfaction (Turner, 2002).

**Racial identity.** Racial identity theory deals with the process of developing, or the inability to develop, a healthy racial identity attitude in an atmosphere where an individual’s socially ascribed racial group has limited access to sociopolitical power (Helms, 1990). In this case, the differential access is represented by the access to work. Traditional theories of career development often have been criticized for overlooking such factors as race (Parham & Austin, 1994). Conceptual literature has been written on how racial identity theory and the career development model intersect (Evans & Herr,
1994; Parham & Austin, 1994; Tinsley, 1994). However, empirical research that addresses how the levels of racial identity development coincide with job satisfaction of African Americans working in HWIs is conspicuously absent.

The third hypothesis predicted that the perceived Black racial identity attitudes would contribute to the variance of job satisfaction of African American faculty at HWIs above and beyond the variance accounted for by gender and perceived racial climate. Analyses of the results were indicative of this hypothesis being confirmed, with as a whole, Black racial identity contributing to the variance but the individual subscales did not. Black racial identity as a whole did contribute to variance in job satisfaction, above and beyond that of gender and racial climate in the sample population.

**Discussion of Correlational Data**

The correlational data for the study presented interesting findings and confirmed several postulations by the author. Gender had a positive correlation with job satisfaction. Racial climate and job satisfaction levels were also positively correlated. From this study and previous literature it can be assumed that the more positive a racial climate is, the more likely it is that an individual will have higher job satisfaction scores. This can be for several reasons. With a more positive racial climate, African American faculty may be less subjected to fewer unfair policies and become viewed more as competitive candidates for promotion and leadership positions. Positive racial climates can also promote value and appreciation for race related research, and appeal to some of the unique interests and research agendas of African American faculty. These factors in
Racial climate and the Immersion/Emersion scale had a negative correlation. The Immersion/Emersion scale focuses specifically on withdrawing into the Black community with a denigration of everything White. It is very likely that in this stage African American faculty would further distance themselves while working at the HWI and be more perceptive of only negative elements that impact the racial climate versus seeing also the positives within the environment.

Racial Climate and the Pre-Encounter scale had a positive correlation. During the Pre-Encounter stage, the individual internalizes traditional White beliefs. Therefore it can be assumed that working at an HWI could be viewed as having a positive climate because of the oversight of seeing characteristics and policies that adversely impact African American faculty employed there.

**Summary of Significant Results**

In this study, a total of three hypotheses were investigated. The results supported the first hypothesis as African American male and female faculty at HWIs had significant differences in their job satisfaction levels, with males tending to score higher on the MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967).

The second hypothesis was also supported, as perceived racial climate significantly added to the variance in job satisfaction levels of the African American faculty in this study. This variance was above and beyond the levels of variance
contributed by gender differences. Results also indicated there was a positive relationship between higher racial climate scores and job satisfaction levels.

The final hypothesis also supported that Black racial identity as a whole contributed to variance levels in job satisfaction above and beyond the levels of variance contributed by gender and perceived racial climate.

Implications

The results of the study indicate that gender and perceived racial climate significantly impacted the job satisfaction levels of African American faculty at HWIs. Although the individual Black racial identity attitude subscales did not contribute above and beyond the two other variables, Black racial identity attitudes as a whole significantly contributed to the levels of job satisfaction of African American faculty.

The history of African Americans working in the United States is one complicated by the historical past of slavery and by previous as well as current discriminatory practices that further subjugate inequality in work settings (West, 1993). HWIs were built catering only to Whites and still have current practices and environments that limit the conduciveness of African American faculty and students surviving and thriving in the collegiate atmosphere (Jones & Akbar, 2000). The results of this study are limited, but may be used to address and change the direct effects of how HWIs impact all persons working and studying by examining the infrastructure influenced by their historical past.

Implications from the results of this study can expand to examine on macro levels and micro levels to create a better atmosphere for African American faculty at HWIs.
These implications can benefit the collegiate environment as a whole, as well as shape and change the experience of the students served in the college environment.

**Implications for Historically White Institutions**

*Acknowledgment of exclusionary practices.* The first step that can guide HWIs is completing an evaluative look at their own history of exclusion and inclusion. While it is impossible to alter the history of the systematic exclusion of African Americans and other racial minorities in education, HWIs should not deny that it occurred (Reid & Radhakrishnan, 2003). Administrators of HWIs should also not make presumptions that their respective college community is knowledgeable about the historical underpinnings of their individual university. By being clear about the institutions’ past history of exclusion and its impact on its history, administrators may garner more support for initiatives that seek to improve the racial climate at the HWI (Park, 2009). Such efforts may be even more effective if a clear vision for a more inclusive future is outlined. Not only should administrators understand the history and exclusionary practices of their HWI when they construct initiatives, but they should also assess the current state of the racial climate (Reid & Radhakrishnan, 2003).

*Implementation of action plan.* Racial climate is a valuable assessment of cultural views sustained by an organization regarding the overall outlook, values, and standards. There has been a large void in policy initiatives that address the issue of racial climate in higher education institutions (Park, 2009; Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pedersen, & Allen, 1998). Many higher education institutions narrowly focus on the number of racial and ethnic students when discussing diversity on their specific campus (Hurtado et
al., 1998). While this is an important area of consideration, this undermines key pieces that also contribute to the diversity of a campus, specifically the racial climate of the environment. The collegiate realm is composed of multifaceted systems that intertwine the delicacy between an institution’s mission and principles, while striving to cater to faculty, staff, and students based on the traditions and bureaucracy of providing high standards of education (Park, 2009). Therefore, attempts to improve the racial climate of HWIs must comprehensively address these issues with long-term planning that focuses on administration, allocation and establishment of resources, continued monitoring, and institutional commitment (Hurtado et al., 1998).

**Climate and diversity trainings.** Perceptions of racial climate can differ largely between Whites and African Americans (Chavous, 2005). Research has shown that the campus racial climate is viewed differently among various racial groups, and African Americans specifically have a more negative racial climate perspective (Reid & Radhakrishnan, 2003). Exposure to and discussion of racial issues have direct impacts and implications for both racial majority and racial minorities in the collegiate environment (Chavous, 2005; Park, 2009). Research has shown that one of the most conducive ways to reduce and change racist ideologies and practices is through discussions that evaluate divisions regarding ethnicity and race (Sue, Torino, Capodilupo, Rivera, & Lin, 2009).

This study shows that racial climate directly impacts the job satisfaction levels of African American faculty. Previous studies also show that negative racial climates directly relate to the African American faculty desire to want to leave a collegiate
environment (Jayakumar et al., 2009). Therefore, it would behoove HWIs interested in hiring and retaining African Americans to facilitate roundtables to discuss the current racial climate and atmosphere of their particular institution.

In addition, issues of White privilege can distort the view of White majority members of HWIs of the collegiate racial climate (Jayakumar et al., 2009). Diversity trainings at HWIs needs to be expanded to include greater focus and discussion on how White faculty continually receive benefits of institutional racism that encourage a negative racial climate for African Americans and support racist policies and attitudes (Chesler & Crowfoot, 2000).

**Identification of gender disconnect.** The results of this study confirm that there are significant differences in the levels of job satisfaction between African American male and African American female job satisfaction levels at HWIs, with females having lower levels. Additionally, studies have found that African American women faculty tends to have lower job satisfaction levels than their White and other racial minority counterparts in collegiate settings (Gregory, 2001). Moreover, researchers have asserted that African American women experiences of racism and sexism in the collegiate setting negatively impact overall satisfaction in their workplace (Singh et al., 1995).

HWIs can directly impact this by strategizing ways to increase female faculty job satisfaction and targeting factors that tend to lower their job satisfaction levels. Specifically this includes addressing factors correlated with lower job satisfaction levels, such as the lack of research support, collaborative research opportunities, and opportunities for advancement; hyperinvisibility; and the need to overcome sexualized
stereotypes (Cooper, 2006; Singh et al., 1995). In addition, it can be helpful for HWIs to examine policies that have adversarial effects on women that may decrease their job satisfaction and overall wellness.

**Implications for African American Faculty**

**Purposeful networking and collegiality.** When assessing why African American faculty remain in faculty positions in higher education despite several negative factors contributing to job dissatisfaction, the theme emerged of the importance of collegiality between other faculty offsetting negative factors (Turner & Myers, 2000). Previous research has shown that in comparison to other faculty members of color, African Americans perceptions of racial climate are vastly different from their colleagues (Felder, 2010; Jayakumar et al., 2009). This study also confirmed the significant impact that race-related variables and gender contributed to job satisfaction variance.

Therefore, when engaging in acts of collegiality, it is important to also seek out relationships that value and respect issues pertaining to the African American faculty experience (Tillman, 2001). Although collegiality between other groups of other faculty of color and White peers may exist, there still is a potential to overlook the needs and circumstances unique to the race-specific faculty experience (Salgado-Carozza, 2002; Turner & Myers, 2000). There must be a purposeful intent to access organizations such as the African American faculty association or Women’s Resource Center that are cognizant and supportive of race or gender barriers at HWIs and of race/gender-related research agendas and social relationships (Tillman, 2001).
Process and explore racial identity formation. In this study, the majority of participants indicated having a doctoral level education. Most scales regarding Black racial identity are created using a sample population with lesser amounts of formal educational attainment. It can be concluded that there is a possibility with more formalized education, ways of processing identity formation may be different for African American faculty members than what traditional scales may measure.

It is important for African American faculty to find ways to process through their own Black racial identity formation and understand how it manifests with having a divergent way of processing thoughts. This can be explored through faculty workshops, round table discussions, and EAP counseling.

Implications for Future African American Doctoral Students

Mentorship. There has been an increasing trend of African Americans being vastly underrepresented in obtaining doctoral degrees and being represented in the role of faculty in higher educational settings (Chronicle of Higher Education, 2007; Grant & Simmons, 2008; Johnson et al., 2007). This is especially true in HWIs, where there tends to be a deficit in minority faculty leaders in combination with the historical legacy of exclusionary practices that created an isolating educational and work environment (Felder, 2010).

Research has demonstrated that mentorship for African American graduate students continues to be a beneficial factor in promoting areas of professional growth and longevity when they obtain positions as faculty at HWIs (Grant & Simmons, 2008; Tillman, 2001). Specifically, the doctoral process is the instrumental period where
students evolve from being an apprentice to becoming an emerging scholar. Mentorship is instrumental during this period for African American doctoral students, not only because they are learning to develop their professional identity and shape their research agendas, but also because they should have the opportunity to explore cultural theories and perspectives on how to overcome barriers to success (Felder, 2010; Tillman, 2001).

While it has been demonstrated that mentorship is most effective from a person of the same sex and race, with a lack of African American faculty, African American doctoral students can also greatly benefit from someone genuinely interested in their overall professional and personal development (Gasman, Hirschfield, & Vultaggio, 2008).

**Study Limitations**

Limitations of this study impact the ability for generalization to all African American faculty members working at HWIs. Specifically, the study limitations include the method of sampling, instrumentation used, and the use of self-reported data. A mixed-methods approach may have yielded further insight into this study.

**Method of sampling.** For this study, a nonprobability sampling method, also called a convenience sampling method, was utilized (Fields, 2009). This was done to ensure enough study participants, due to the low response rate of African Americans in research studies. Universities that provided employee contact information under the state’s Public Records Act was used to request participants for the sample. Only eight public universities were sampled to participate in the survey, and those institutions were historically White, mid- to large-sized institutions. Based on these restrictions,
generalization to other African American faculty, especially those outside of the Midwest area or private or nonsimilar-sized public institutions may not be applicable to the findings or interpretations.

**Instrumentation**

**The Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale.** Measuring Black racial identity attitude was conducted using the BRIAS. This instrument was produced based on a theoretical concept that was heavily impacted during a period when African Americans constantly had to fight for equal rights against the sociopolitical powers of the majority. Although the BRIAS has been updated several times, it is still based on the initial concepts by Cross (Helms & Parham, 1996). In addition, the reliability of subscales in this study may not accurately be representative of current Black racial identity attitudes and their impact on job satisfaction. Limited research has been previously conducted looking specifically at the use of the BRIAS in African American faculty populations. The BRIAS was utilized due to it being one of the most frequently cited instrumentation currently measuring Black racial identity attitudes (Yanico, Swanson, & Tokar, 2004).

**The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.** The MSQ was used to evaluate job satisfaction of African Americans at HWIs. This survey was used based on its wide use and acceptance for measuring job satisfaction in the industrial psychology field and use among professionals in higher education. However, some questions regarding management may not have accurately reflected the relationship and structure of higher education settings, as faculty often do not have a direct superior. Not clarifying the
departmental, college, or university level of administration could have an impact on the responses of participants and not accurately reflect their job satisfaction levels.

**Self-reporting.** For this study, participants had to self-report to complete the questions for the survey instruments; therefore, this information may include self-reporting bias. The survey instruments ask participants to share information regarding their perceptions regarding their place of employment, beliefs, and values, as well as racial viewpoints and attitudes. Participants may have responded based on socially desirable answers.

**Future Research Recommendations**

Listed below are future research recommendations that will enhance the study and literature regarding African American faculty job satisfaction and the contributors to race-related variables.

**Survey instrument development.** Continued research is needed to assess African American faculty members’ current views of racial identity. The BRIAS has very applicable questions for assessing views of Black racial identity, but given the higher education levels and experiences that African American faculty have with acculturating to majority White populations, the applicability of a scale that will capture the views and beliefs of this population is needed. In addition, more scales need to be evaluated and created that ideally focus on details that coincide with what African Americans establish as job satisfaction.

**Amplification of sample.** This study was limited to eight midsized Midwestern HWIs, and this is a major limitation. For future research, assessing the views of racial
identity and racial climate on a larger sample demographic is pertinent, as is gathering more information and increasing the ability to generalize the findings. It would also be helpful to do a comparative analysis between African American faculty at HWIs and HBCUs to analyze what components enhance job satisfaction levels at the given institutions.

**Racial climate atmosphere perceptions.** To thoroughly understand the view of positive racial climate, it is crucial that future studies investigate the beliefs and values of not only all faculty members but also college administrators. Increasing understanding of any differences between views and perceptions of the racial climate is imperative in creating an environment conducive to higher levels of job satisfaction of all college personnel.

**Gender difference investigation.** From this study, there was a defined difference in job satisfaction levels between males and females. Although studies have been completed looking at gender differences overall in faculty job satisfaction, there are few studies investigating what contributes to the differences of African American faculty job satisfaction gender differences. In addition, research should be done to investigate gender differences in the perception of Black racial identity and racial climate.

**How racial identity manifests in higher education.** The reliability coefficient for the overall BRIAS was between .68 and .86 for the individual scales. A more appropriate measure may need to be developed that will assess how racial identity manifests specifically for African Americans in higher educational settings that are historically and predominantly White.
Conclusion

The results of this study suggest that the level of job satisfaction of African American faculty members at HWIs is influenced by their gender, perceived racial climate and Black racial identity attitudes.

The results of the study highlight the need for institutions of higher education to be cognizant and address issues of gender and racial climate to proactively enhance the job satisfaction levels of African American faculty. In addition, the data reflects a growing need to add empirical research that addresses how racial identity is viewed and affects African Americans in current work-related situations. Addressing and correcting issues of the past and present regarding race-related variables in working conditions at HWIs is not only important for African American faculty but for all faculty, staff, and students who coexist and thrive in collegiate settings together.
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Appendix A: IRB Approval

The following research study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at Ohio University for the period listed below. This review was conducted through an expedited review procedure as defined in the federal regulations as Category(ies)

Project Title: An Analysis of Racial Identity Attitudes and the Perception of Racial Climate on Job Satisfaction of African American Faculty at Historically White Institutions

Primary Investigator: Rosalyn Yvette Brown Beatty
Co-Investigator(s):

Faculty Advisor: Yegan Pillay

Department: Counselor Education and Supervision

Rebecca Cale, AAB, CIP
Office of Research Compliance

Approval Date: 01/10/11
Expiration Date: 01/09/12

This approval is valid until expiration date listed above. If you wish to continue beyond expiration date, you must submit a periodic review application and obtain approval prior to continuation.

Adverse events must be reported to the IRB promptly, within 5 working days of the occurrence.

The approval remains in effect provided the study is conducted exactly as described in your application for review. Any additions or modifications to the project must be approved by the IRB (as an amendment) prior to implementation.
The following research study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at Ohio University for the period listed below. This review was conducted through an expedited review procedure as defined in the federal regulations as Category(ies):

Project Title: An Analysis of Racial Identity Attitudes and the Perception of Racial Climate on Job Satisfaction of African American Faculty at Historically White Institutions

Primary Investigator: Rosalyn Yvette Brown Beatty

Co-investigator(s):

Faculty Advisor: Yegan Pillay

Department: Counselor Education and Supervision

Rebecca Cale, AAB, CIP
Office of Research Compliance

01/09/13
Expiry Date

Approval Date

This approval is valid until expiration date listed above. If you wish to continue beyond expiration date, you must submit a periodic review application and obtain approval prior to continuation.

Adverse events must be reported to the IRB promptly, within 5 working days of the occurrence.

The approval remains in effect provided the study is conducted exactly as described in your application for review. Any additions or modifications to the project must be approved by the IRB (as an amendment) prior to implementation.
Appendix B: Permission to Use Instruments

Huensity Psychological Consulting LLC
PO Box 130
New Town MA 02458
617-540-6556

Dear Mrs. Rosalyn Y. Brown Beaty:

Your order for 10 copies of the Black Racial Identity Scale (BRIAS) with the Graduate School/Research Discount, allows you permission to copy the scales up to 500 times, and administer the test for research purposes. This permission to reproduce this scale only applies to your dissertation research study at Ohio University.

You may consider this document your official permission, granted by Huensity Psychological Consulting LLC, the publisher, and the permission of the author of the scale to use the scale for your dissertation research, as long as you keep within the guidelines provided in the catalog, online in e-mails to you, or provided with your shipment.

Thank you for choosing Huensity.

Sincerely,

Jacalyn L. Mindell
Jacalyn Mindell
Associate Director
Huensity Psychological Consulting LLC
Ms. Beatty,

Sorry for the delay! My move to NY City has slowed everything down.

If you wish to use the attached instrument, you can do so without charge if you agree to the following:

In exchange for free access to the scales in this file that I authored, I ask you to agree to the following. Unless otherwise noted on the scale, you can use scales developed in whole or in part by me without charge as long as you:

1. Do not distribute the scale(s) to others and notify me each time you use it in a new study.

2. Your use of the scale is not part of an effort intended to produce financial or commercial gain of any kind for you or any person or organization.

3. You notify me of any modifications you make to the scale and provide a copy of the revised version.

4. You provide me with a copy of any report or articles that use data from the scale.

5. You cite the author(s) of the scales you use when you use them.

6. You provide me with your psychometric information on the scale (reliability, factor structure, means, etc) if it is not included in #4 above.

Best to you and your participants in your research!

RJ Watts
Dear Rosalyn Y. Brown Beatty:

We are pleased to grant you permission to use the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire 1977 short form on a secure web site for your research project as you requested.

Please note that each copy that you make must include the following copyright statement:

Copyright 1977, Vocational Psychology Research
University of Minnesota. Reproduced by permission.

Vocational Psychology Research is currently in the process of revising the MSQ manual and it is very important that we receive copies of your research study results in order to construct new norm tables. Therefore, we would appreciate receiving a copy of your results including 1) Demographic data of respondents, including age, education level, occupation and job tenure; and 2) response statistics including, scale means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and standard errors of measurement.

Your providing this information will be an important and valuable contribution to the new MSQ manual. If you have any questions concerning this request, please feel free to call us at 612-625-1367.

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Dr. David J. Weiss, Director
Vocational Psychology Research
Appendix C: Participant Request Email

Greetings,

I, Rosalyn Brown Beatty, am a current doctoral candidate in Counselor Education and Supervision program at Ohio University. I am writing to request your voluntary participation in a research study. I am writing my dissertation on the work experiences of African Americans who teach as faculty in historically White institutions.

Your opinions and experiences are valuable to me and the field of counseling and academia. I humbly request your support in my research. The intention of this dissertation research is to examine the relationship between perceived racial climate, Black racial identity attitudes, gender and job satisfaction among African Americans faculty teaching at historically White institutions. It my hope that this information would increase the retention African Americans in teaching roles in higher education but also to prepare future generations of African American faculty members for life in the academy.

Participation in this study will require completing an electronic and a bio-demographic questionnaire via the internet. Length of time to complete the surveys and demographic questionnaire is approximately 20 - 30 minutes. We recognize that your time is important; however, your feedback is essential in furthering the profession of counseling.

Participating in this study is completely voluntary and confidential. In no way will your identity be revealed in any publication of report as a result of this study.

This study is approved by my dissertation committee, department and Ohio University’s Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects Research. If you have any questions and/or concerns about this research study, I, Rosalyn Brown Beatty, can be contacted at (513) 252-4365 / RB191007@ohio.edu, or my faculty advisor and chair, Dr. Yegan Pillay, at (740) 593-9427 / Pillay@ohio.edu.

Thank you for your consideration and time. Your participation for this study would be greatly appreciated!

***LINK TO SURVEY***

Respectfully,
Mrs. Rosalyn Y. Brown Beatty, M.A., P.C.
Doctoral Candidate
RB191007@ohio.edu
(513)252-4365
Appendix D: Consent Text

BEFORE DECIDING TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY, PLEASE READ THIS CONSENT INFORMATION.

Title of Research:
An Analysis of Racial Identity and Perception of Racial Climate on Job Satisfaction of African American Faculty at Historically White Institutions

Researchers:
Mrs. Rosalyn Y. Brown Beatty, M.A., P.C.        Dr. Yegan Pillay, Ph.D., PCC/S
Doctoral Candidate                        Assistant Professor
Counselor Education & Supervision             Counselor Education & Supervision
Ohio University                             Ohio University
201 McCracken Hall                          201 McCracken Hall
Athens, Ohio 45701                           Athens, Ohio 45701
(513)295-9130                                (740) 593-9427
RB191007@ohio.edu                          Pillay@ohio.edu

You are being asked to participate in research. For you to be able to decide whether you want to participate in this project, you should understand what the project is about, as well as the possible risks and benefits in order to make an informed decision. This process is known as informed consent. This form describes the purpose, procedures, possible benefits, and risks. It also explains how your personal information will be used and protected. Once you have read this form and all your questions about the study are answered, you will be asked to select the “I AGREE” button below. This will allow your participation in this study. You should print a copy of this document to refer to and for your records.

Explanation of Study

This study is designed to understand how specific variables may influence how you rate your job satisfaction levels teaching at a historically White college or university. This study specifically will research if there is a notable difference in job satisfaction levels in regards to the different gender of African American faculty members at the selected universities. The study will also investigate how your viewpoint on the racial environment contributes to the different levels of job satisfaction and if this difference is more influential than any difference there are because of gender. Lastly this study will investigate if your views of group identity (which is based on your outlook that you share with a common racial heritage group) and how this may impact job satisfaction levels.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to complete bio demographic sheet questions along with survey questions electronically via the internet. Your participation in the study will last between 20 – 30 minutes.
Risks and Discomforts:

There are no known risks associated with participation in this study. If you experience any discomfort in answering questions about your personal feelings toward racism in the workplace, racial identity attitude, or your current job satisfaction level, please be aware that you are able to stop taking the survey without penalty at any time. You can do so by closing your browser.

Benefits:

You may not benefit, personally by participating in this study. However, there may be some intrinsic satisfaction in knowing your feedback will add to the body of literature where their currently is a void examining African American faculty job satisfaction.

This study is beneficial to society because additional research is needed to better comprehend how colleges and universities can not only recruit but more importantly retain African American faculty in an appropriate and ethical manner. In attempt to understand African American faculty work experiences, more information needs to be gathered on their unique tenure in academia. Examining specific factors in regards to racial experiences and attitudes for African American faculty can help understand this subset of the overall faculty population unique experience. This will help with understanding concepts to help retention but also prepare the African American faculty of the future. It is important to understand job satisfaction for all faculty members, however understanding job satisfaction for faculty of color can have strong implications for the entire university community.

Confidentiality and Records

Your study information will be kept confidential by Rosalyn Brown Beatty, a doctoral candidate in the Department of Counselor Education and Supervision at Ohio University. Steps have been taken to protect the anonymity of your data. Identifying information will not be collected in this survey and you are free to skip any questions that you are uncomfortable answering. In addition, the surveys you complete will not be tracked from the Internet browser you use or the computer from which you submit your information. Consequently, there is no electronic trail enabling trace to a particular set of responses to a particular computer or individual. As you complete the survey, your responses will be transferred to a confidential database housed by the researcher. It is suggested you complete the survey using a computer in a private location so that others will not be able to view your responses. Even with these precautions, you should know that there is a very remote possibility that the information you submit could be viewed by a third party who has illegally tapped into the University system. The chance of this occurring is extraordinarily small, but you have the right to be aware of the possibility.

Additionally, while every effort will be made to keep your study-related information confidential, there may be circumstances where this information must be shared with:

* Federal agencies, for example the Office of Human Research Protections, whose responsibility is to protect human subjects in research;
* Representatives of Ohio University (OU), including the Institutional Review Board, a committee that oversees the research at OU

Contact Information

If you have any questions regarding this study, please contact Rosalyn Brown Beatty at RB191007@ohio.edu or (513) 295-9130 or my advisor, Dr. Yegan Pillay at (740) 593-9427 or Pillay@Ohio.edu.

If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, please contact Jo Ellen Sherow, Director of Research Compliance, Ohio University, (740) 593-0664.

By clicking on the “I Agree” button below, you are agreeing that:

- you have read this consent form (or it has been read to you) and have been given the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered
- you have been informed of potential risks and they have been explained to your satisfaction.
- you understand Ohio University has no funds set aside for any injuries you might receive as a result of participating in this study
- you are 18 years of age or older
- your participation in this research is completely voluntary
- you may leave the study at any time. If you decide to stop participating in the study, there will be no penalty to you and you will not lose any benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

I AGREE

Version Date: [12/29/2010]
Appendix E: Biographical Data Questionnaire

Please complete the following demographic information.

Please choose your gender:

Female □
Male □

Age: ____________

Please select your Race:

☐ African American/Black ☐ White
☐ Chinese ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native
☐ Asian Indian ☐ Japanese
☐ Korean ☐ Vietnamese
☐ Native Hawaiian ☐ Samoan
☐ Filipino ☐ Other __________________________

Are you of Hispanic, Latino or Spanish origin? No □ Yes □

Please select which title best aligns with your teaching title:

☐ Teaching Assistant ☐ Instructor ☐ Professor
☐ Associate Professor ☐ Assistant Professor
☐ Other __________________________

Academic Position/Administrative Role: __________________________

Average number of courses taught per academic year: ______

Years in position: ______

Highest degree earned:

☐ Less than high school ☐ High school diploma
☐ Some college ☐ Associate’s degree
☐ Bachelor’s degree ☐ Master’s Degree
☐ Professional school ☐ Doctorate (Ph.D., Ed.D., Psy.D., etc.)
☐ Other: __________________________
Appendix F: Racial Identity Attitude Scale

This questionnaire is designed to measure people’s attitudes about social and political issues. There are no right or wrong answers. Difference people have different viewpoints. So try to be as honest as you can. Beside each statement, circle the number that best describes how you feel. Use the scale below to respond to each statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I believe that being Black is a positive experience.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I know through my personal experiences what being Black in America means.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I am increasing my involvement in Black activities because I don’t feel comfortable in White environments.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I believe that large numbers of Blacks are untrustworthy.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I feel an overwhelming attachment to Black people.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I involve myself in causes that will help all oppressed people.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. A person’s race does not influence how comfortable I feel when I am with her or him.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I believe that White people look and express themselves better than Blacks.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I feel uncomfortable when I am around Black people.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I feel good about being Black, but do not limit myself to Black activities.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. When I am with people I trust, I often find myself using slang words to refer to White people.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I believe that being Black is a negative experience.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I am confused about whether White people have anything important to teach me.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I frequently confront the system and the (White) man.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I constantly involve myself in Black political and social activities (art shows, political meetings, Black theater, etc.)</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I involve myself in social action and political groups even if there are no other Blacks involved.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I believe that Black people should learn to think and experience life in ways that are similar to White people.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I believe that the world should be interpreted from a Black or Africentric perspective.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>I'm not sure how I feel about myself racially.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>I feel excitement and joy in Black surroundings.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>I believe that Black people came from a strange, dark, and uncivilized continent.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>People, regardless of their race, have strengths and limitations.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>I find myself reading a lot of Black literature and thinking about being Black.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>I feel guilty or anxious about some of the things I believe about Black people.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>I believe that a Black person's most effective weapon for solving problems is to become part of the White person's world.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>My identity revolves around being a Black person in this country.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>I limit myself to Black activities as much as I can.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>I am determined to find my Black identity.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>I like to make friends with Black people.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>I believe that I have many strengths because I am Black.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>I feel that Black people do not have as much to be proud of as White people do.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>I am at ease being around Black people.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>I believe that White people should feel guilty about the way they have treated Blacks in the past.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>White people can't be trusted.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>In today's society if Black people don't achieve, they have only themselves to blame.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>The most important thing about me is that I am Black.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>Being Black just feels natural to me.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>Other Black people have trouble accepting me because my life experiences have been so different from their experiences.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>Black people who have any White people's blood should feel ashamed of it.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>Sometimes, I wish I belonged to the White race.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>The people I respect most are White.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>I have begun to question my beliefs about my racial group.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. I feel anxious when White people compare me to other members of my race.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. I tend to bond easily with Black people.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. A person's race may be a positive aspect of who he or she is.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. When I am with Black people, I pretend to enjoy the things they enjoy.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. When a stranger who is Black does something embarrassing in public, I get embarrassed.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. I believe that a Black person can be close friends with a White person.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Sometimes I think that White people are superior and sometimes I think they're inferior to Black people.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. I have a positive attitude about myself because I am Black.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51. I participate in Black culture.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52. I am not sure where I really belong racially.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53. I believe that White people are more intelligent than Blacks.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54. I speak my mind regardless of the consequences (e.g. being kicked out of school, being imprisoned, being exposed to danger).</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55. I can't feel comfortable with either Black people or White people.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56. I often feel that I belong to the Black racial group.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57. I am embarrassed about some of the things I feel about my racial group.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58. Most Blacks I know are failures.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59. I am changing my style of life to fit my new beliefs about Black People.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. I am satisfied with myself.</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix G: Racial Climate Scale

Below are statements about the behaviors and policies that may or may not apply to your workplace. Using the scale below, answer the following questions about the UNIVERSITY YOU WORK IN. Choose the number that best describes how you feel.

1. My organization goes out of its way to make Blacks feel at home.  
   - Strongly Agree 1  
   - Agree 2  
   - Uncertain 3  
   - Disagree 4  
   - Strongly Disagree 5

2. Blacks are given the respect they deserve from Whites at work.  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   - 

3. Blacks are discriminated against through hiring practices.  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   - 

4. Race determines who gets the most desirable work/assignments.  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   - 

5. It’s just as hard for Whites to get ahead here as for Blacks.  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   - 

6. In general, organization-wide racism is a problem here.  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   - 

7. The racism here has caused me to consider quitting/transferring.  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   - 

8. An important job of management here is to help Blacks and other groups get along.  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   - 

9. There are Black people in positions of power here.  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   -  
   - 

10. Blacks have little to say about decisions affecting this organization.  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    - 

11. There are enough Blacks in powerful positions here.  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    - 

12. Black and White employees generally have good working relationships here.  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    - 

13. There is a very sensitive understanding and acceptance of differences about ethnic or racial groups here.  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    - 

14. Blacks get the promotions they deserve.  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    - 

15. Many changes have been made to make services (resources) available to Black people.  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    - 

16. Little has been done to change services or functioning to serve the culture of Black professionals.  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    - 

17. The opinions of Black people are respected here.  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    - 

18. Racism is not tolerated here.  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    -  
    - 
Appendix H: Job Satisfaction

For each item below ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job? Indicate your level of satisfaction by circling one of the responses for that item.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Very Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Dissat.</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Sat.</th>
<th>Very Satisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Being able to keep busy all the time</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The chance to work alone on the job</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The chance to do different things from time to time</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The chance to be &quot;somebody&quot; in the community</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The way my boss handles his/her workers</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
<td>○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions</td>
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<td>7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience</td>
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<td>8. The way my job provides for steady employment</td>
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<td>9. The chance to do things for other people</td>
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<td>11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities</td>
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<td>12. The way company policies are put into practice</td>
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<td>13. My pay and the amount of work I do</td>
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<td>14. The chances for advancement on this job</td>
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<td>15. The freedom to use my own judgment</td>
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<td>17. The working conditions</td>
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<td>18. The way my co-workers get along with each other</td>
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<td>19. The praise I get for doing a good job</td>
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<td>20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job</td>
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Appendix I: Debriefing Information

Please accept my sincere thanks in deciding to participate in the investigative study on African American faculty work experiences. The purpose of this study was to assess if gender, perceptions of the racial climate at your university, or if black racial identity attitudes influence your level of job satisfaction at a historically White college or university. In order to assess this, you were given measures to review job satisfaction, perceived racial climate and your racial identity attitude.

Should you have questions about this study or would like to be sent the results of this study please feel free to contact me at:

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Pillay@ohio.edu

Again, thank you for participating in this study!
Appendix J: Histogram

Histogram

Dependent Variable: Total_JobSat

Figure 1. Histogram of distribution of regression standardized residual
Appendix K: P-P Plot

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: Total_JobSat

*Figure 2.* Normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual
Figure 3. Scatterplot of regression standardized predicted value and standardized residuals to test for homogeneity.
### Appendix M: Correlational Table

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