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Workplace Stress and Workplace Well-Being Among African American Corporate Men and Women

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Walden University
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Abstract

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MS, Walden University, 2014

BS, University of Nebraska at Omaha, 2000

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Psychology

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Abstract

Many African Americans experience high levels of stress in their work environment, which can result in job dissatisfaction, intentions to leave, and greater levels of stress-related consequences. The purpose of this correlational quantitative research study was to examine the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. Michie's model of stress at work guided this study. Data were collected using the Health and Safety Executive Management Standards Indicator Tool, Cox, Thirlaway, Gotts, and Cox's General Well-Being Questionnaire, and a 3-minute researcher-created demographic questionnaire with 182 African American corporate employees. Data were analyzed using Spearman's rho correlation analysis, linear regression analysis, and a moderated linear regression analysis. Results indicated an increase in demands and relationships scores ($p < .001$) were associated with an increase in the well-being scores of participants. In addition, an increase in stress experienced in relation to control, manager's support, peer support, role, and change ($p < .001$) were associated with a decrease in well-being scores of participants. Furthermore, gender did not moderate the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being. The implications for positive social change are directed toward corporate employers, executives, supervisors, and human resource professionals to better understand that workplace stress is a problem for the African American workforce and to focus more attention and resources to reduce their workplace stress.

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Dedication

There is a Nigerian proverb stating, “It takes a village to raise a child.” This holds true for the support system to sustain a person going through their dissertation process. First and foremost, I want to thank my beautiful and amazing wife, Dr. Carolyn Rose-Smith, for her unwavering, steadfast support for me during this long process. She, along with my children, Scottlyn, Scott II, Scottalena, Ayiesha Smith, and Imani Smith, have been my biggest supporters and cheerleaders. Their love, support, energy, and accountability have been instrumental in me making it to this milestone. I also want to thank my grandchildren, Nylla, Kariya, and Kaydon. I want you to know Dr. Paw Paw has more time for you now. To my sister, Mrs. Johnna Wright, I love you and wish you and your new husband, William, happiness. Posthumously, I want to thank my brothers, Gerald and David Smith, for being a lifelong inspiration. To my niece, Dr. LaToya Smith, you are the Smith family trailblazer as the first Dr. Smith. To my nephew, Niko Smith-Vicinaiz, I am honored to witness the man, husband, and father that you have become.

Additionally, this dissertation is posthumously dedicated to those former colleagues who provided the inspiration to pursue the topic of my study. You are gone, but never forgotten! I thank my friend and mentor, Mr. Anthony Browder, for his spiritual and historical guidance. I want to also thank my military brothers and sisters, namely Marcos Sandate, Kirby Farmer, Kevin Curry, Darryl Branch, Michael Soucy, Jason Johnson, and Demetrius Fowlkes, for their steadfast friendship, encouragement, jibing, and love. We did it fellas!

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Researchers have studied employee behavior in the corporate sector as it relates to job-related stress (Cooper & Marshall, 1976; Paoline et al., 2015; Reid et al., 2014), various facets of discrimination (Deitch et al., 2003; Mays et al., 1996), social identity threat (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001; Emerson & Murphy, 2014), stereotype threat (Butler, 2015; Silverman & Cohen, 2014; von Hippel et al., 2015), and posttraumatic stress symptoms (Harris et al., 2017; Islamoska et al., 2018). Studies have been conducted on how these aspects of behavior affect African American males or females (Mays et al., 1996; Reid et al., 2014; Roberts, 2017), but sufficient investigation has not been conducted on the correlation between these behaviors and gender as it relates to well-being in the corporate American job sector.

In this study, I examined the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. This study may be significant because findings are directed toward corporate employers, executives, supervisors, and human resource professionals to better understand whether workplace stress is a problem for the African American workforce, and if so, findings may encourage corporate leaders to focus attention and resources to reduce workplace stress. In Chapter 1, I include the introduction, background of the study, problem statement, purpose of the study, research questions and hypotheses, theoretical foundation, nature of the study, definitions, assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, significance of the study, and a summary.

Background of the Study

In 2016, African Americans made up 12.6% of the U.S. workforce and the number is projected to grow to 12.9% by 2026 (Rolen & Toossi, 2018, para. 3). African Americans must deal with workplace and job-related stress situations that increase their risk of occupational stress (Lee et al., 2016; Roberts, 2017). The associations among health, personal resources, and work conditions may be stronger for African Americans as they experience higher disease rates such as for hypertension and diabetes, as well as health risk behavior issues and poorer health outcomes than other ethnic groups (O'Neal et al., 2014; Warner & Hayward, 2006). The life expectancy for African American men is shorter compared to women and most men from other ethnicities (Ellis et al., 2015; Thorpe et al., 2013). African American men also have high rates of many chronic diseases such as hypertension, Type 2 diabetes, and many cancers compared to Caucasian American men (Cao et al., 2019; Ellis et al., 2015; Lackland, 2014; Siegel et al., 2019). Roberts (2017) reported that due to African Americans' high exposure to work stressors and the association between job stress and stress-related illnesses that they disproportionately experience, there is a need for interventions that are designed to reduce or prevent occupational stress among African Americans.

African Americans in the United States have experienced a substandard tradition of employment (Reid et al., 2014; Roberts, 2017). Reid et al. (2014) reported that more attention was given to employment inequality after the Civil Rights Movement in the 1950s and 1960s as federal measures were created and put into place to address the inequality culture in the United States in general and in the workforce. Reid et al. related

that “since President Kennedy created the Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity” (p. 24) where the goal is to make sure that employment and hiring practices did not include racial bias, researchers have focused a lot of attention on the hiring process, but research is lacking on employment practices such as the workforce culture and promotion. Reid et al. emphasized that researchers have investigated constructs such as the glass ceiling among African Americans (e.g., West, 1993; Williams & Utsey, 2010), but research is sparse on “mechanisms that highlight ways in which race might impact job stress” (p. 24). In addition, Reid et al. explained that systematic research that examines African American employees’ individual factors and beliefs that may be related to work-related stress and declines in health is nonexistent. Therefore, there is gap in the research literature for studies that focus on the relationship between workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderates the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. In this study, I addressed this gap.

Problem Statement

Many African Americans experience high levels of stress in their work environment (Aronson et al., 2013; Driscoll et al., 2015; Hom et al., 2008; Major et al., 2013; O’Neal et al., 2014; Perez et al., 2011; Reid et al., 2014). This may be due to numerous factors such as organizational fit, workplace discrimination, and organizational diversity (Aronson et al., 2013; Driscoll et al., 2015; Hom et al., 2008; Major et al., 2013; O’Neal et al., 2014; Perez et al., 2011; Reid et al., 2014), all of which can result in “job dissatisfaction, intentions to leave, and greater levels of stress” (Lovelace & Rosen, 1996,

p. 703). Therefore, there is concern about the success of organizational efforts to value or manage diversity. Hom et al. (2008) also discovered that African Americans, as well as Hispanic and Asian Americans, quit more frequently each year resulting in shorter job tenure than their Caucasian American counterparts. Coleman and Stevenson (2013) explored racial stress of school faculty membership and found that African American faculty had significantly less trust in schools to manage racial conflict, lower sense of school membership, greater racial stress, and more racial socialization than their Caucasian counterparts.

Researchers have investigated gender differences in work stress and satisfaction (Guthrie & Jones, 2012; Hwang & Ramadoss, 2017; Paoline et al., 2015), as well as age (von Hippel et al., 2015), but research is lacking for the African American working population. Researchers have also studied the effect that workplace discrimination and stress have on life satisfaction (Chae et al., 2016; Driscoll et al., 2015; Ellis et al., 2015; O'Neal et al., 2014). Chae et al. (2016) found that racial discrimination is a source of workplace stress reported by African American men. Studies have been conducted to examine the effect of workplace-related stress on African Americans in the educational sector (Coleman & Stevenson, 2013), at the general employment level (Perez et al., 2011), and at the managerial level (von Hippel et al., 2015; Wilson & Roscigno, 2015); however, specific examination of the relationship between workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees as well as whether gender moderates the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population have not been sufficiently studied. Thus, using Michie's (2002) model of

stress at work, I conducted a correlational quantitative research study that examined the relationship between workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this correlational quantitative research study was to examine the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. In this study, corporate employees are defined as individuals who work for an independent legal entity owned by shareholders (U.S. Small Business Administration, 2016), such as a private sector company that contracts to do work for the U.S. government and receives federal funds. Workplace stress is defined as "the adverse reaction people have to excessive pressures or other types of demands placed on them at work" (Health and Safety Executive [HSE], 2017b, para. 1). Workplace well-being "relates to all aspects of working life, from the quality and safety of the physical environment, to how workers feel about their work, their working environment, the climate at work and work organization" (International Labour Organization, 2019, para. 1). I used Michie's (2002) model of stress at work as the theoretical foundation of this study. I collected data using the HSE Management Standards Indicator Tool (HSE-MS IT; HSE, 2017a), Cox et al.'s (1983) General Well-Being Questionnaire (GWBQ), and a 3-minute researcher-created demographic questionnaire with 182 African American

corporate employees. I used the HSE Management Standards Analysis Tool and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyze the data.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

In this correlational quantitative research study, I addressed the following research questions and hypotheses:

RQ1: What is the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States?

$H_0$1: There is no relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States.

H_a1: There is a relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States.

RQ2: Does gender moderate the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States?

$H_0$2: Males and females experience the same relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States.

H_a2: Males and females experience a different relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States.

Theoretical Foundation

Michie's (2002) model of stress at work served as the theoretical foundation for this research study. A brief overview of the theory is provided in this section with a more detailed explanation provided in Chapter 2. Michie's model of stress at work is composed of both organizational and psychological variables (Michie, 2002). Of interest to Michie's model are the psychological variables of social support, control over work, and participation. These variables occur across settings and careers. The psychological variables of social support, control over work, and participation are particularly important when discussing African American corporate employees. Sue and Sue (1990) related that African Americans are more socially interconnected than Caucasian Americans. Therefore, Michie's model of stress may serve as a structure for understanding the constructs involved in the research questions.

Nature of the Study

In this study, I examined the relationship between workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. I used purposive sampling, which is a nonprobability sampling technique to utilize a nonrepresentative subset of a larger population (see Etikan et al., 2016). The participants of this study were a purposive sample of 182 male and female African American corporate employees who work for an independent legal entity owned by shareholders, such as private sector companies that support the U.S. government. I used Walden University (2011) *Necessary Sample Size* table to calculate

the sample size. I set statistical power at .80 and alpha (α) at .05. The value of *r* of .31 was based on Reid et al.'s (2014) study; therefore, I used a medium effect size to determine the study's effect size. Subsequently, the power analysis revealed that for analyzing the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States with $\alpha = .05$, to detect an effect size of .31, and with a power of .80, the study required a sample of at least 84 participants.

The independent variable in this study was workplace stress, the dependent variable was workplace well-being, and the moderator variable was gender. I collected data using the HSE-MS IT (HSE, 2017a), Cox et al.'s (1983) GWBQ, and a 3-minute researcher-created demographic questionnaire. The HSE-MS IT used to assess workplace stress consists of 35 items that asked about working conditions known to be potential causes of work-related stress (see HSE, 2017a). This tool took approximately 15 minutes to complete. The HSE Management Standard Indicator Tool, the HSE Management Standard Analysis Tool, and the HSE Management Standard Indicator Tool manual are all available online for free public use. I used the GWBQ to assess workplace well-being; it is a short symptom checklist developed for use with people of working age (see Cox, 2017). Cox et al. (1983) indicated that the scales are valid and could offer useful insights into effects on general well-being in studies pertaining to occupational stress and health. The GWBQ is available for free public use but requires that users agree to the conditions of use in writing, which I completed by sending an email (see Appendix G). I used the 3-

minute researcher-created demographic questionnaire to collect demographic information such as gender and length of employment.

I recruited participants through social media, specifically LinkedIn and Facebook, thus, inviting potential participants to participate anonymously by reading the social media post and invitation letter, clicking on the consent form link in the invitation letter, and then clicking on the SurveyMonkey link at the bottom of the consent form. The consent form provided enough information about the selection criteria to allow the participants to self-identify and self-select into the study. Participants first read the consent form before clicking the SurveyMonkey link at the bottom to complete the questionnaires. Therefore, implied consent was used rather than signed consent as participants were informed on the consent form that completing the web link questionnaires indicated their voluntary consent to take part in the study. The SurveyMonkey account was set to ensure complete anonymity so that I could not identify individuals based on their responses, hence, participants' identities were anonymous. I conducted the study in accordance with the parameters established by Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) to ensure the ethical protection of research participants.

I used the HSE Management Standards Analysis Tool and the SPSS to analyze the data. Data analysis included descriptive statistics, frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, Spearman's rho correlation analysis, linear regression, and moderated multiple regression analysis. The data is kept secure in a locked file cabinet and password protected computer in my private home office where I am the only one

with access to the records. I will keep the data for 5 years based on Walden University's guidelines.

Definitions

African American: "A person having origins in any of the Black racial groups of Africa" (U.S. Office of Management and Budget, 1997, p. 19).

African American corporate employees: African American individuals who work for an independent legal entity owned by shareholders (U.S. Small Business Administration, 2016), such as private sector companies that support the U.S. government.

Diversity: "Refers to differences in various defining personal traits such as age, gender, race, marital status, ethnic origin, religion, education and many other secondary qualities" (Kokemuller, 2017, para. 1).

Michie's (2002) model of stress at work: "The workplace factors that have been found to be associated with stress and health risks, [which] can be categorized as those to do with the content of work and those to do with the social and organizational context of work" (Michie, 2002, p. 68).

Organizational diversity: "Organizational diversity in the workplace refers to the total makeup of the employee workforce and the amount of diversity included" (Kokemuller, 2017, para. 1).

Racial discrimination: "Interpersonal interactions and cultural/institutional arrangements that denigrate and marginalize individuals and groups on the basis of physical characteristics or ethnic group affiliation" (Driscoll et al., 2015, p. 463).

Racism: "Beliefs, attitudes, institutional arrangements, and acts that tend to denigrate individuals or groups because of phenotypic characteristics or ethnic group affiliation" (Clark et al., 1999, p. 805).

Stereotype threat: "The unpleasant psychological experience of confronting negative stereotypes about race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, or social status" (Aronson et al., 2013, p. 50).

Social identity threat: "Experiences appraised as indicating potential harm to the value, meanings, or enactment of an identity" (Petriglieri, 2011, p. 644).

Work control: Also known as control over work, work control is "a psychosocial characteristic made up of two dimensions, including the breadth of skills one can use at work (i.e., skill discretion) and the amount of control over one's work (i.e., decision latitude;" O'Neal et al., 2014, pp. 386-387).

Workplace stress: "The adverse reaction people have to excessive pressures or other types of demands placed on them at work" (HSE, 2017b, para. 1).

Workplace well-being: "Relates to all aspects of working life, from the quality and safety of the physical environment, to how workers feel about their work, their working environment, the climate at work and work organization" (International Labour Organization, 2019, para. 1). Deitch et al. (2003) also noted that job-specific well-being is often referred to as job satisfaction.

Assumptions

I made the following assumptions for this correlational quantitative research study:

- The HSE-MS IT (HSE, 2017a), Cox et al.'s (1983) GWBQ, and a 3-minute researcher-created demographic questionnaire were appropriate for examining the relationship between workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. Therefore, to minimize negative effects on the study, I used objective measures.
- The three questionnaires accurately measured what they were intended to measure.
- Participants were able to clearly understand the wording of the three questionnaires and were able to answer the questions.
- Participants openly and honestly answered the survey questions.
- The findings obtained in this study may be generalized to similar populations of African American corporate employees in the United States.
- The results of the study may lead to positive social change as corporate leaders may focus additional attention and resources to reduce workplace stress among African American employees.

Scope and Delimitations

The study's participants included male and female African American corporate employees in the United States who worked for an independent legal entity owned by shareholders, such as private sector companies that support the U.S. government. In this study, I only focused on the relationship between workplace stress on workplace well-

being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. Excluded from the study were individuals who were not African American and those who were not corporate employees in the United States. To prevent the possibility of coercion, I did not directly or intentionally recruit individuals with whom I have a professional or personal relationship to take part in the study, such as subordinates. Instead, I recruited participants through social media, specifically LinkedIn and Facebook, thus, inviting potential participants to participate anonymously by reading the social media post and invitation letter, clicking on the consent form link in the invitation letter, and then clicking on the SurveyMonkey link at the bottom of the consent form.

Limitations

There were limitations in this correlational quantitative research study. Firstly, a possible limitation had to do with generalizing the results of the study as 182 male and female African American corporate employees who work for an independent legal entity owned by shareholders, such as private sector companies that support the U.S. government, took part in the study. Therefore, I may not be able to generalize the findings to all African American corporate employees or all corporate employees in the United States. In addressing this limitation, in future research studies, a larger sample size could be used.

A second limitation had to do with the correlational research design as the relationship between two variables could possibly be explained by a third variable, thus,

direct cause and effect cannot be inferred (Queirós et al., 2017). A third limitation pertained to the use of questionnaires as the reliability of the data is dependent on the survey structure and the quality of answers (Queirós et al., 2017). The quantitative survey structure is also rigid, where participants' emotional changes, emotions, and behaviors are not captured (Queirós et al., 2017). In future studies, additional research methods could be used such as a mixed-methods study to get a more in-depth understanding of the problem.

A fouth limitation had to do with bias issues, such as social desirability bias and inattentiveness (McKibben & Silva, 2016). McKibben and Silva (2016) discussed threats to validity, specifically, inattentiveness and social desirability responding. McKibben and Silva related that participants' inattentiveness pertains to them answering questions without considering survey content, whereas social desirability refers to participants' presenting themselves too positively. However, in this correlational quantitative research study, I assumed that participants were attentive, honest, and open when they answered the questions on all three questionnaires. Although there are problems with self-report data, where participants may not fully or accurately self-evaluate, the use of the 5-point Likert scale format on the HSE-MS IT and GWBQ helped mitigate this bias issue as participants were not given the freedom to include other information that they may have thought was important.

Significance of the Study

This study may be significant because a better understanding of the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate

employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderates the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population might help corporate employers, executives, supervisors, and human resource professionals to better understand whether workplace stress is a problem for the African American workforce. In addition, findings may encourage corporate leaders to focus attention and resources to reduce workplace stress. This correlational quantitative research study added to the literature and advanced knowledge by filling a gap in the psychological literature with respect to workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between these variables in this population. This study may also influence future studies in a manner that leads to additional research in this area. Findings from this study could be beneficial not only to the psychology field, but to a wide array of other fields, including the fields of counseling, public policy and administration, and business administration. The findings from the study may also be applicable to many agencies and organizations, to include the American Psychological Association (APA), American Sociological Association, the U.S. Department of Labor, the Center for International Private Enterprise, and the National Human Resources Association.

Summary

In this correlational quantitative research study, I examined the relationship between workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population; thus, this

study helped to fill the gap in the psychological literature with respect to this topic. Michie's (2002) model of stress at work served as the theoretical foundation for this research study. Participants of this study included a purposive sample of at least 182 male and female African American corporate employees who work for an independent legal entity owned by shareholders. Data analysis included descriptive statistics, frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviations, Spearman's rho correlation analysis, linear regression, and moderated multiple regression analysis. Findings from study may lead to positive social change by increasing corporate leaders' understanding of the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American employees; thus, they may focus more attention and resources to reduce workplace stress among African American employees.

In Chapter 1, I included the introduction, background of the study, problem statement, purpose of the study, research questions and hypotheses, theoretical foundation, nature of the study, definitions, assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, significance of the study, and a summary. In Chapter 2, I include the introduction, literature search strategy, theoretical foundation, African American corporate employees and workplace stress, African American corporate employees and workplace well-being, African American corporate employees and gender differences, and a summary and conclusions. In Chapter 3, I include the introduction, research design and rationale, methodology, data analysis plan, threats to validity, and a summary. In Chapter 4, I include the introduction, data collection, study results, and a summary. In

Chapter 5, I include the introduction, interpretation of findings, limitations of the study, recommendations, implications, and conclusions.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this correlational quantitative research study was to examine the relationship between workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. Reid et al. (2014) discussed two main sources of stress at work for both male and female employees in different job settings: (a) job pressure and (b) lack of organizational support. Reid et al. noted that job pressure pertains to work components, whereas organizational support pertains to "supervisors, coworkers, and policies and procedures of the employment organization" (p. 25). Michie (2002) noted the importance of organizational level interventions to ameliorate workplace stress.

African Americans use different strategies when conveying their beliefs, values, and morals in the workplace (Reid et al., 2014). Reid et al. (2014) reported that African Americans use acculturation strategies, thus, the adjustment burden lies with them within the domanant Western European culture in the United States. Acculturation strategies used by African Americans have been termed marginalist, assimilationist, integrationist, and traditionalist (Obasi, 2005; Reid et al., 2014). Reid et al. related that African Americans may use these strategies when interacting with individuals of the majority culture or within environments that are dominated by individudals of the majority culture, such as in the workplace. Therefore, the researchers noted that it is important to understand the workplace environment and the individual within that environnment where many occupational stress-related problems that African Americans face are

generated by the broader system of racism in society (Jackson & Stewart, 2003; Reid et al., 2014).

Structural racism is associated with racial health inequalities (McCluney et al., 2018). McCluney et al. (2018) reported that structural racism may take place "through an unequal labor market that results in inequalities in psychosocial workplace environments" (p. 106). McCluney et al. used data from the 2008 to 2012 Health and Retirement Study and the Department of Labor's Occupational Information Network to predict health inequality between African American and Caucasian American workers. Findings indicated that compared to their Caucasian American counterparts, African Americans experienced more stressful psychosocial workplace environments and had poorer health, which was measured by mean arterial pressure, episodic memory function, and self-rated health. This current study added new knowledge to the existing body of research by examining the relationship between workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. In Chapter 2, I include the introduction, literature search strategy, theoretical foundation, African American corporate employees and workplace stress, African American corporate employees and workplace well-being, African American corporate employees and gender differences, and a summary and conclusions.

Literature Search Strategy

The literature search strategies that I used included a comprehensive search in Walden University Library databases to include PsycARTICLES, PsycINFO, Academic

Search Complete, SAGE Premier, ProQuest Central, and Thoreau Multi-Database Search. In addition, I carried out searches through Google Scholar. The search terms included *workplace stress and African Americans*, *workplace well-being and African Americans*, *stress and corporate employees*, *gender and workplace stress*, *women and workplace stress*, *men and workplace stress*, and *Michie's model of stress at work*. I was able to find additional scholarly sources after examining the reference sections from articles, books, dissertations, and theses. I focused on current scholarly articles that were published within the last 5 years.

Theoretical Foundation

Michie's (2002) model of stress at work served as the theoretical foundation for this correlational quantitative research study. In this study, I discuss major theoretical propositions of the theory and how the theory has been applied previously in similar ways to this correlational quantitative research study. I organized this subsection in the following areas: (a) Michie's model of stress at work and (b) research application of Michie's model of stress at work.

Michie's Model of Stress at Work

There are many definitions of stress (Michie, 2002). Michie (2002) noted that stress pertains to the interaction between the situation and individuals; specifically, the psychological and physical state that results when people's resources are not enough to cope with the demands and pressures of the situation. Hence, Michie reported that stress tends to occur more in certain situations and in some individuals. In addition, Michie related that stress can undermine individual and organizational goal achievements, which

are displayed in Table 1. I have sought and obtained permission to use, adapt, and reprint the problem of stress table (see Appendix A).

Table 1

The Problem of Stress

For the individual	For the workplace/organization
Threats to:	Threats to:
Health	Increased absenteeism and turnover
Wellbeing/quality of life	Reduced quantity and quality of work
Functioning/goal achievement	Reduced job satisfaction and morale
Self-esteem/confidence	Problems of recruitment
Personal development	Poor communication and increased conflict

Note. Adapted from "Causes and Management of Stress at Work," by S. Michie, 2002, *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, *59*, p. 68 (https://doi.org/10.1136/oem.59.1.67). Copyright 2002 by Susan Michie. Adapted with permission.

Signs of stress can be observed in individuals' behavior, such as changes in behavior (Michie, 2002). Michie (2002) explained that acute responses to stress may be related to feelings, such as anxiety, depression, irritability, and fatigue; behavior such as being withdrawn, aggressive, tearful, and unmotivated; thinking such as concentration and problem-solving difficulties; or physical symptoms such as palpitations, nausea, and headaches. Michie related that if stress continues, then changes occur in neuroendocrine, cardiovascular, and autonomic and immunological functioning, which then leads to

mental and physical illnesses such as anxiety, depression, and heart disease. These are displayed in Table 2 and Figure 1. I have sought and obtained permission to use, adapt, and reprint the signs of stress table and a model of stress at work figure (see Appendix A).

Table 2

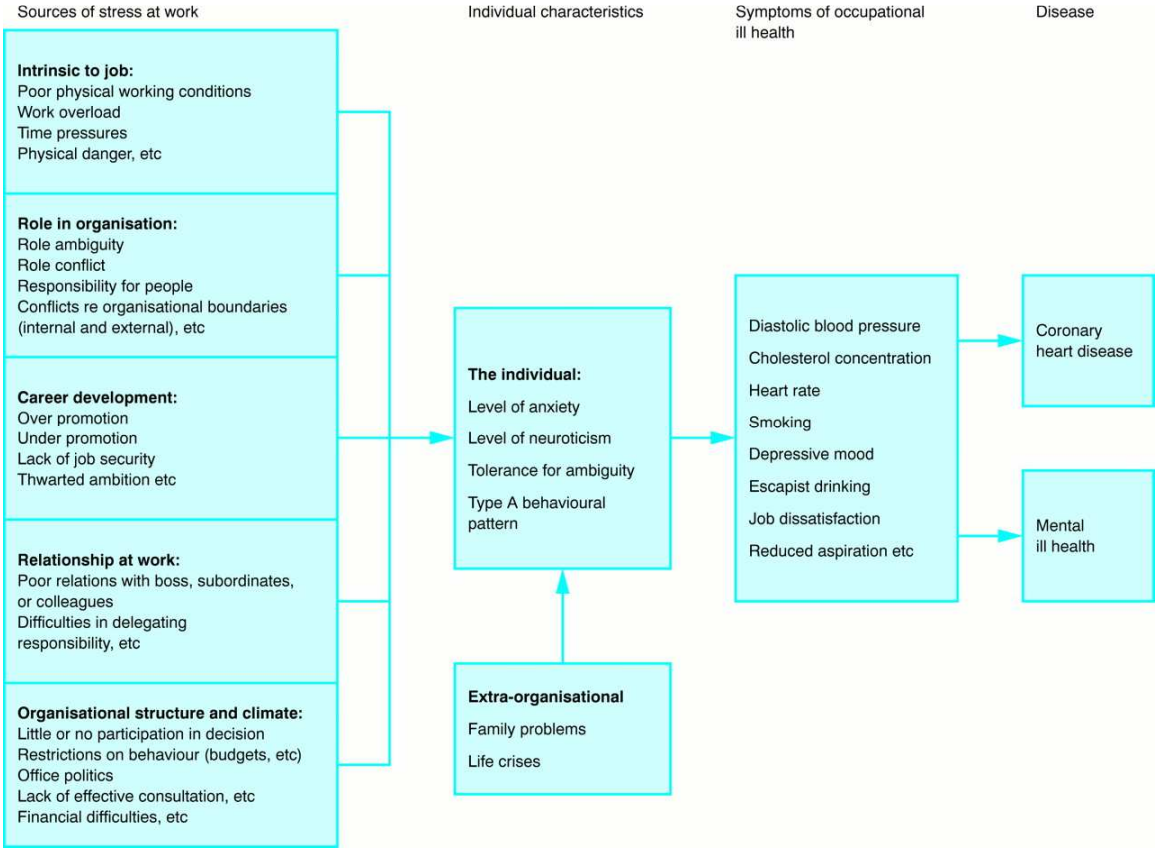
Signs of Stress

How you feel (emotions)	How you behave	How you think (cognitions)	Your body
Anxious Depressed/tired Angry/irritable/frustrated Apathetic/bored	Have accidents/make mistakes Eating/sleeping problems Take drugs (e.g., tobacco, alcohol) Problematic social behavior (e.g., withdrawal, aggression)	Poor concentration and memory Poor organization and decision making Less creative in problem solving Hypersensitive to criticism	Sweating, dizzy, nauseous, breathless Aches and pains Frequent infections Asthma, ulcers, skin complaints, cardiac problems

Note. Adapted from "Causes and Management of Stress at Work," by S. Michie, 2002, *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, *59*, p. 68 (https://doi.org/10.1136/oem.59.1.67). Copyright 2002 by Susan Michie. Adapted with permission.

Figure 1

A Model of Stress at Work

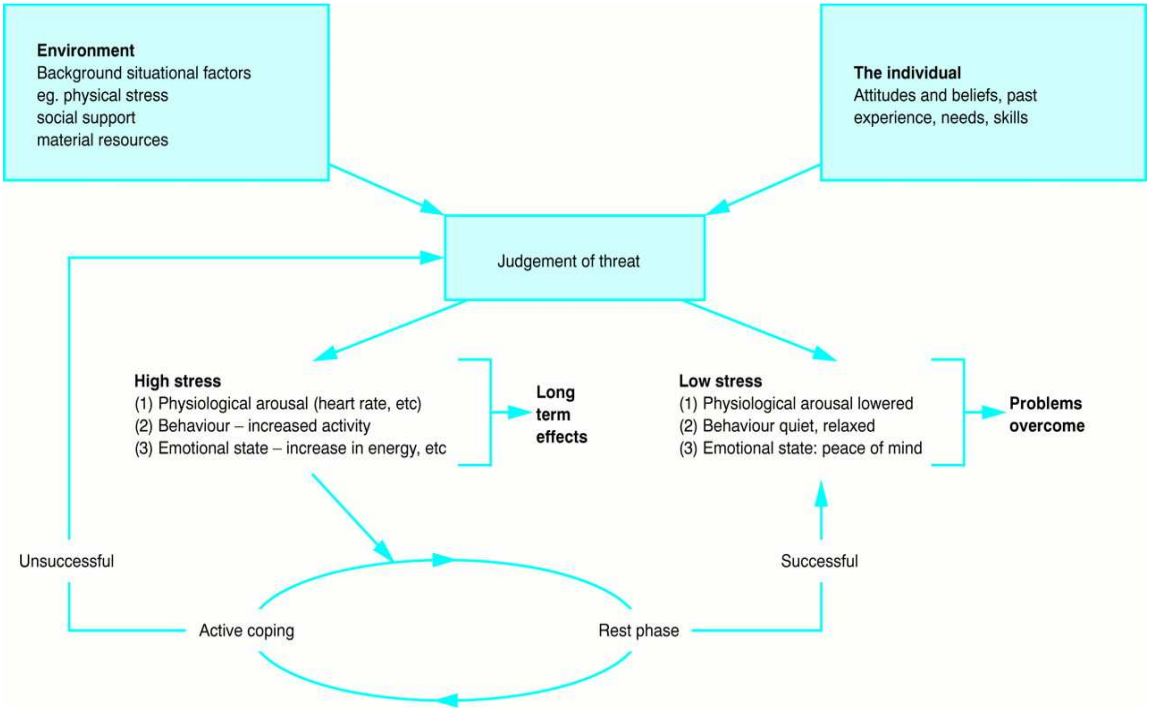


Note. Reprinted from "Occupational Sources of Stress: A Review of the Literature Relating to Coronary Heart Disease and Mental Ill Health," by C. Cooper and J. Marshall, 1976, *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *49*, p. 12 (https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1976.tb00325.x). Copyright 1976 by Cary Cooper and Judi Marshall. Reprinted with permission.

There are situations that may cause stress, such as unpredictable or uncontrollable situations as well as those that are uncertain; unfamiliar or ambiguous; and those involving conflict, loss, or performance expectations (Michie, 2002). In addition, Michie (2002) reported that time limited events may cause stress, such as job insecurity, family demands, and long commutes. Michie discussed two protective physiological mechanisms in relation to the degree of stress that individuals experience: (a) alarm reaction and (b) adaptation. In relation to alarm reaction, Michie related that when individuals are confronted with a threat to their safety, their first response is physiological arousal, where the muscles tense and breathing and heart rate become more rapid. Michie noted that present day threats are normally psychological, such as a supervisor's unjustified verbal attack. In this situation, the author noted that it not socially acceptable to fight or flight, but instead, individuals should use assertive communication. In relation to adaptation, Michie reported that this adaptive mechanism allows individuals to stop responding when they learn that stimuli in the environment are no longer a threat to their safety. The author noted that when either the alarm reaction or the adaption mechanism does not function properly or when individuals find it challenging to switch appropriately from one to another, stress is experienced. Michie noted that this forms the basis of individual approaches to stress management as depicted in Figure 2. I have sought and obtained permission to use and reprint a model of stress and its management figure (see Appendix A).

Figure 2

A Model of Stress and its Management



Note. Reprinted from "Causes and Management of Stress at Work," by S. Michie, 2002, *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, *59*, p. 69 (https://doi.org/10.1136/oem.59.1.67). Copyright 2002 by Susan Michie. Reprinted with permission.

As depicted in Figure 2, individuals' perception or appraisal of the situation is key to whether or not it causes stress (Michie, 2002). Michie (2002) noted that this is the basis of the transactional model of stress, where people's ability to prevent or reduce stress is determined by their appraisal of the threat within a situation, which is the primary appraisal, and the appraisal of their coping skills to deal with that treat, which is the secondary appraisal. Michie related that past experiences of confronting stress shaped these appraisals, thus, influencing future behavior and appraisals. Hence, Michie

explained that the process of appraisal, behavior, and stress is continuous, and that stress can be managed by changing the way the situation is appraised (cognitive techniques) or responded to (behavioral or cognitive techniques).

The workplace contributes to both demands and pressures that cause stress as well as structural and social resources to counteract stress (Michie, 2002). As depicted in Figure 1, workplace factors that are related to stress and health risks can be categorized as those to do with the content of work and social and organizational context of work (Michie, 2002). According to Michie (2002), those that are intrinsic to the job include poor physical working condition, work overload, time pressures, physical dangers, and long hours. Michie noted that other sources of stress at work include unclear work or conflicting roles and boundaries, as well as being responsible for others. The author related that important buffers against stress include the potential for job development, relationships at work, and the organizational culture. However, Michie reported the stress of under promotion, lack of training, and job insecurity. In addition, Michie noted stress due to managers who are critical, demanding, and unsupportive, or bullying. The author noted that a positive social dimension of work and good team works to reduce stress. Michie discussed five factors related to psychological ill health and associated absenteeism: (a) long hours worked, work loaded, and pressure; (b) the effects of these on personal lives; (c) lack of control over work and lack of participation in decision making; (d) poor social support, and (e) unclear management and work role, and poor management style.

As shown in both Figures 1 and 2, people are different in their risk of experiencing stress and how vulnerable they are to the adverse effects of stress (Michie, 2002). Michie (2002) explained that people tend to experience stress because they lack material resources such as financial security and psychological resource such as coping skills and self-esteem. In addition, Michie explained that people tend to be harmed by stress if they normally react emotionally to situations and are highly competitive and pressured, such as those with Type A behavior. Michie related that a successful strategy to prevent stress at work is to make sure that the job fits the individual instead of trying to make individuals fit jobs that do not meet their qualifications.

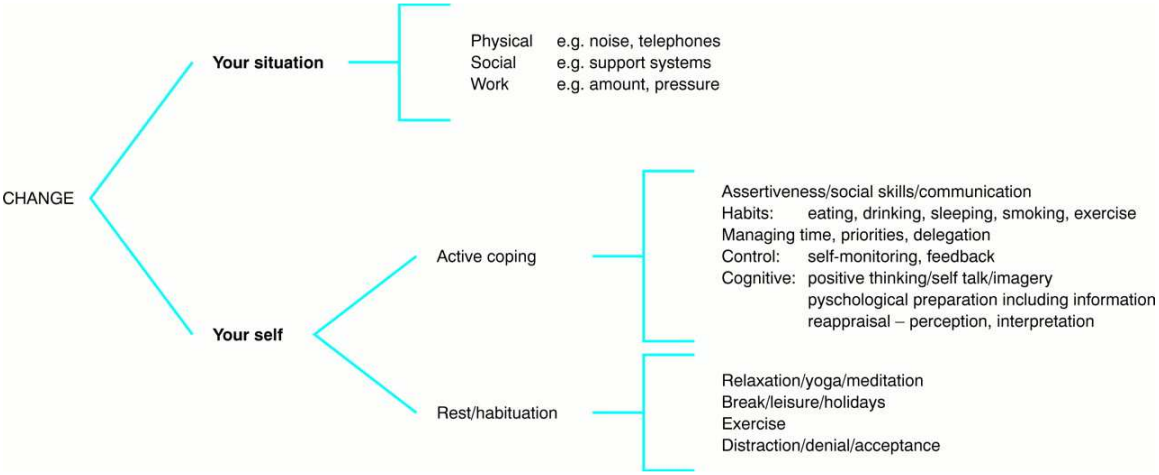
The demands that employees face at the workplace affect their home and social lives (Michie, 2002). Michie (2002) discussed sources that may affect family responsibilities and leisure activities, such as working long hours, working away from home, taking work home, responsibility levels are high, job insecurity, and job relocation. The author noted that these sources undermine the quality of employees' life outside work because a good and relaxing life outside of work is an important buffer against the stress caused by work. Michie also discussed domestic pressures, which include financial concerns, childcare, bereavement, and housing problems as factors that may affect people's work. Michie pointed out that women are more susceptible to experience the sources of stress than men because the burden is more on them when it comes to childcare and domestic responsibilities. In addition, Michie noted that women tend to have lower paying and low status jobs, often work shifts to accommodate domestic responsibilities, and may face discrimination and harassment.

Both individual and organizational approaches are often used to reduce the risk to health associated with stress in the workplace (Michie, 2002). Michie (2002) reported that individual approaches include training and psychological services such as clinical, occupational, health, or counseling. The author noted that the focus of these individual approaches should be on changing individual skills and resources and helping people change their situation. Michie noted that the techniques listed in Figure 3 are similar to the active coping (fight or flight) and rest phases (habituation) of the stress model. I have sought and obtained permission to use and reprint the technique for managing stress figure (see Appendix A). Michie related that training helps prevent stress through the following:

1. Becoming aware of the signs of stress.
2. Using this to interrupt behavior patterns when the stress reaction is just beginning. Stress usually builds up gradually. The more stress builds up, the more difficult it is to deal with.
3. Analyzing the situation and developing an active plan to minimize the stressors.
4. Learning skills of active coping and relaxation, developing a lifestyle that creates a buffer against stress.
5. Practicing the above in low stress situations first to maximize chances of early success and boost self-confidence and motivation to continue. (p. 70)

Figure 3

Techniques for Managing Stress



Note. Techniques for managing stress. Reprinted from "Causes and Management of Stress at Work," by S. Michie, 2002, *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, *59*, p. 70 (https://doi.org/10.1136/oem.59.1.67). Copyright 2002 by Susan Michie. Reprinted with permission.

Different training courses may also help in developing active coping techniques such as communication skills, assertiveness, problem solving, time management, and effective management (Michie, 2002). Michie (2002) noted that individuals may perceive many sources of stress as being outside of their control to change such as those pertaining to the structure, management style, or culture of the organization. Michie emphasized that stress management approaches that focus on changing the person without changing the source of the stress are not very effective and may not be productive due to the masking of the source. Thus, Michie noted that the main aim of the individual approach is to develop employees' skills and confidence to change their situation rather than help them adapt to and accept a stressful situation.

Stress is created within the organization; therefore, to prevent and manage workplace stress, organizational level interventions are needed (Michie, 2002). Michie (2002) discussed structural and psychological organizational interventions. The author noted that structural interventions include staffing levels, work schedules, and the physical environment, whereas psychological interventions include social support, control over work, and participation. Michie noted that success in managing and preventing stress is dependent on the organizational culture. The author related that stress should not be seen as a weakness, but instead, helpful information to guide action. Michie reported that it is essential to have a culture of openness and understanding instead of blame and criticism, which requires active leadership and role models from the top of the organization. In addition, in building this culture, a stress policy should be developed and implemented throughout the organization as well as systems used to identify problem early and to review and improve the strategies developed to address them (Michie, 2002). Michie noted that the stress policy should be negotiated with health and safety committees and trade unions. Michie also emphasized the importance of evaluating interventions to assess their effectiveness, which should include a high response rate, valid and reliable measures, and a control group.

Research Application of Michie's Model of Stress at Work

African Americans have experienced substandard employment patterns and research is sparse on the ways race may impact job stress (Reid et al., 2014). Reid et al. (2014) examined the extent that acculturation strategy, which included traditionalist behavior, traditionalist beliefs, assimilationist behaviors, and assimilationist beliefs affect

perceived job stress in African American professionals. Reid et al. used Obasi's (2005) Measurement of Acculturation Strategies for People of African Decent (MASPAD) to examine the acculturation strategy and Spielberger and Vaag's (1999) Job Stress Survey to examine perceived job stress. Reid et al. emphasized that Michie's model of stress at work includes both organizational and psychological variables of control over work, social support, and participation. Reid et al. noted that these three variables appear across careers and settings and are important when focusing on African American workers. The authors related that compared to their Caucasian American counterparts, African Americans are more interconnected socially. Thus, Reid et al. reported that it is important to understand how African Americans recreate themselves in work environments with different levels of perceived social support.

Participants included 87 African American men and women with a professional occupation and between the ages of 24 and 65 years of age (Reid et al., 2014). Reid et al. (2014) found that the findings were not consistent with "the belief that traditionalist individuals value their original culture and isolate themselves from the mainstream society" (p. 31). Instead, the researchers found that "findings did not exhibit any significant correlation between the traditionalist acculturation strategy and perceived job stress" (p. 31). On the other hand, exploratory analysis from the study indicated that the use of an assimilation acculturative coping strategy was associated with an increase in perceived job stress. Reid et al. highlighted an important finding, which was "the moderately significant correlation between assimilation behaviors and perceived lack of organizational support and job stress" (p. 31). The researchers explained this finding by

noting that participants who tried to behave in ways that are more assimilated to the Caucasian American culture and society felt less support at work and more stress on the job. This finding may be explained in relation to possible stigmatization resulting in increased anxiety (Perry et al., 2003).

Possible sources of job stressors can be found in five main categories, which are as follows: (a) intrinsic to job, (b) role in organization, (c) career development, (d) work relationship, (e) and organizational structure and climate (Cooper & Marshall, 1976; Lai et al., 2013; Michie, 2002; Reid et al., 2014). Lai et al. (2013) examined whether the impact of different stressful aspects of job on employees' experience of overall job stress differ significantly by enterprise size. In relation to the third hypothesis in the study, which was that "good work relationship reduces employees' experience of work stress, and the association is likely to be stronger in" (p. 224) small and medium-sized enterprises than in large enterprises, Lai et al. discussed Michie's (2002) model of stress at work. Specifically, Lai et al. noted that Michie suggested that stress can be reduced when the organizational culture includes employees in decision-making, as well as keeping them informed about what is happening in the organization, and adequately consulting with employees. The researchers used a matched employer–employee dataset from the latest wave of Workplace Employment Relations Survey (WERS2011) and used a sample of 7,182 employees from 1,210 private organizations in the United Kingdom.

Findings indicated that poor career prospects, work overload, inflexible work environment, and negative work relationships increase job stress (Lai et al., 2013). Lai et al. (2013) found that impact level of each job stressor was significantly different by

enterprise size. Specifically, the researchers found that good work relationships and poor communication, job insecurity and poor career progression, and quantitative work overload seemed to have stronger impact on employees' experience of job stress in medium-sized enterprises. Alternatively, in larger enterprises, Lai et al. found that poor job autonomy, employee engagement, and qualitative work overload were more important stressors. Thus, findings indicated that the magnitude and association of estimated effects was significantly different based on enterprise size.

African American Corporate Employees and Workplace Stress

In this section, I provide an in-depth review of the current literature related to African American corporate employees and workplace stress. I organize this section in the following subsections: racial discrimination; race-based discrimination, workplace stress, and gender; work control; stereotyped threat; social identity threat; and posttraumatic stress disorder.

Racial Discrimination

Racial discrimination is a source of social stress and is a common stressor among African Americans (Chae et al., 2016; Driscoll et al., 2015). Driscoll et al. (2015) defined racial discrimination as "interpersonal interactions and cultural/institutional arrangements that denigrate and marginalize individuals and groups on the basis of physical characteristics or ethnic group affiliation" (p. 463). Racial discrimination takes place at the individual level (e.g., interpersonal) and structural level (e.g., cultural and societal) level (Driscoll et al., 2015; Harrell, 2000). Driscoll et al. explained that racial discrimination is different from racism as racism involves stigmatizing beliefs and

attitudes that socially exclude individuals and groups, whereas racial discrimination involves the practices and behaviors that deny equal treatment to those individuals and groups. Minorities, such as African Americans, experience three types of racial discrimination: (a) individual discrimination, (b) institutional discrimination, and (c) cultural discrimination (Driscoll et al., 2015; Harrell, 2000). Driscoll et al. reported that individual discrimination pertains to "the manifestation of beliefs in the inferiority of racial or ethnic groups at the individual level through interpersonal exchanges" (p. 463). The researchers noted that institutional discrimination refers to bias against the functioning or status of ethnic and racial groups. Driscoll et al. noted that cultural discrimination pertains to the representation and depiction of ethnic and racial groups' culture as lesser or inferior.

Researchers have found an association between racial discrimination and adverse mental health outcomes (Driscoll et al., 2015; Pieterse et al., 2011). Driscoll et al. (2015) investigated the relationship between the three forms of racial discrimination: (a) individual discrimination, (b) institutional discrimination, and (c) cultural discrimination and life satisfaction, and tested the ability of collective efficacy to protect against the effects of racial discrimination on African American adults' life satisfaction. Participants included 247 African American adults in a large, urban Midwestern city, who were taking part in a larger project that evaluated "the predicted health impact of proposed changes in federal policy guidance on employment opportunities" (p. 468). Findings indicated an association between all three race-related stress (individual, institutional, and cultural) and lower life satisfaction, whereas collective efficacy was associated with

greater life satisfaction. The researchers also found that collective self-efficacy moderating influence was selective as it was based on the race-related stress type.

Furthermore, results suggested that the effect of racial discrimination on African American life satisfaction may be dependent on the kind of race-related stress and sociocultural resources availability (Driscoll et al., 2015). Driscoll et al. (2015) noted that racial discrimination necessitates that people implement various social and personal resources to deal with the emotional and practical consequences of stressor exposure, and people's responses differ in their ability to improve the harmful effects of racial discrimination. Lower sociocultural resources may hinder African Americans from managing physical and psychological stresses that are consequences of racial discrimination (Driscoll et al., 2015; Pascoe & Richman, 2009). Findings in Driscoll et al.'s study indicated that collective efficacy mitigated the effect of cultural and perhaps "individual race-related stress on overall life satisfaction" (p. 477), which may signify that community social processes that encourage social cohesion and affiliative connections, strengthens mental health against racial discrimination influence.

Accelerated aging at the biological level, specifically focusing on telomeres, may be a common theme that underlies racial disparities across many health outcomes (Chae et al., 2016). Chae et al. (2016) related that telomeres are the repetitive sequences of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) "capping the ends of chromosomes that generally shorten with increasing chronological age" (p. 11). The researchers investigated whether anxiety and depression symptoms were associated with leukocyte telomere length (LTL) and whether these psychological factors moderated the associated between LTL and racial

discrimination in 95 African American men. Findings indicated an association between greater anxiety levels and shorter LTL. Results showed no main effect of racial discrimination on LTL but suggested a moderated association by depression levels. Specifically, Chae et al. found an association between racial discrimination and shorter LTL among participants with lower depressive symptomatology levels. On the other hand, the researchers found that participants who reported low racial discrimination levels and had lower depression levels had the longest LTL. Chae et al. concluded that racial discrimination may be another source of social stress among African American men that has harmful consequences for cellular aging among those with lower depression levels.

Race-Based Discrimination, Workplace Stress, and Gender

Research regarding office discrimination could be vastly advanced by integrating every day, subtler, discrimination experienced by members of stigmatized groups (Deitch et al., 2003). Deitch et al. (2003) used secondary data analysis from three studies to provide evidence for the existence of everyday workplace discrimination against African Americans. The researchers found evidence that the experience of everyday discrimination as well as workplace discrimination, harmfully affects African Americans' well-being and job satisfaction. Results indicated that African Americans had poorer health than their Caucasian American counterparts. Deitch et al. emphasized the need to address everyday discrimination as part of the effort to embrace diversity and make workplaces more welcoming to minorities such as African Americans.

When employees perceive that the workplace is not a level playing field, there can be adjustment confusion and potential health risks (Mays et al., 1996). Mays et al. (1996) reported that the need to further examine the relationship of perceived race-based discriminations to labor force participation or job-related stress problems experienced by African American women as research was sparse. Mays et al. investigated the contributions of perceived race-based discriminations and sociodemographic characteristics to employment status and job stress in a national probability sample of African American women in the United States. Findings indicated that sociodemographic measures, such as age and education, best explained African American women's current employment status. In contrast, results suggested that the combination of sociodemographics and perceived discrimination affects perceived job stress and patterns of employment status in the work environment of African American women differently. Mays et al. also found a significant relationship between African American women's perception of specific types of discrimination and the experience of job problem or stress. Results showed that job problems or stresses were highest among young African American women and those with higher levels of education. Findings indicated that African American women's perceptions of discrimination in the job market may influence their motivation and job effort as well as their motivation to look for a new job when they are not satisfied or unemployed.

Research pertaining to the view of the workplace through the prism of acculturation and how African American professionals found ways to cope with many factors, has been insufficient (Reid et al., 2014). Reid et al. (2014) examined job stress

and acculturation strategies among African American professionals to determine how these coping strategies affected their job satisfaction. The researchers measured traditionalist, assimilation, and acculturation strategies using Obasi (2005) Measurement of Acculturation Strategies for People of African Descent (MASPAD) survey. The researchers measured job stress with Spielberger and Vaag's (1999) Job Stress Survey. Participants included 87 employed African American men and women from professional organizations in the United States. Reid et al. found that those who chose assimilation as an acculturation strategy reported a higher lack of organizational support and higher total job stress. The researchers noted that this finding is contrary to the hypothesized relationship that traditionalist behaviors would be related to higher job stress. The researchers discussed these findings in terms of understanding the impact of cultural factors and acculturation strategies on workplace stress.

Work Control

Lack of work control is stressful for workers and may also have consequences for workers' spouses (O'Neal et al., 2014; Wickrama et al., 2005). O'Neal et al. (2014) examined how husbands' and wives' work control influenced their own and their spouses' physical and mental health outcomes. O'Neal et al. used data from a National Institute of Child Health and Human Development project where African American marriage and health were studied. O'Neal et al. found that work control was directly associated with wives' depressive symptoms and physical health, but this was not found for husbands. However, the researchers found an indirect association between work control, depressive symptoms, and physical health based on the effect of work control on

people's positive self. Results suggested no significant cross-spouse influences between husbands and wives. The researchers noted that findings in the study brought awareness to social epidemiological pathways that cause African Americans to have relatively poor health as well as work experiences and personal resources roles in shaping African American husbands' and wives' physical and mental outcomes. O'Neal et al. related that practical implications included work organization policy values that may enhance workers' sense of control and personal resources because these variables are essential to workers' health outcomes.

Stereotype Threat

Stereotype threat is a phenomenon that has been revealed to cause psychological distress (Aronson et al., 2013; Foy, 2018). Aronson et al. (2013) identified stereotype threat as an unpleasant mental feeling defying negative racial stereotypes in a professional or educational setting. The potential health impact of this psychological sensation could have a marked effect on a person's health (Aronson et al., 2013; Boulton, 2016; Foy, 2018). Aronson et al. (2013) explained that the educational arena is stressful enough with the level of effort that is required to obtain a degree. Aronson et al. reported that when African American students worry about others' perceptions of them, school becomes that much tougher. Aronson et al. studied the educational outcomes of stereotype threat and examined the implications of stereotype threat for health and health-related behaviors and noted that small, concrete changes based on existing evidence can reduce the negative effects of stereotype threat on racial minority patients. The researchers found distinct parallels between the worlds of education and medicine and

noted that exchanges between individuals matter greatly. Aronson et al.'s study is relevant in relation to my study as situations that threaten the fundamental human motives of inclusion and respect can undermine health of Africans American employees in corporate America.

Stereotyped threat is a situational threat, which can affect individuals of any group when a negative stereotype exists (Foy, 2018; Steele, 1997). Foy (2018) investigated attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), coupled with stereotype threat. The researcher studied whether the existence of mental health labels in the educational setting triggered stereotype threat and to what degree it affected standardized test scores, such as the Graduate Record Examination (GRE). Using a sample of 114 contributors (53 with a history of ADHD and 61 without a history of ADHD), the researcher examined whether ADHD activated stereotype threat in standardized testing conditions. Findings indicated that the activation of stereotype threat in ADHD participants significantly affected their standardized test scores. In conjunction with their importance as college admittance tools, standardized test scores potentially impact career paths.

Having a social support mechanism in place helps reduce the effects of not only social identity threat (Aronson et al., 2013; Emerson & Murphy, 2014), but also stereotype threat (Butler, 2015; Silverman & Cohen, 2014). Silverman and Cohen (2014) described stereotype threat as "the concern about being judged in light of negative stereotypes, [which] causes underperformance in evaluative situations" (p. 1330).

In two studies, Silverman and Cohen (2014) examined how coping with stereotypes can aggravate underperformance over time. The researchers proposed a model in which ongoing stereotype threat experiences threaten people's sense of self-integrity, which then causes defensive avoidance of stereotype-relevant situations, hindering growth, achievement, and overall well-being. The researchers tested the model with physically disabled individuals. In Study 1, participants included 290 women, 189 men, and 18 individuals of unspecified gender who were legally blind adults living in the United States. They completed an online survey in exchange for a raffle ticket. In Study 1, Silverman and Cohen found that blind adults who reported higher levels of stereotype threat noted lower well-being and self-integrity. In addition, they were more likely to be unemployed and shared that they avoided stereotype-threatening situations. In Study 2, participants included 21 women and 14 men who were legally blind. Participants were randomly assigned to a control group or complete a values affirmation exercise during their computer class as a class project. Findings from Study 2 indicated that blind students in a compensatory skill-training program made more progress if they had completed a values-affirmation, which is an exercise that strengthens self-integrity. Results suggested that stereotype threat creates a chronic threat to self-integrity and weaken life outcomes for individuals with disabilities.

There are many African American young men who have been successful academically (Butler, 2015). Butler (2015) examined the success rate of young middle class African American males in relation to the availability of community cultural wealth, despite deficits in Math and low Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores. The qualitative

study explored the three main barriers to success and made use of the community cultural wealth (CCW) framework success despite any college entrance deficits. Using the CCW as the conceptual framework of this study, Butler differentiated her study from other researchers' use of this framework by pinpointing success rates versus statistical deficits in attendance, graduation, school standing, and grade-point average (GPA). The factor of stereotype threat in the form of the participants' perceptions on their ability to learn contradicts previous authors' notions that African American males chose to do poorly for cultural integrity purposes (Butler, 2015). Butler used a sample of 8 middle class African American males. Findings of the study revealed that the family unit provided the majority of the CCW required for acceptance and success at college. In addition, results revealed that family support meant more than other types of support, relative to resisting stereotypes threats negative impacts on the individual. Findings also indicated that familial and aspirational capital use among African American men can build their self-esteem and prevent the occurrence of stereotype threat syndrome.

Stereotype threat, along with social identity threat, can lead to acute job performance decrements and less job satisfaction and poor mental and physical health (von Hippel et al., 2013). Stereotypes pertaining to gender continues to negatively affect women's ability to succeed in male-dominated fields, such as banking and finance (von Hippel et al., 2015). Stereotypes that women face include being sensitive, emotional, week, inferior, less committed, and lacking in leadership skills (Correll et al., 2007; Schein, 2007; von Hippel et al., 2015). Thus, women tend to be less preferred as possible hires in domains that are traditionally masculine, are given fewer promotional

opportunities, and tend to earn less than males (Schein, 2007; von Hippel et al., 2015). Using 512 women working in finance as participants, von Hippel et al. (2015) extended research that indicated that stereotype threat among women in management and accounting leads to intentions to quit and negative job attitudes due to its impact on identity separation or gender identity being incompatible with one's work identity. The participants "completed a survey about their work environment, their well-being at work, and whether they would recommend the field of finance to younger women" (p. 405). Findings indicated that stereotype threat among women in finance was associated with poorer well-being at work, identity separation, and being less likely to recommend banking and finance as a career option to young women. Von Hippel et al. noted that the findings provide additional evidence that stereotype threat may result in disengagement or detachment in the workplace and weaken the retention and recruitment of women in finance, which is concerning for organizations and for the women employed in these organizations.

Social Identity Threat

Racial and ethnic minorities experience the workplace differently than their Caucasian American counterparts, both psychologically and economically (Emerson & Murphy, 2014). African Americans residing at the 90th percentile of the household income distribution only earned as much as their Caucasian counterparts who were at the 75th percentile of the household distribution and were less happy than their Caucasian American counterparts whose income were at the 50th percentile (Emerson & Murphy, 2014; Stevenson & Wolfers, 2012). Emerson and Murphy (2014) conducted a theoretical

review that was grounded in social identity threat theory and argued that situational cues that are conveyed by well-meaning, mostly unprejudiced colleagues and managers, indicated to stigmatized groups whether their identity is undervalued and threatened or affirmed and respected. The authors provided an overview of how identity threat shaped the psychological processes of racial and ethnic minorities through heightened vigilance to situational cues in the office setting. In addition, the authors discussed empirically based recommendations that industries may use to increase identity safety among minority employees. Emerson and Murphy related that theoretical review shows how situational cues add to different psychological experiences for ethnic and racial minorities at work, which suggests that by changing threatening cues, organizations may be able to create more inclusive, respectful, and equitable environments where all individuals may succeed.

Posttraumatic Stress Disorder

For veterans managing posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms, returning to vocational functioning is often challenging; thus, identifying modifiable variables that can contribute to positive employment adjustment is critical to improved vocational rehabilitation services (Harris et al., 2017). Workplace social support has proven to be important in vocational adjustment in both the general population and vocational rehabilitation samples, but this area of inquiry has received little attention among veterans with PTSD symptoms (Harris et al., 2017). Harris et al. (2017) examined what effect workplace social support had on job satisfaction in employees who suffer from PTSD. The researchers used the Job Demands and Resources model (JD-R) as their

framework to conceptualize workplace functioning for veteran who were transitioning to the corporate workspace. In this correlational study, employed veterans ($N = 63$) sought outpatient PTSD treatment at a veteran health care system and completed surveys that measured demographic variables, job satisfaction, workplace social support, and PTSD symptoms. Findings indicated that workplace social support helped to predict job satisfaction. In addition, results suggested that in contrast to PTSD symptoms, workplace social support forecasted a larger proportion of the employment satisfaction variance.

Based on the threat appraisal and coping theory, people may display maladaptive coping behaviors such as disruption of coworkers, disrespect, abuse organizational resources, and purposeful intentional poor performance, in response to environmental stressors (Hendy et al., 2019; Holton et al., 2016). However, Hendy et al. (2019) reported that these maladaptive coping behaviors may worsen employees' psychological well-being. Hendy found a significant association between workplace deviance and negative psychosocial outcomes such as PTSD symptoms, work-home conflict, poor job satisfaction, anger, health concerns, and poor self-esteem. Hendy et al. recommended stress reduction programs that educate employees who display workplace deviance in relation to workplace stressors. Specifically, Hendy et al. emphasized focusing on how such behaviors may harm their psychological well-being and guide employees to use better adaptive coping behaviors in relation to workplace stressors, such as using yoga, exercise, and social support.

African American Corporate Employees and Workplace Well-Being

Being in a profession where social identity threat could be a factor in how an individual is perceived by others as not a fit may result in employees feeling unaccepted in the workplace and therefore face health exposures (Cooper & Marshall, 1976). Cooper and Marshall (1976) surveyed published literature to ascertain the correlations between occupational stress and ill mental and physical health. The researchers noted that the two indices primary to occupational stress were coronary heart disease (CHD) and mental ill health (MIH). Cooper and Marshall explored the functional relationship between working conditions and mental and physical health. The authors noted that their extensive review of the literature indicated that the work environment and modern organizations have an effect on the mental and physical health of their members. Cooper and Marshall recommended (a) "restructuring the social and technological environment in the workplace to encourage greater autonomy and participation by people in their jobs," (p. 25) (b) "bridging the gap between the workplace and the home," (p. 25) and (c) "building on the well-developed catalogue of social and interactive skill training programmes to help clarify role and interpersonal relationship difficulties within organizations" (p. 25). The authors noted that if organizations, doctors, and social scientists work together, they can make important contributions to the managerial, medical, and social sciences as well as the mental and physical well-being of women and men at work.

In contrast, as greater numbers of women maintain steady employment and move into nontraditional occupations, thus, more attention is being paid to social and psychological effects resulting from their participation in the corporate workforce (Mays

et al., 1996). Mays et al. (1996) argued that previous research has not methodically studied the relationship of race-based discriminations to labor force participation or work-related stressors, and problems faced by African American women. The researchers investigated the relative contributions of perceived race-based discriminations and sociodemographic characteristics to employment status and job stress, using a national probability sample of U.S. African American women. The findings of the study indicated that African American women's current employment standing was best described by sociodemographic measures. In addition, results suggested that the combination of perceived discrimination and sociodemographics differentially affected patterns of employment status and perceived occupational stress in the work setting of African American women.

Although church leaders often hold a unique position of influence in the African American community, experts often do not work with them to create and provide customized occupational safety and health interventions (Roberts, 2017). As a result, Roberts (2017) explored whether an occupational stress intervention that was created in partnership with churches might positively influence African Americans' understanding of risks to well-being and health caused by job stress and assist them in building skills and efficacy in relation to managing and preventing it. Roberts discussed the importance of using community-based, strength-based, and collaborative approaches, such as African American churches, to create occupational health and safety interventions that are culturally relevant, acceptable, and effective. However, Roberts explained that regardless of the potential advantages of partnering with churches to create and provide

interventions or health messages, health and safety professionals have only rarely worked with church leaders to deliver, design, and evaluate community-based occupational stress interventions, thus, increased health and safety efforts are still needed.

African American Corporate Employees and Gender Differences

Research is lacking on the promotion of African American employees into managerial positions in corporate America and race and ethnic inequalities. Wilson and Roscigno (2015) investigated whether new governance reforms in public sector work over the last 2 decades have created managerial wage losses for Latinos and African Americans. Using integrated public use microseries data, the researchers found that increased employer discretion has increasingly placed Latino and African American men and women at a disadvantage in relation to their Caucasian American and gender counterparts. Wilson and Roscigno reported that for both Latinos and African Americans in the managerial ranks, relative equality in wages that were observed in the public sector increasingly eroded between 2000 and 2010. The researchers emphasized that inequality levels were evident for African Americans, especially among men than women.

Researchers used Karasek et al.'s (1982) job demands–control–support model to explain the relationship between job characteristics and workers' psychological well-being (Hwang & Ramadoss, 2017). Researchers' findings have not been consistent on the gender differences between the job demands-control-support model (Häusser et al., 2010; Hwang & Ramadoss, 2017; Vermeulen & Mustard, 2000). Using the job demands-control-support model, Hwang and Ramadoss (2017) examined gender difference in relation to the simultaneous variable of job demands, job control, and supervisor and

coworker support on job satisfaction. The researchers used secondary data where they used data from the 2008 National Study of the Changing Workforce (NSCW), and participants included 1,092 male and 1,367 female employees. Findings indicated a significant association between job demands and an increase in work-family conflict. In addition, the researchers found a significant association between coworker support and decreases in work-family conflict. Furthermore, results showed a significant and negative relationship between job control and work-family conflict in female employees, which is inconsistent with the job demands-control-support model. Hwang and Ramadoss explained that the inconsistency may be due to differences in how job control affects male and employee employee's work-family conflicts. For example, Grönlund (2007) reported that women who carry out their main responsibility at home often use job control resources to decrease role strain in their family. In addition, Hwang and Ramadoss explained that the inconsistency may be due to the possibility that male employees do not use job control as a coping resource to decrease work-family conflict because they may believe that coworker and supervisor support are sufficient in managing their work–family conflict.

Findings also indicated that for both male and female employees, job control, coworker support, and supervisor support, predicted an increase in job satisfaction (Hwang & Ramadoss, 2017). Although Hwang and Ramadoss (2017) reported no significant direct effect between job demands and job satisfaction for both male and female employees, they found that work–family conflict was significantly mediated between job demands and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the researchers found that work–

family conflict was the significant mediating variable between the job demands–control–support model variables and job satisfaction. Hwang and Ramadoss related that organizational leaders do not prioritize family-friendly workplace for employees and may be hesitant to hire women because they are more likely to resign due to family issues than their male counterparts. Thus, the researchers noted the importance of investigating employees' job-related well-being to decrease the gap between employer and employee's attitude of work and family issues.

Stress is a multifaceted factor that influences health through interconnected behavior, physiological, and psychological response mechanisms (Bruce et al., 2015; Ellis et al., 2015). Researchers have found that men tend to be more cognizant of how stress and coping affects their ability to work and complete other social responsibilities and roles than how stress affects their bodies (Ellis et al., 2015; Griffith et al., 2011). Ellis et al. (2015) investigated how African American men and important women in their lives understood the relationship between men's health, stress, and stress response. Participants included 154 African American men and 77 African American women from three cities in Michigan. Data were collected through focus groups. Results suggested that African American men coped with stress through physical activities, consuming calorie dense foods, and spirituality. However, Ellis et al. noted that men participants did not always perceive their stress responses as explicit coping mechanisms. Findings indicated some differences between men's and women's perceptions of men's coping behaviors, such as their different perceptions on men's use of physical and mental breaks, where men described resting physically and mentally as coping strategies, whereas women tend to

describe these behaviors as avoidance. The researchers found that both male and female participants perceived that stress could be used to explain why African American men had worse health than other groups and identified social, physical, and mental consequences of stress. Ellis et al. explained that some chronic stressors experienced by African American men such as structural and individual discrimination and racism, may affect their ability to reduce these racialized and gendered sources of stress from their lives. However, the researchers noted that by recognizing how African American men respond to stress may help in addressing and understanding their extremely high rates in relation to stress, chronic disease, and premature mortality.

Some level of stress is experienced by everyone in today's fast-paced, global workplace (Kramer & Harris, 2016). Kramer and Harris (2016) reported that executive-level and professional women experience more anxiety, psychological distress, and stress than their male counterparts. The researchers related that contributing factors include increased domestic responsibilities, receiving less pay for equal work, and being socialized to agreeing to perform all requests. The researchers argued that stereotype threat is a major factor that contributes to this phenomenon. Women are not the only group to experience stereotype threat as African American men experience it at greater proportions (Aronson et al., 2013; Silverman & Cohen, 2014).

Despite increased representation in correctional work environments, women still encounter impediments in this male-dominated profession (Paoline et al., 2015). Paoline et al. (2015) reported that such obstacles have the potential to increase their levels of job stress and decrease their levels of job satisfaction. Paoline et al. examined this premise

using a sample of 419 female and 493 male prison employees working in a large urban jail system. A 155-item survey was administered over a 5-day period. Results suggested that role ambiguity, perceived dangerousness, coworker relations, decision-making input, and administrative support had a larger effect on job-related stress for women compared to men. In addition, the researchers found that in relation to job gratification, administrative backing was the only variable that had a noticeable gendered effect.

Summary and Conclusions

African Americans face more stressors in the workplace than any other racial or ethnic groups, which may contribute to their vulnerability to illness (Roberts, 2017). African Americans tend to be overrepresented in lower status occupations and are often underrepresented in higher status occupations as Caucasian Americans have a higher probability of holding managerial positions, whereas African Americans are more likely to employed in transportation or service jobs (Darity, 2003; Roberts, 2017). Roberts related that blue-collar jobs are associated with health problems. In addition, the researcher noted that African Americans tend to be faced with job insecurity where they may worry about job loss as well as job uncertainty for the future. Furthermore, Roberts explained that African Americans are faced with high joblessness rates, where they experience higher discharges and layoffs than their Caucasian American counterparts.

African Americans face racial and ethnic discrimination in the workplace more than any other racial or ethnic group (Roberts, 2017). Roberts (2017) discussed interpersonal and institutional discrimination, where interpersonal discrimination pertains to “stereotypes and pigeonholing” (p. 119) assumptions and attitudes, as well as ethnic

jokes or slurs. On the other hand, Roberts noted that institutional discrimination refers to discrimination being used to block individuals of certain groups and limiting their resource access. The researcher noted that African Americans' exposure to racial and ethnic discrimination and harassment affects them in many ways, which in turn affects their well-being, safety, and health.

Research is sparse that focuses on the unique position of African American professionals who may be employed at a workplace based upon the Western European culture (Reid et al., 2014). Therefore, there is a gap in the literature that focuses on workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees as well as whether gender moderates the relationship between these variables within this population. Thus, using Michie's (2002) model of stress at work as the theoretical foundation of this study, this correlational quantitative research study added to the literature and advanced knowledge by filling a gap in the psychological literature. In Chapter 2, I included the introduction, literature search strategy, theoretical foundation, African American corporate employees and workplace stress, African American corporate employees and workplace well-being, African American corporate employees and gender differences, and a summary and conclusions. In Chapter 3, I include the introduction, research design and rationale, methodology, data analysis plan, threats to validity, and a summary. In Chapter 4, I include the introduction, data collection, study results, and a summary. In Chapter 5, I include the introduction, interpretation of findings, limitations of the study, recommendations, implications, and conclusions.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this correlational quantitative research study was to examine the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. I collected data from 182 African American corporate employees who work for private sector companies, such as companies that support the U.S. government. I collected data using three surveys: (a) a researcher-created demographic questionnaire, (b) HSE-MS IT (HSE, 2017a), and (c) Cox et al.'s (1983) GWBQ. I used the HSE Management Standards Analysis Tool and the SPSS to analyze the data. In carrying out the study, I followed Walden University's IRB guidelines to protect research participants. The Walden University IRB approval number was 04-28-20-0403749. In Chapter 3, I include the introduction, research design and rationale, methodology, data analysis plan, threats to validity, and a summary.

Research Design and Rationale

I used a quantitative, correlational design, using a survey methodology in this study. A quantitative study was appropriate for this study because it allows researchers to put forward a theory that is represented with a specific hypothesis, which is then tested, and conclusions are drawn after data analysis (Almalki, 2016; Rovai et al., 2014). The study's approach was correlational to determine the relationship between the independent variable of workplace stress, the dependent variable of workplace well-being, and the moderator variable of gender. I collected data using three questionnaires: (a) a researcher-

created demographic questionnaire, (b) HSE-MS IT (HSE, 2017a), and (c) Cox et al.'s (1983) GWBQ. Data from these questionnaires were used to examine the relationship between workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States and whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population.

Methodology

In this section, I present an in-depth discussion of the methodology, which will allow other researchers the opportunity to replicate the study. I organized this section in the following subsections: population; sampling and sampling procedures; procedures for recruitment, participation, and data collection; instrumentation and operationalization of constructs; and data analysis plan.

Population

The sample population consisted of a purposive sampling of 182 male and female African American corporate employees who work for an independent legal entity owned by shareholders, such as private sector companies that support the U.S. government. I recruited participants through social media, specifically LinkedIn and Facebook, thus, inviting potential participants to participate anonymously by reading the social media post and invitation letter, clicking on the consent form link in the invitation letter, and then clicking on the SurveyMonkey link at the bottom of the consent form. Participants first read the consent form before clicking the SurveyMonkey link at the bottom to anonymously complete the questionnaires.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

I used purposive sampling, which is a nonprobability sampling technique to utilize a nonrepresentative subset of a larger population (Etikan et al., 2016). I used Walden University's (2011) *Necessary Sample Size* table to calculate the sample size. I set statistical power at .80 and alpha (α) at .05. The value of *r* of .31 was based on Reid et al.'s (2014) study; therefore, a medium effect size was used to determine the study's effect size. Subsequently, the power analysis revealed that for analyzing the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States, with $\alpha = .05$, to detect an effect size of .31, and with a power of .80, the study required a sample of at least 84 participants. Thus, the participants of this study were a purposive sample of 182 male and female African American corporate employees who work for an independent legal entity owned by shareholders, such as private sector companies that support the U.S. government.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

I completed the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative human research protections training prior to data collection (see Appendix I). In addition, I followed all state and federal regulations, such the Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU) human subjects' key policies, procedures, and regulations. Once I received Walden University's IRB approval, I began data collection.

I recruited participants through social media, specifically LinkedIn and Facebook, thus, inviting potential participants who met the selection criteria to participate anonymously. Therefore, I posted the social media post and invitation letter to LinkedIn

and Facebook groups after obtaining the necessary approval from the appropriate organizational representative. Organizational approval was implied by allowing me to post on their social media site. In the invitation letter, potential participants were able to click on the consent form link, which provided enough information about the selection criteria to allow the participants to self-identify and self-select into the study. The consent form was hosted in Google Drive. Participants first read the consent form before clicking the SurveyMonkey link at the bottom to complete the questionnaires. Therefore, implied consent was used rather than signed consent as participants were informed on the consent form that completing the web link questionnaires indicated their voluntary consent to take part in the study. On the consent form, participants were instructed to print or save a copy of the consent for their records. The SurveyMonkey account was set to ensure complete anonymity so that I was not able to identify individuals based on their responses, hence, participants' identities were anonymous (see Appendix B for SurveyMonkey permission letter). On the consent form, participants were instructed to contact me if they would like to receive a summary report of the findings. An advantage of using SurveyMonkey is that it will automatically save the data into a form that is compatible with the SPSS.

It was not likely that participation in the study would result in any physical or psychological discomfort; however, to provide participants with reasonable protection, participants were informed on the consent form that they can call the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration's (2019) national helpline at 1-800-662-4357 in the event they experienced any negative effects from taking part in this research study. I used the HSE Management Standards Analysis Tool and the SPSS to score and analyze

the data. After completing the study and receiving final approval, I sent an executive summary report of the findings to participants who contacted me and requested a copy of the findings. I will keep all data secured in a locked file cabinet and password protected computer in my personal home office where I will be the only one with access to the records. I will keep all data for at least 5 years based on Walden University's guidelines. After 5 years, I will properly destroy all data using techniques such as shredding and demagnetizing.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

To address the two research questions, I used three questionnaires: (a) a demographic questionnaire, (b) HSE-MS IT (HSE, 2017a), and (c) Cox et al.'s (1983) GWBQ. I discuss the three questionnaires in further detail. This subsection is organized in the following areas: (a) demographic questionnaire, (b) HSE-MS IT, and (c) GWBQ.

Demographic Questionnaire

I used a 3-minute researcher-created demographic questionnaire to collect demographic information on SurveyMonkey (see Appendix C). Demographic data included race, gender, and type of employee such as full-time or part-time employee. In addition, demographic data included employment status and length of employment.

HSE-MS IT

I used the HSE-MS IT to assess workplace stress, which consists of 35 items that ask about working conditions known to be potential causes of work-related stress (HSE, 2017a; see Appendix E). The HSE-MS IT is used to obtain employees' views "on their exposure to six dimensions of the psychosocial work environment that can lead to stress-

related outcomes if not properly managed" (Bevan et al., 2010, p. 525). The six dimensions of the HSE-MS IT include the following:

1. Demands: "In a healthy organization, staff are neither overloaded nor under loaded with work and all employees are capable of doing what is expected of them. Effort needs to be recognized and acknowledged, if not financially rewarded" (HSE, 2015, para. 2). The demands subscale is reverse scored, which means that higher demands scores were associated with less demand at work.
2. Control: "In a healthy organization, employees can take part in decision making and are able to effectively use their range of skills" (HSE, 2015, para. 3).
3. Support: "In a healthy organization, all employees have support and training and are able to balance work and life outside work" (HSE, 2015, para. 4).
4. Role: "In a healthy organization, all employees are aware of what is expected of them in their role and how it will contribute to the organization's strategy" (HSE, 2015, para. 6).
5. Change: "In a healthy organization, the strategy for change is clear and all employees are aware of change and how it will affect them" (HSE, 2015, para. 7).
6. Relationships: "In a healthy organization, there are good working relationships and bullying and harassment at work is clearly dealt with" (HSE, 2015, para. 5).

To assess the HSE-MS IT concurrent and construct validity, Marcatto et al. (2014) reported that they evaluated the tool in relation to the Job Content Questionnaire (JCQ) and examined the relationships with a set of work-related stress outcomes. Marcatto et al. found a strong correlation between the JCQ psychological job demand scale and the HSE-MS IT demands scale. The researchers also found a moderate correlation between the JCQ decision latitude scale and the HSE-MS IT control scale. Marcatto et al. explained that the decision latitude and control were not completely overlapping and measured different aspects of the same construct. Marcatto et al. found that the HSE-MS IT control scale captured "the decision authority element of decision latitude (i.e., control over the working environment), but it" (p. 368) did not capture skill discretion (i.e., variety of work and opportunity for use of skills), which is examined in the JCQ decision latitude scale. Marcatto et al. also found that a correlation between the HSE-MS IT scales and stress-related outcomes, where there was a positive correlation with job satisfaction, job motivation, and life satisfaction, and a negative correlation with stress at work. The HSE-MS IT took approximately 15 minutes to complete (HSE, 2019). The HSE-MS IT, the HSE Management Standard Analysis Tool, and the HSE Management Standard Indicator Tool manual are all available online for free public use (see Appendix D).

GWBQ

The GWBQ was used to assess workplace well-being and is a short symptom checklist developed for use with people of working age (Cox, 2017; see Appendix H). Cox et al. (1983) indicated that the scales are reliable and valid across different samples.

Bevan et al. (2010) reported that the GWBQ has good concurrent validity with other measures of fatigue, overt ill-health, and general health in different group settings and is a reliable and consistent tool when used in both work and health-related research. Cox et al. noted that the GWBQ scales could offer useful insights into effects on general well-being in studies pertaining to occupational stress and health.

The GWBQ consists of 28 items and measures two indexes of suboptimal health: (a) worn-out and (b) up-tight and tense (Cox et al., 1983; Singh & Woods, 2008). The worn-out index is defined by symptoms pertaining to cognitive confusion, emotional liability, and tiredness (Singh & Woods, 2008). The up-tight and tense index is characterized by symptoms pertaining to tension, fear, worry, and physical signs of anxiety (Singh & Woods, 2008). Each item is scored based on the frequency with which each symptom was experienced in the past 6 months, on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (never) to 4 (always; Cox et al., 1983; Singh & Woods, 2008). Scores range from 0 to 48, where low scores indicate higher levels of well-being (Bevan et al., 2010). For the scales measuring up-tight and worn-out, Singh and Woods reported that they obtained Cronbach's alphas of .84 and .82, respectively. The GWBQ is available for free public use but requires that users agree to the conditions of use in writing (Cox, 2017), which I completed by sending an email (see Appendix F for the permission to use and reprint the GWBQ and Appendix G for the written agreement to GWBQ conditions of use). A response from the author is not needed to use the questionnaire after sending an email agreeing to the conditions of use in writing.

Data Analysis Plan

In the data analysis plan section, I discuss how the data were analyzed. Specifically, I discuss how the research questions and hypotheses were analyzed. This section is organized in the following subsections: (a) data analysis and (b) research questions and hypotheses.

Data Analysis

I analyzed data from questionnaires using the SPSS to determine the degree of statistical significances between the variables. I also used the HSE Management Standards Analysis Tool to help in analyzing the data obtained from the HSE-MS IT. To answer the two research questions, I used various sets of statistical analysis such as descriptive statistics to determine the mean, standard deviation, and frequency of the scale responses of the survey instruments. I addressed RQ1 using Spearman's rho correlation analysis and linear regression to determine the relationship between workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States. Therefore, Spearman's correlation analysis was used to examine the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables and linear regression was used to model the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Mukaka, 2012; Yale University, 1998). I addressed RQ2 using moderated multiple regression analysis. This test was chosen as it can be used to determine whether the relationship between the independent variable (workplace stress) and the dependent variable (workplace well-being) depends on or is moderated by the value of a third variable (gender). In other words, this test was used to test a

moderating relationship between gender on the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

In this correlational quantitative research study, I addressed the following research questions and hypotheses:

RQ1: What is the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States?

$H_0$1: There is no relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States.

H_a1: There is a relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States.

RQ2: Does gender moderate the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States?

$H_0$2: Males and females experience the same relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States.

H_a2: Males and females experience a different relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States.

Threats to Validity

In a quantitative study, validity relates to the assessment accuracy and whether a concept was correctly or accurately measured (Heale & Twycross, 2015). Most participants who take part in studies accurately answer questions in self-report surveys (McKibben & Silva, 2016). However, McKibben and Silva (2016) discussed threats to validity, specifically, inattentiveness and social desirability responding. McKibben and Silva reported that participants' inattentiveness pertains to them answering questions without considering survey content, whereas social desirability refers to participants' presenting themselves too positively.

However, in this correlational quantitative research study, I assumed that participants were attentive, honest, and open when they answered the questions on all three questionnaires. Although there are problems with self-report data, where participants may not fully or accurately self-evaluate themselves, the use of the 5-point Likert scale format on the HSE-MS IT and GWBQ helped tackle this bias issue as participants were not given the freedom to include other information that they may have thought were important. I organized this section in the following sections: (a) external validity, (b) internal validity, (c) construct validity, and (e) ethical procedures.

External Validity

The focus of external validity is on generalizing the results of the study; thus, causal relationships can be generalized to different times, settings, persons, and measures (Steckler & McLeroy, 2008). Subtypes of external validity include ecological validity and population validity (Shuttleworth, 2019). Ecological validity pertains to whether the

study results "can be generalized to real-life settings" (Andrade, 2018, p. 499). Population validity pertains to how much the "study results from a sample can be generalized to a larger target group of interest (the population;" APA, 2018b, para. 1).

Threats to external validity include multiple treatment interference, reactive effects of experimental arrangements, interactional effects of selection biases with experimental variables, and interactional effects of testing, testing effects, and reactivity of awareness of being studied (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Ferguson, 2004; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Most of these threats to external validity do not apply to the results of this study. However, selection bias is the main threat to external validity that I had to consider in this study. The study was designed to examine the relationship between workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. Selection bias was addressed using a purposive sample of 182 male and female African American corporate employees who work for an independent legal entity owned by shareholders, such as private sector companies that support the U.S. government. Thus, I was not able to generalize the findings to all male and female African American corporate employees in the United States.

Internal Validity

Internal validity relates to how the researcher designed and conducted the study as well as how the data were analyzed, and whether the process allowed trustworthy answers to the research questions (Andrade, 2018). Taylor and Asmundson (2007)

reported that internal validity focuses on whether the changes that were observed in a dependent variable can be credited to changes in an independent variable. Threats to internal validity include additive and interactive threats, instrumentation, testing, attrition, regression, maturation, history, selection, and ambiguous temporal precedence (Coryn & Hobson, 2011). Selection threat is the main bias associated with most types of research designs, except experimental designs (Coryn & Hobson, 2011). As discussed in the external validity subsection, selection bias was addressed using a purposive sample of 182 male and female African American corporate employees who work for an independent legal entity owned by shareholder.

Construct Validity

Construct validity refers to whether operational variables sufficiently represent theoretical constructs (Steckler & McLeroy, 2008). Three components of construct validity are discriminate validity, convergent validity, and nomological validity (Krabbe, 2017). Zait and Bertea (2011) related that "discriminant validity assumes that items should correlate higher among them than they correlate with other items from other constructs that are theoretically supposed not to correlate" (p. 217). Krabbe (2017) related that convergent validity pertains to how closely the new scale is associated to other measures and variables of the same construct. Nomological validity is "the degree to which a measure assesses the specific construct it was designed to assess" (APA, 2018a).

There are numerous threats to construct validity such as confounding constructs and levels of constructs, restricted generalizability across constructs, interaction of testing and treatment, interaction of different treatments, mono-method bias, mono-operation

bias, and inadequate preoperational explication of constructs (Trochim, 2006). In addition, Trochim (2006) discussed social threats to construct validity, which include experimenter expectancies, evaluation apprehension, and hypothesis guessing. The HSE-MS IT and GWBQ are valid and reliable instruments that were used to address the two research questions in this study.

Ethical Procedures

I carried out this correlational quantitative research study based on Walden University's IRB guidelines to ensure the ethical protection of research participants. I took all steps necessary to protect the rights of African American corporate employees who participated in this study. I completed the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative human research protections training (see Appendix I). I also followed all state and federal regulations. I started data collection after I had received approval from Walden University IRB. I recruited participants through social media, specifically LinkedIn and Facebook, thus, inviting potential participants to participate anonymously.

Participants first read the consent form before clicking on the SurveyMonkey link at the bottom of the consent form to complete the questionnaires. Therefore, implied consent was used rather than signed consent as participants were informed on the consent form that completing the web link questionnaires indicated their voluntary consent to take part in the study. On the consent form, participants were instructed to print or save a copy of the consent for their records. The consent form outlined the voluntary nature of the study, risks and benefits of being in the study, privacy, and who participants could contact if they had any questions. Thus, participants are instructed that they could stop at

any time and did not have to complete any part of the questionnaires that they may not be comfortable with completing. In the consent form, the research participant advocate's contact information was provided, where participants could talk privately about their rights as a participant.

The SurveyMonkey account was set to ensure complete anonymity so that I was not able to identify individuals based on their responses, hence, participants' identities were anonymous (see Appendix B for SurveyMonkey permission letter). I did not knowingly recruit individuals from vulnerable populations or recruit participants who were under 18 years of age. Although the risk of being in this study were only minimal and only involved some risk of minor discomfort that can be encountered in daily life, such as fatigue, stress, or becoming upset, I provided participants with Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration's (2019) national helpline contact number, 1-800-662-4357, in the event they experienced any negative effects from taking part in this research study.

After completing the study and receiving final approval, I will send an executive summary report of the findings to participants who contacted me and requested a copy a copy of the findings. I will keep all data secured in a locked file cabinet and password protected computer in my personal home office where I will be the only one with access to the records. I will keep all data for at least 5 years based on Walden University's guidelines.

Summary

The purpose of this correlational quantitative research study was to examine the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. I conducted the study based on Walden University's IRB guidelines to ensure that participants were protected. I used a purposive sample of 182 male and female African American corporate employees who work for an independent legal entity owned by shareholders in the United States. On the consent form, I provided my contact information, my chair's contact information, as well the research participant advocate's contact information. I analyze data from questionnaires using the SPSS and the HSE Management Standards Analysis Tool. Data analysis included different sets of statistical analysis such as descriptive statistics, Spearman's rho correlation analysis, linear regression, and moderated multiple regression analysis. In Chapter 3, I included the introduction, research design and rationale, methodology, data analysis plan, threats to validity, and a summary. In Chapter 4, I include the introduction, data collection, study results, and a summary. In Chapter 5, I include the introduction, interpretation of findings, limitations of the study, recommendations, implications, and conclusions.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this correlational quantitative research study was to examine the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. Data were collected from a purposive sample of 182 male and female African American corporate employees who work for an independent legal entity owned by shareholders, such as private sector companies that support the U.S. government. Data were collected using three questionnaires: (a) researcher-created demographic questionnaire, (b) HSE-MS IT (HSE, 2017a), and (c) Cox et al.'s (1983) GWBQ. The following research questions were used to guide the analyses of this study: (a) What is the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States and (b) Does gender moderate the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States? I used the SPSS to analyze the data.

In this chapter, I present a description of the sampled participants. A presentation of the data gathered for the HSE-MS IT and the GWBQ scores are also provided. After I provide the descriptive statistics, I present inferential statistics such as Spearman's rho correlation analysis and linear regression analyses. I discuss the results of the analyses based on the research questions and hypotheses in the study. I also include a summary of key findings from the study. Therefore, in Chapter 4, I include the introduction, data collection, study results, and a summary.

Data Collection

I conducted data collection from June 9, 2020, through July 23, 2020. Originally, 771 individuals completed the online questionnaires on SurveyMonkey. However, 589 individuals were excluded from the data analysis because they did not fully complete all three questionnaires, or they did not meet the study's selection criteria of being a male or female African American corporate employee in the United States. Hence, from the 771 individuals who participated in the study, 182 individuals met the study's selection criteria and were included in the data analysis.

Therefore, a total of 182 participants were used in the study, where all participants completed the demographic questionnaire and the HSE-MS IT, but 181 of the 182 participants completed the GWBQ. Table 3 presents the demographic characteristics of participants. All participants in the study were corporate employees in the United States (100%). There were 93 female African American participants (51.1%) and 89 male African American participants (48.9%). Among the 182 participants, 154 were full-time employees (84.6%), eight were part-time employees (4.4%), four were self-employed (2.2%), nine were unemployed (4.9%), and seven were retired (3.8%). In regard to race, 122 participants identified as African American (67%), 80 participants identified as Black (44%), and two participants identified as both African American and Caucasian American (1.1%). In addition, two participants identified as both African American and Hispanic, Latino, and Spanish, and one identified as both Black and Hispanic, Latino, and Spanish (n = 3; 1.66%). Furthermore, one participant identified as Black and African (0.5%). For the length of employment, 20 participants reported less than 1-year

employment (11%), 51 reported 1 to 5 years employment (28%), 35 reported 5 to 10 years employment (19.2%), 47 reported 10 to 20 years employment (25.8%), and 29 reported over 20 years employment (15.9%).

Table 3

Demographic Characteristics of Participants

		Frequency	%
Gender	Male	89	48.9
	Female	93	51.1
	Total	182	100.0
Corporate employee	Yes	182	100.0
Employment status	Full-time employee	154	84.6
	Part-time employee	8	4.4
	Self-employed	4	2.2
	Unemployed	9	4.9
	Retired	7	3.8
	Total	182	100.0
Race	African American	122	67.0
	Black	80	44.0
	African American and Caucasian American	2	1.1
	African American/Black and Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish	3	1.6
	Black and African	1	0.5
Length of employment	Less than 1 year	20	11.0
	1 year to 5 years	51	28.0
	5 years to 10 years	35	19.2
	10 years to 20 years	47	25.8
	Over 20 years	29	15.9
	Total	182	100.0

Note. (N = 182).

Study Results

In this section, I discuss the descriptive statistics of the HSE-MS IT and the GWBQ scores. I also discuss the statistical analysis findings, which are organized by research questions and hypotheses. I organized this section in the following subsections: internal reliability of scales, testing assumptions, descriptive statistics of the HSE-MS IT and the GWBQ scores, and research questions and hypotheses.

Internal Reliability of Scales

Prior to conducting the data analysis, I conducted reliability analyses to determine whether the scales used in the study have internal consistency. Results of the reliability analyses are presented in Table 4. Results showed that all scales have a Cronbach's alpha of above .70, which indicated that the items are reliable in measuring the constructs considered in the study.

Table 4

Reliability Analyses Results

	α
Demands	0.740
Control	0.711
Manager's Support	0.778
Peer Support	0.764
Relationships	0.727
Role	0.763
Change	0.852
GWBQ	0.927

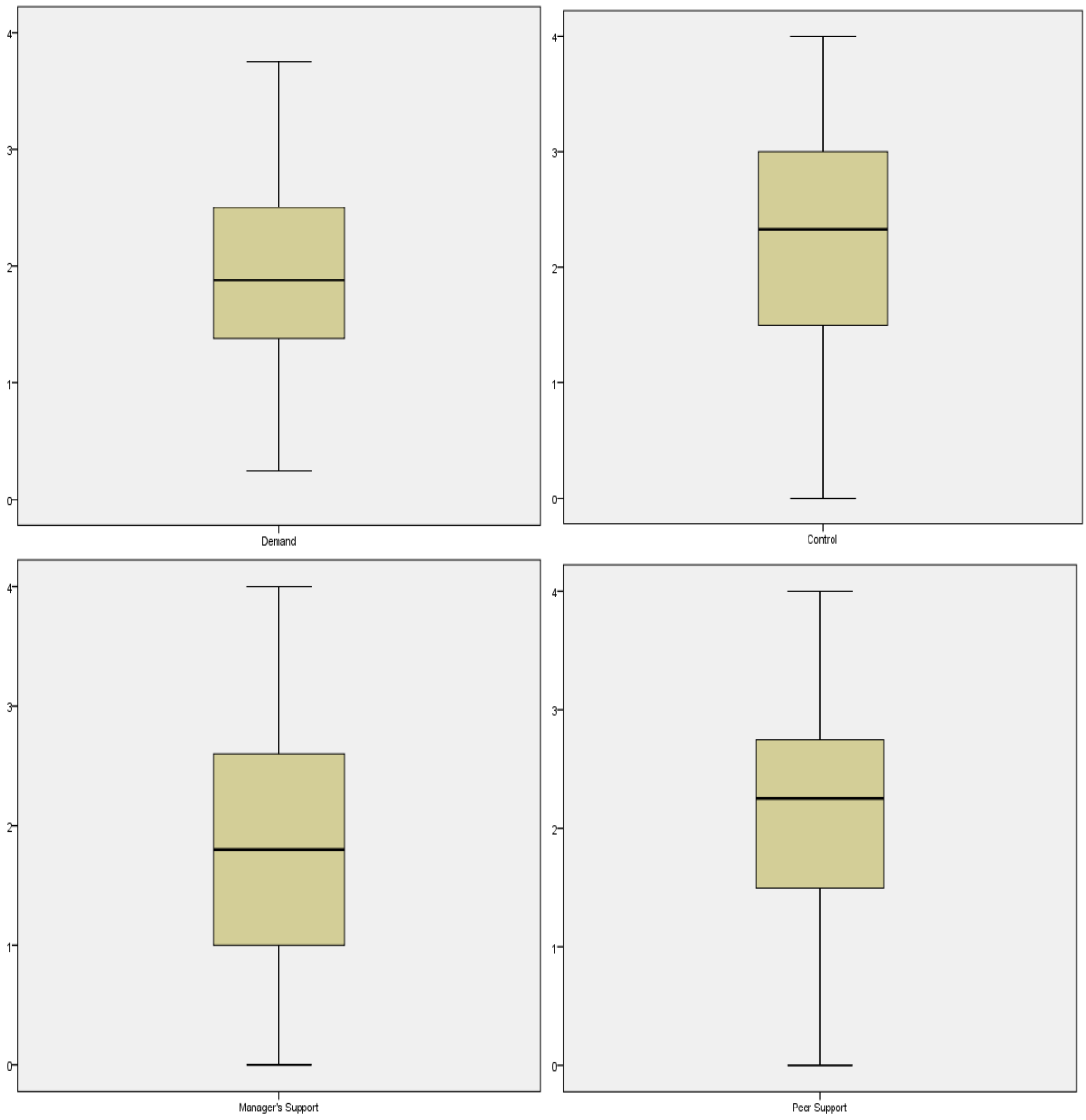
Note. α = Cronbach's alpha.

Testing Assumptions

To test for assumptions, I used boxplots to determine whether outliers existed in the data. The boxplots are presented in Figure 4. As observed, there are points outside the range of the boxplots that are considered as outliers; these were deleted in the dataset. In terms of normality, I conducted Shapiro Wilk's tests to determine whether the data follows the normal distribution. Results of the analyses are presented in Table 5. The data for all the variables were nonnormally distributed ($p < .05$). Therefore, I conducted Spearman's rho correlation analysis as opposed to the Pearson's correlation analysis.

Figure 4

Boxplots of Study Variables



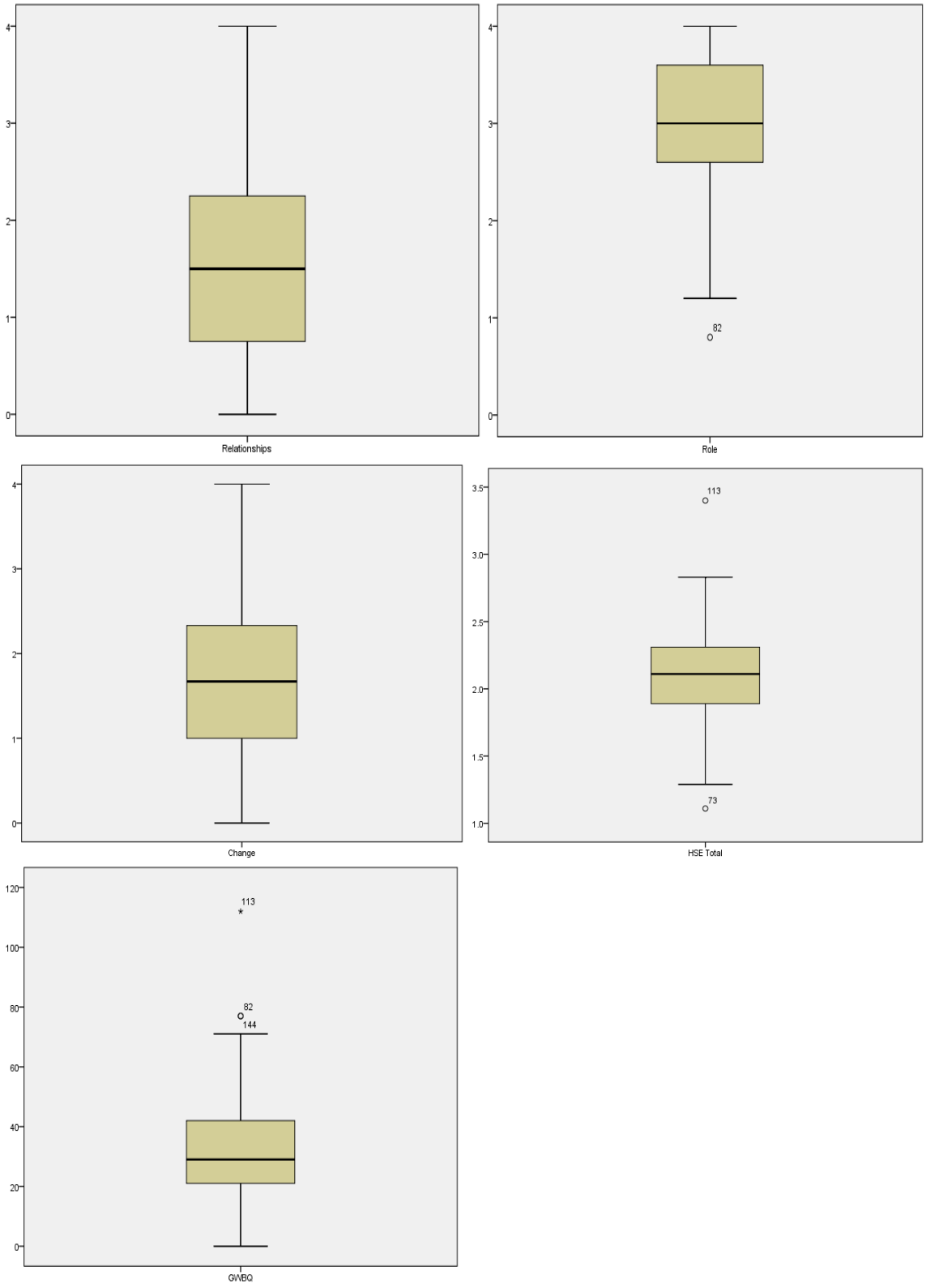

Relationships
Role
82
Change
HSE Total
113
73
GWBQ
113
82
144

Table 5

Shapiro-Wilk's Test of Normality

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	*df*	Sig.
Demand	0.982	177	.021
Control	0.980	177	.013
Manager's Support	0.972	177	.001
Peer Support	0.980	177	.011
Relationships	0.956	177	< .001
Role	0.954	177	< .001
Change	0.963	177	< .001
HSE Total	0.990	177	.285
GWBQ	0.970	177	.001

Note. *df* = degrees of freedom; Sig. = significance.

Descriptive Statistics of the Health and Safety Executive Management Standards Indicator Tool and the General Well-Being Questionnaire Scores

Table 6 shows the descriptive statistics of the HSE-MS IT and the GWBQ scores. The HSE-MS IT was used to assess workplace stress, which consists of 35 items that ask about working conditions known to be potential causes of work-related stress (HSE, 2017a; see Appendix E). The HSE-MS IT is used to obtain employees' views "on their exposure to six dimensions of the psychosocial work environment that can lead to stress-related outcomes if not properly managed" (Bevan et al., 2010, p. 525). The six dimensions include (a) demands, (b) control, (c) support, (d) role, (e) change, and (f) relationships (Bevan et al., 2010). The responses of participants on the items were averaged to determine the scores for each of the six subscales as well as the total HSE-MS IT scores. The highest mean score was observed for the role subscale of HSE-MS IT

(M = 3.04, SD = .69), whereas the lowest mean score was observed for the relationships subscale of HSE-MS IT (M = 1.58, SD = 1.02). The data indicated that the highest workplace stress is experienced in relation to their role, whereas the lowest workplace stress is experienced in relation to their relationships. The GWBQ score has a range of 0 to 71 with a mean of 31.77 (SD = 14.68). The GWBQ score indicated that the well-being of participants was in the lower range.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of the Health and Safety Executive Management Standards Indicator Tool and the General Well-Being Questionnaire Scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	*M*	*SD*
Demand	178	0.25	3.75	1.90	0.84
Control	178	0.00	4.00	2.25	0.91
Manager's Support	178	0.00	4.00	1.91	1.01
Peer support	178	0.00	4.00	2.15	0.97
Relationships	178	0.00	4.00	1.58	1.02
Role	178	1.20	4.00	3.04	0.69
Change	178	0.00	3.67	1.76	0.86
HSE total	178	1.29	2.83	2.10	0.32
GWBQ	177	0.00	71.00	31.77	14.68

Research Questions and Hypotheses

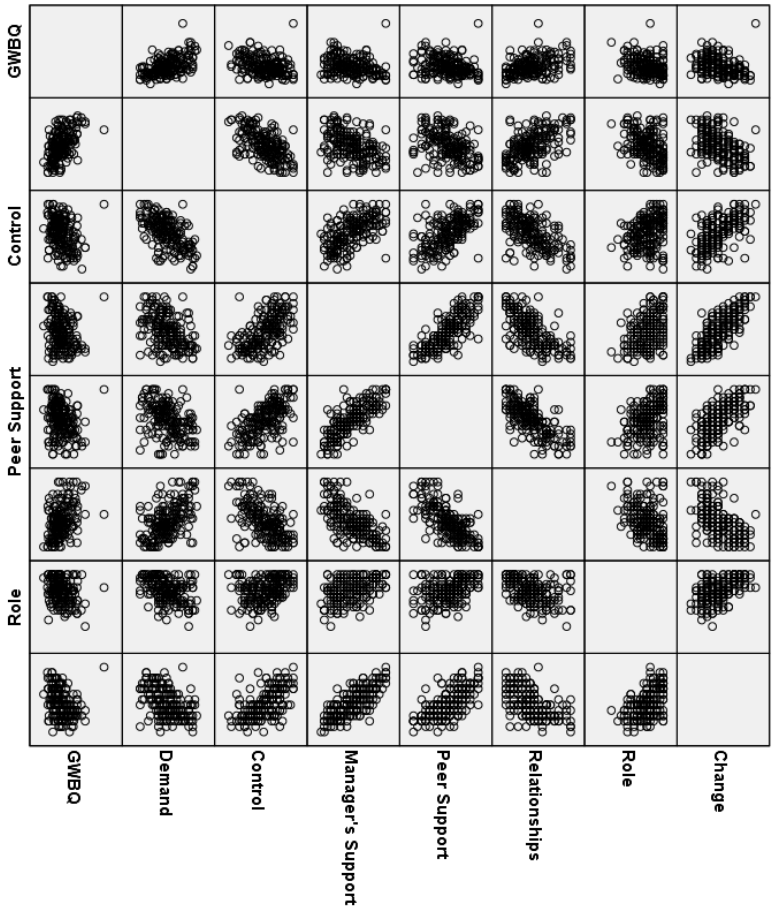
In this subsection, I discuss the results of the two research questions. The findings are organized by research questions, where Spearman's rho correlation analysis and a linear regression analysis are discussed. This subsection is organized in the following areas: testing assumption, Research Question 1, and Research Question 2.

Testing Assumption

An assumption of Spearman's correlation analysis is that the variables are nonnormally distributed and the scores on the variables are monotonically related. The matrix scatterplot is presented in Figure 5. The result showed that data are monotonically related, thus, the assumption of Spearman's correlation analysis is met.

Figure 5

Matrix Scatterplot of General Well-Being Questionnaire and Health and Safety Executive Management Standards Indicator Tool Subscales



Research Question 1

RQ1: What is the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States?

$H_0$1: There is no relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States.

H_a1: There is a relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States.

To test the first set of hypotheses, a Spearman's correlation analysis was conducted. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 7. As observed in the results of the Spearman's correlation analysis, HSE-MS IT subscales of demands (Spearman's r = .502, $p < .001$) and relationships (Spearman's r = .370, $p < .001$) are positively correlated with the workplace well-being of participants. The results showed that an increase in demands and relationships scores also were associated with an increase in the well-being scores of participants. The demands subscale is reverse scored, which means that higher demands scores were associated with less demand at work. The results also showed that subscales of control (Spearman's r = -.340, $p < .001$), manager's support (Spearman's r = -.315, $p < .001$), peer support (Spearman's r = -.301, $p < .001$), role (Spearman's r = -.268, $p < .001$), and change (Spearman's r = -.384, $p < .001$), are negatively correlated with the well-being of participants. The results showed that an increase in stress experienced in relation to control, manager's support, peer support, role, and change, were associated with a decrease in well-being scores of participants. Therefore, for RQ1, the alternative hypothesis was accepted, and the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 7

Spearman's Correlation Analysis

			GWBQ
Spearman's rho	Demand	Correlation coefficient	.502**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	< .001
		N	177
	Control	Correlation coefficient	-.340**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	< .001
		N	177
	Manager's support	Correlation coefficient	-.315**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	< .001
		N	177
	Peer support	Correlation coefficient	-.301**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	< .001
		N	177
	Relationships	Correlation coefficient	.370**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	< .001
		N	177
	Role	Correlation coefficient	-.268**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	< .001
		N	177
	Change	Correlation coefficient	-.384**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	< .001
		N	177
	HSE Total	Correlation coefficient	-.163*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.030
		N	177

Note. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

To further analyze the relationship of workplace stress and well-being of participants, a linear regression analysis was conducted. The result of the linear regression analysis is presented in Table 8. The assumptions of linear regression were also investigated. The Durbin-Watson statistic was determined to be at 2.142 indicating that the assumption of independence was not violated. The VIF range values were from 1.489 to 3.735 which are at an acceptable level. Thus, the assumption of collinearity is not violated. The result showed that only the subscale of demands ($t = 4.598$, $p < .001$) is a significant predictor of the participant's well-being scores. The model was also determined to be significant in predicting the participants' well-being scores ($F(7,176) = 10.521$, $p < .001$). Moreover, the model considering demands as a predictor explains 30.4% of the variance in the GWBQ scores.

Table 8

Linear Regression Analysis Result

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
		B	Std. error	Beta	*t*	Sig.
1	(Constant)	17.686	8.678		2.038	.043
	Demands	6.994	1.521	.402	4.598	< .001
	Control	-.112	1.524	-.007	-.073	.942
	Manager's support	.853	1.780	.059	.479	.632
	Peer support	.431	1.727	.028	.250	.803
	Relationships	2.320	1.455	.161	1.594	.113
	Role	-.363	1.668	-.017	-.218	.828
	Change	-2.291	1.848	-.135	-1.240	.217

Note. Dependent variable = GWBQ; Sig. = significance; $F(7,176) = 10.521$; $p < .001$; R-squared = .304.

Research Question 2

RQ2: Does gender moderate the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States?

$H_0$2: Males and females experience the same relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States.

H_a2: Males and females experience a different relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States.

For the second research question, a moderated linear regression analysis was conducted to determine whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among participants. The interaction term of gender with the workplace stress subscales were computed and inputted in the regression analysis. The results are presented in Table 9. The result showed that none of the interaction terms for the workplace stress subscales with gender ($p > .05$) was a significant predictor of well-being scores. Therefore, gender did not moderate the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being. The model also explained 38.1% of the variance in the well-being scores of participants. Therefore, for RQ2, the null hypothesis was accepted, and the alternative hypothesis was rejected, because gender did not moderate the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables.

Table 9

Moderated Linear Regression Analysis Result

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
		B	Std. error	Beta	*t*	Sig.
1	(Constant)	9.933	8.895		1.117	.266
	Demand	8.767	1.633	0.455	5.369	< .001
	Control	0.913	1.644	0.051	0.555	.579
	Manager's support	0.956	1.956	0.059	0.489	.626
	Peer support	1.082	1.870	0.065	0.579	.563
	Relationships	3.678	1.566	0.229	2.348	.020
	Role	-1.738	1.768	-0.075	-0.983	.327
	Change	-0.440	2.003	-0.024	-0.220	.826
2	(Constant)	12.501	8.839		1.414	.159
	Demand	8.689	4.382	0.451	1.983	.049
	Control	-2.142	4.310	-0.120	-0.497	.620
	Manager's support	-9.107	6.624	-0.566	-1.375	.171
	Peer support	0.716	5.636	0.043	0.127	.899
	Relationships	-2.967	4.379	-0.184	-0.678	.499
	Role	4.181	4.511	0.182	0.927	.355
	Change	3.292	6.695	0.177	0.492	.624
	DemandXGender	-0.191	2.697	-0.020	-0.071	.944
	ControlXGender	1.923	2.790	0.204	0.689	.492
	ManagersSupportXGender	5.631	3.968	0.634	1.419	.158
	PeerSupportXGender	0.606	3.599	0.066	0.168	.867
	RelationshipsXGender	4.109	2.693	0.475	1.526	.129
	RoleXGender	-4.159	2.715	-0.489	-1.532	.127
	ChangeXGender	-1.677	4.019	-0.162	-0.417	.677

Note. Dependent variable = GWBQ; $F(14,180) = 7.281$; $p < .001$; R-squared = .381; Sig. = significance.

Summary

The purpose of this correlational quantitative research study was to examine the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States, as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. A total of 182 participants took part in the study. After deleting outliers, 178 participants were included in the analysis. The highest mean score was observed for the role subscale of HSE-MS IT, whereas the lowest mean score was observed for the relationships subscale of HSE-MS IT. The well-being scores of participants were also observed to be in the lower range. The HSE-MS IT subscale scores were significantly correlated with the well-being scores. Specifically, the results of the support, peer support, role, and change, were associated with a decrease in well-being scores of participants. However, the linear regression analysis determined that the variable of demands was a significant predictor of participant's well-being scores. Therefore, for RQ1, the alternative hypothesis was accepted, and the null hypothesis was rejected.

Moreover, the result showed that none of the interaction terms for the workplace stress subscales with gender was a significant predictor of well-being scores. Therefore, gender did not moderate the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being. of participants. As a result, for RQ2, the null hypothesis was accepted, and the alternative hypothesis was rejected, because gender did not moderate the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables. In Chapter 4, I included the introduction, data collection, study results, and a summary. In Chapter 5, I include the introduction,

interpretation of findings, limitations of the study, recommendations, implications, and conclusions.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

In this correlational quantitative research study, I examined the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. I collected data using three questionnaires: (a) a demographic questionnaire, (b) HSE-MS IT (HSE, 2017a), and (c) Cox et al.'s (1983) GWBQ. I addressed two research questions in this study: (a) What is the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States and (b) Does gender moderate the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States? I used the SPSS to analyze the data.

The data indicated that the highest workplace stress is experienced in relation to their role, whereas the lowest workplace stress is experienced in relation to their relationships. The GWBQ score indicated that the well-being of participants is in the lower range. The results determined that an increase in demands and relationships scores were associated with an increase in the well-being scores of participants. The demands subscale is reverse scored, which means that higher demands scores were associated with less demand at work. On the other hand, the results of the study indicated that an increase in stress experienced in relation to control, manager's support, peer support, role, and change were associated with a decrease in well-being scores of participants. In addition, the results indicated that gender did not moderate the relationship between workplace

stress and workplace well-being. However, females had higher well-being scores as compared to males. In Chapter 5, I include the introduction, interpretation of findings, limitations of the study, recommendations, implications, and conclusions.

Interpretation of Findings

To examine the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population, I designed this correlational quantitative research study to answer two research questions. The findings for this study are interpreted in the context of Michie's (2002) model of stress at work and the literature review. I organized this section in the following subsections: Research Question 1 and Research Question 2.

Research Question 1

RQ1: What is the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States?

The findings for RQ1 may be attributed to Michie's (2002) model of stress at work and the literature review. The results of the Spearman's correlation analysis indicated that the HSE-MS IT subscales of demands (Spearman's $r = .502$, $p < .001$) and relationships (Spearman's $r = .370$, $p < .001$) are positively correlated with the workplace well-being of participants. The results showed that an increase in demands and relationships scores also were associated with an increase in the well-being scores of participants. The demands subscale is reverse scored, which means that higher demands scores were associated with less demand at work. However, the result of the linear

regression showed that only the subscale of demands ($t = 4.598$, $p < .001$) is a significant predictor of the participant's well-being scores.

Therefore, the results of the Spearman's correlation analysis and the linear regression determined that an increase in demands and relationships scores also were associated with an increase in the well-being scores of participants. This finding can be interpreted in relation to literature as the HSE (2015) discussed the subscales of demands and relationships. In relation to the demands finding, the HSE explained the importance of staff not being overloaded or underloaded with work and being able to do what is expected of them, which is indicative of healthy organizations. The demands subscale finding can also be interpreted in relation to Michie's (2002) model of stress at work. Participants in the study had an increase in demands score as well as an increase in well-being scores, which indicates that the findings pertaining to the demands subscale were in line with Michie's model, where people's resources are enough to cope with the demands and pressures of the situation. The demands subscale is reverse scored, which means that higher demands scores were associated with less demand at work. Michie discussed the demands that employees face at the workplace such as working long hours, working away from home, taking work home, and high responsibility levels, which can affect their home and social lives. Although the workplace can contribute to both demands and pressures that cause stress, participants in this study may have structural and social resources to counteract stress as Michie discussed. In addition, participants in the study may not be overloaded or under loaded with work and are recognized and acknowledged for their work as the HSE discussed.

In relation to the relationships subscale findings, participants in the study had an increase in relationships score as well as an increase in well-being scores. In addition, descriptive statistics indicated that the lowest workplace stress participants' experienced was due to their relationships. The relationships subscale findings are consistent with the HSE's (2015) description of healthy organizations, where leaders ensure positive working relationships as well as ensure that harassment and bullying are appropriately addressed. The study's finding that an increase in participants' positive relationships were associated with an increase in their well-being is also consistent with Lai et al.'s (2013) findings, where the researchers explained that negative work relationships, along with poor career prospects, work overload, and inflexible work environment, increase job stress. Specifically, Lai et al. found that good work relationships and poor communication, job insecurity and poor career progression, and quantitative work overload seemed to have stronger impact on employees' experience of job stress in medium-sized enterprises. The relationships subscale findings in this study may also be attributed to Michie's (2002) model of stress at work as Michie related that important buffers against stress include relationships at work, the potential for job development, and the organizational culture.

In this study, the results also determined that subscales of control (Spearman's r = -.340, $p < .001$), manager's support (Spearman's r = -.315, $p < .001$), peer support (Spearman's r = -.301, $p < .001$), role (Spearman's r = -.268, $p < .001$), and change (Spearman's r = -.384, $p < .001$) are negatively correlated with the well-being of participants. The results showed that an increase in stress experienced in relation to

control, manager's support, peer support, role, and change were associated with a decrease in well-being scores of participants. Hence, for RQ1, the alternative hypothesis was accepted, and the null hypothesis was rejected because there is a relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States. The findings are in line with Michie's (2002) model of stress at work and the literature review. Of interest to the Michie's model are the psychological variables of social support, control over work, and participation. Michie discussed five factors related to psychological ill health and associated absenteeism: (a) long hours worked, work loaded, and pressure; (b) the effects of these on personal lives; (c) lack of control over work and lack of participation in decision making; (d) poor social support, and (e) unclear management and work role and poor management style.

Pertaining to the control subscale finding, results indicated that an increase in stress experienced in relation to control results in a decrease in well-being scores of participants. The control subscale finding contrasts the HSE's (2015) explanation of healthy organizations, where employees are included in the decision-making process and they can effectively use their different skillsets. However, the control finding is consistent with Michie's model as the author discussed situations that may cause stress, such as unpredictable or uncontrollable situations as well as those that are uncertain; unfamiliar or ambiguous; those involving conflict, loss, or performance expectations (Michie, 2002). Michie (2002) suggested that stress can be reduced when the organizational culture includes employees in decision-making, as well as keeping them informed about what is happening in the organization and adequately consulting with employees.

Furthermore, the control subscale finding is also consistent with the literature as researchers found that a lack of work control is stressful for workers and may also have consequences for workers' spouses (O'Neal et al., 2014; Wickrama et al., 2005). O'Neal et al. (2014) found that work control was directly associated with wives' depressive symptoms and physical health, but this was not found for husbands. However, the researchers found an indirect association between work control, depressive symptoms, and physical health based on the effect of work control on people's positive self. The researchers noted that findings in the study brought awareness to social epidemiological pathways that cause African Americans to have relatively poor health as well as work experiences and personal resources roles in shaping African American husbands' and wives' physical and mental outcomes. Hwang and Ramadoss (2017) found a significant and negative relationship between job control and work-family conflict in female employees, which is consistent with Michie's model. The researchers also found that for both male and female employees, job control, coworker support, and supervisor support predicted an increase in job satisfaction. Paoline et al. (2015) found that decision making-input, role ambiguity, coworker relations, administrative support, and perceived dangerousness had a larger effect on job-related stress for women compared to men.

Pertaining to the support subscale finding, results indicated that an increase in stress experienced in relation to support results in a decrease in well-being scores of participants. The support subscale finding contrasts the HSE (2015) description of healthy organizations, where all employees have training and support and are able to balance work as well as their lives outside of work. On the other hand, the support

subscale finding is in line with Michie's (2002) model of stress at work and the literature review. Reid et al. (2014) discussed two main sources of stress at work for both male and female employees in different job settings: (a) job pressure and (b) lack of organizational support. Reid et al. noted that job pressure pertains to work components, whereas organizational support pertains to "supervisors, coworkers, and policies and procedures of the employment organization" (p. 25). Michie discussed the importance of organizational level interventions to ameliorate workplace stress. In addition, Michie noted that employees can experience stress due to managers who are unsupportive or bullying, as well as critical and demanding.

Furthermore, consistent with the support subscale finding, Paoline et al. (2015) found that administrative support, coworker relations, role ambiguity, perceived dangerousness, and decision-making input had a larger effect on job-related stress for women compared to men. In addition, the researchers found that in relation to job gratification, administrative backing was the only variable that had a noticeable gendered effect. Having a social support mechanism in place helps reduce the effects of not only social identity threat (Aronson et al., 2013; Emerson & Murphy, 2014), but also stereotype threat (Butler, 2015; Silverman & Cohen, 2014). Harris et al. (2017) found that workplace social support helped to predict job satisfaction. In addition, their findings suggested that in contrast to PTSD symptoms, workplace social support forecasted a larger proportion of the employment satisfaction variance. In addition, Hwang and Ramadoss (2017) found a significant association between coworker support and decreases in work-family conflict. Hwang and Ramadoss also found that for both male

and female employees, coworker and supervisor support, as well as job control, predicted an increase in job satisfaction.

Pertaining to the role subscale findings, results indicated that an increase in stress experienced in relation to role results in a decrease in well-being scores of participants. In addition, descriptive statistics indicated that the highest workplace stress is experienced in relation to participants' role. The role subscale findings contrast the HSE's (2015) description of healthy organizations, where employees know what is expected of them in their role and how their role will contribute to the organization's strategy. The role subscale findings are consistent with Michie's (2002) model of stress at work, where Michie noted that role in organization is one possible source of job stressors. In addition, Michie related that unclear work or conflicting roles and boundaries, as well as being responsible for others, are all sources of stress at work. In addition, the role subscale findings are in line with the literature as Paoline et al. (2015) found that role ambiguity was one of the factors that had a larger effect on job-related stress for women compared to men.

Pertaining to the change subscale finding, results indicated that an increase in stress experienced in relation to change results in a decrease in well-being scores of participants. The change subscale finding contrasts the HSE's (2015) description of healthy organizations, where strategies for change are clear and all employees know about the change and how those changes will affect them. Findings can also be attributed to Michie's (2002) model of stress at work as Michie discussed situations that may cause stress, to include situations that are ambiguous, unfamiliar, unpredictable, or

uncontrollable, as well as those involving conflict, loss, or performance expectations. In addition, Michie explained that unclear management and work role, and poor management style are factors related to psychological ill health and associated absenteeism.

The GWBQ score has a range of 0 to 71 with a mean of 31.77 (*SD* = 14.68). The GWBQ score indicated that the well-being of participants is in the lower range. The finding is in line with the literature as researchers found that many African Americans experience high levels of stress in their work environment (Aronson et al., 2013; Driscoll et al., 2015; Hom et al., 2008; Major et al., 2013; O'Neal et al., 2014; Perez et al., 2011; Reid et al., 2014). Roberts (2017) reported that African Americans face racial and ethnic discrimination in the workplace more than any other racial or ethnic group. The researcher noted that African Americans' exposure to racial and ethnic discrimination and harassment affects them in many ways, which in turn affects their well-being, safety, and health.

In addition, McClune et al. (2018) found that compared to their Caucasian American counterparts, African Americans experienced more stressful psychosocial workplace environments and had poorer health, which was measured by mean arterial pressure, episodic memory function, and self-rated health. Researchers have also found that the associations among health, personal resources, and work conditions may be stronger for African Americans as they experience higher disease rates such as hypertension, diabetes, and health risk behavior and poorer health outcomes than other ethnic groups (O'Neal et al., 2014; Warner & Hayward, 2006). In addition, Deitch et al.

(2003) found evidence that the experience of everyday discrimination as well as workplace discrimination harmfully affects African Americans' well-being and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Deitch et al. found that African Americans had poorer health than their Caucasian American counterparts.

Research Question 2

RQ2: Does gender moderate the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States?

A moderated linear regression analysis was conducted to determine whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among participants. The result showed that none of the interaction terms for the workplace stress subscales with gender ($p > .05$) was a significant predictor of well-being scores. Therefore, gender did not moderate the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being. For RQ2, the null hypothesis was accepted, and the alternative hypothesis was rejected, because gender did not moderate the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables.

The findings from RQ2 may be interpreted in relation to Michie's (2002) model of stress at work and the literature review. Michie related that women are more susceptible to experience the sources of stress than men because the burden is more on them when it comes to childcare and domestic responsibilities. In addition, Michie noted that women tend to have lower paying and low status jobs, often work shifts to accommodate domestic responsibilities, and may face discrimination and harassment.

However, it is important to note that Michie's model of stress at work focuses on men and women in general, whereas in this study, I focus only on African Americans men and women in the corporate sector.

Similarly, Mays et al. (1996) found that the combination of sociodemographics and perceived discrimination affects perceived job stress and patterns of employment status in the work environment of African American women differently. Mays et al. also found a significant relationship between African American women's perception of specific types of discrimination and the experience of job problem or stress. The researchers found that job problems or stresses were highest among young African American women and those with higher levels of education. Findings from Mays et al.'s study indicated that African American women's perceptions of discrimination in the job market may influence their motivation and job effort as well as their motivation to look for a new job when they are not satisfied or unemployed. In addition, Hwang and Ramadoss (2017) related that organizational leaders do not prioritize family-friendly workplace for employees and may be hesitant to hire women because they are more likely to resign due to family issues than their male counterparts. Kramer and Harris (2016) reported that executive-level and professional women experience more anxiety, psychological distress, and stress than their male counterparts. The researchers related that contributing factors include increased domestic responsibilities, receiving less pay for equal work, and being socialized to agreeing to perform all requests. The researchers argued that stereotype threat is a major factor that contributes to this phenomenon. However, in contrast, researchers have found that women are not the only group to

experience stereotype threat as African American men experience it at greater proportions (Aronson et al., 2013; Silverman & Cohen, 2014).

Some researchers have found that the life expectancy for African American men is shorter compared to women and most men from other ethnicities (Ellis et al., 2015; Thorpe et al., 2013). In addition, African American men also have high rates of many chronic diseases such as hypertension, Type 2 diabetes, and many cancers compared to Caucasian American men (Cao et al., 2019; Ellis et al., 2015; Lackland, 2014; Siegel et al., 2019). Ellis et al. (2015) found that both male and female participants perceived that stress could be used to explain why African American men had worse health than other groups and identified social, physical, and mental consequences of stress. Ellis et al. explained that some chronic stressors experienced by African American men such as structural and individual discrimination and racism, may affect their ability to reduce these racialized and gendered sources of stress from their lives. However, the researchers noted that by recognizing how African American men respond to stress may help in addressing and understanding their extremely high rates in relation to stress, chronic disease, and premature mortality.

Limitations of the Study

There were limitations in this correlational quantitative research study. First, a possible limitation had to do with generalizing the results of the study as 182 male and female African American corporate employees who work for an independent legal entity owned by shareholders, such as private sector companies that support the U.S. government, took part in the study. Therefore, I may not be able to generalize the

findings to all African American corporate employees or all corporate employees in the United States. In addressing this limitation, in future research studies, a larger sample size could be used.

A second limitation had to do with the correlational research design as the relationship between two variables could possibly be explained by a third variable, thus, direct cause and effect cannot be inferred (Queirós et al., 2017). A third limitation pertained to the use of questionnaires as the reliability of the data is dependent on the survey structure and the quality of answers (Queirós et al., 2017). The quantitative survey structure is also rigid, where participants' emotional changes, emotions, and behaviors are not captured (Queirós et al., 2017). In future studies, additional research methods could be used such as a mixed-methods study to get a more in-depth understanding of the problem.

A fourth limitation had to do with bias issues, such as social desirability bias and inattentiveness (McKibben & Silva, 2016). McKibben and Silva (2016) discussed threats to validity, specifically, inattentiveness and social desirability responding. McKibben and Silva related that participants' inattentiveness pertains to them answering questions without considering survey content, whereas social desirability refers to participants' presenting themselves too positively. However, in this correlational quantitative research study, I assumed that participants were attentive, honest, and open when they answered the questions on all three questionnaires. Although there are problems with self-report data, where participants may not fully or accurately self-evaluate themselves, the use of the 5-point Likert scale format on the HSE-MS IT and GWBQ helped tackle this bias

issue as participants were not given the freedom to include other information that they may have thought was important.

Recommendations

I discussed some of the recommendations for future research in the limitations of the study section. Four recommendations for future research are discussed in relation to this correlational quantitative research study. First, in future studies, researchers could use a larger sample size to increase generalizability of the findings to African American corporate employees in the United States. Of the total 771 individuals who completed the online questionnaires on SurveyMonkey, 589 individuals were excluded from the data analysis because they did not fully complete all three questionnaires, or they did not meet the study's selection criteria of being a male or female African American corporate employee in the United States. Hence, from the 771 individuals who participated in the study, 182 individuals met the study's selection criteria and were included in the data analysis, which was higher than the required sample of at least 84 participants.

Second, in future studies, researchers could use a different data collection procedure, where data could be collected in corporate entities instead of through social media. This would reduce the number of completed surveys that would have to be excluded from analysis as 589 participant surveys were excluded because they did not meet the study's criteria. Third, in future studies, additional research methods could be used such as a mixed-methods study, which would provide a more in-depth understanding of the issue.

Fourth, in future studies, researchers could also focus on African American employees who work in many different industries, not just corporate entities. In their studies, along with examining the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being, researchers could also focus on systemic and structural racism. Protest in the United States and other countries have resulted in new attention on the impact of systemic and structural racism on African Americans and other minority groups (Moore, 2020; Yearby, 2018). Moore (2020) related that systemic racism pertains to "continuing inequalities in education, housing, employment, wealth, and representation in leadership positions" (p. 1). Yearby (2018) related that "structural racism operates at the societal level and is the power used by the dominant group to provide members of the group with advantages, while disadvantaging the nondominant group" (para. 3).

Implications

Findings indicated that there is a significant correlation between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States. In addition, results indicated that gender did not moderate the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being. The findings in this correlational quantitative research study has far reaching social change implications at the individual, family, organizational, and societal or policy levels.

At the organizational level, findings might help corporate employers, executives, supervisors, and human resource professionals to better understand whether workplace stress is a problem for the African American workforce. In this study, findings indicated that workplace stress is a problem for African Americans, therefore, findings may

encourage corporate leaders to focus more attention and resources to reduce workplace stress. Deitch et al. emphasized the need to address everyday discrimination as part of the effort to embrace diversity and make workplaces more welcoming to minorities such as African Americans. Researchers have also emphasized the need for interventions to prevent or reduce stress among African Americans in the workplace (Cooper & Marshall, 1976; Deitch et al., 2003; O'Neal et al., 2014; Roberts, 2017). For example, Roberts (2017) reported that due to African Americans' high exposure to work stressors and the association between job stress and stress-related illnesses that they disproportionately experience, there is a need for interventions that are designed to reduce or prevent occupational stress among African Americans.

Similarly, Michie (2002) noted the importance of individual and organizational level interventions to ameliorate workplace stress. Michie related that both approaches are often used to reduce the risk to health associated with stress in the workplace. Michie reported that individual approaches include training and psychological services such as clinical, occupational, health, or counseling. The author noted that the focus of these individual approaches should be on changing individual skills and resources and helping people change their situation. In relation to the individual, family, and organizational levels, O'Neal et al. (2014) related that practical implications include work organization policy values that may enhance workers' sense of control and personal resources because these variables are essential to workers' health outcomes. When developing interventions to reduce African American employees' workplace stress, organizational leaders could use free, valid, and reliable resources. For example, the HSE (2020) provide free

workplace stress survey (HSE_MS IT) and analysis tools, examples of how to develop a stress policy and action plan, and resources on how to run focus groups and assess management competencies.

At the organizational level and societal levels, organizational leaders could use community-based, strength-based, and collaborative approaches, such as African American churches, to create occupational health and safety interventions that are culturally relevant, acceptable, and effective (Roberts, 2017). However, Roberts (2017) explained that regardless of the potential advantages of partnering with churches to create and provide interventions or health messages, health and safety professionals have only rarely worked with church leaders to deliver, design, and evaluate community-based occupational stress interventions, thus, increased health and safety efforts are still needed. As Sue and Sue (1990) noted, African Americans are more socially interconnected than Caucasian Americans, thus, partnering with churches may be beneficial as the well-being of participants in this study is in the lower range.

At the societal or policy level, findings from this correlational quantitative research study added to the literature and advanced knowledge by filling a gap in the psychological literature with respect to workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between these variables within this population. This study may also influence future studies in a manner that leads to additional research in this area. Findings from this study could be beneficial not only to the psychology field, but to a wide array of other fields, including the fields of counseling, public policy and administration, and business

administration. The findings from the study may also be applicable to many agencies and organizations, to include the APA, American Sociological Association, the United States Department of Labor, the Center for International Private Enterprise, and the National Human Resources Association.

Conclusions

This study was undertaken to examine the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderated the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population. The results in this study may be used as a call to action for corporate employers, executives, supervisors, and human resource professionals, as findings indicated that the well-being of participants is in the lower range. In addition, the results of the study indicated that an increase in stress experienced in relation to control, manager's support, peer support, role, and change, were associated with a decrease in well-being scores of participants. These findings are consistent with the literature as researchers found that many African Americans experience high levels of stress in their work environment (Aronson et al., 2013; Driscoll et al., 2015; Hom et al., 2008; Major et al., 2013; O'Neal et al., 2014; Perez et al., 2011; Reid et al., 2014). Roberts (2017) reported that African Americans face racial and ethnic discrimination in the workplace more than any other racial or ethnic group. The researcher noted that African Americans' exposure to racial and ethnic discrimination and harassment affects them in many ways, which in turn affects their well-being, safety, and health.

Focusing more attention and resources to reduce workplace stress among the African American workforce, such as creating a culture where workplace stress is assessed and stress policies and actions plans are created and implemented, may reduce workplace stress among African American corporate employees and improve their job-specific well-being, which is often referred to as job satisfaction (Deitch et al., 2003). In addition, by creating sensitivity training programs, mentoring opportunities, and career development programs, for all organizational levels (Shumate, 2010), corporate leaders may be better able to retain productive African American employees. Furthermore, reducing workplace stress among African American employees may result in increased job satisfaction, job motivation, and life satisfaction (Marcatto et al., 2014). Therefore, addressing factors that negatively affect African American corporate employees' wellbeing such as systemic and structural racism, and issues related to demands, control, support, role, change, and relationships, is a win-win for the entire corporate entity, including African American employees.

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Appendix A: Permission to Use, Adapt, and Reprint Michie's Tables and Figures

Mr. Scott Rose-Smith
Phone number redacted
Email address redacted

February 10, 2019

Dr. Susan Michie
Professor of Health Psychology and Director of the Centre for Behaviour Change
University College London
Address redacted
Email redacted

Dear Dr. Michie,

My name is Scott Rose-Smith and I am a doctoral student at Walden University. I am completing my dissertation, titled, *Workplace Stress and Workplace Well-Being Among African American Corporate Men and Women*. I am writing to ask you permission to use, adapt, and reprint The Problem of Stress table, Signs of Stress table, a model of stress at work figure, a model of stress and its management figure, and technique for managing stress figure, from your article, titled, *Causes and Management of Stress at Work*, by you in 2002, Occupational and Environmental Medicine. I have attached copies of the Tables and Figures that I am requesting permission to use in my dissertation for your review. Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,
Scott A. A. Rose-Smith
Phone number redacted
Email address redacted

From: Michie, Susan <email redacted>
Sent: Wednesday, March 13, 2019 6:07 PM
To: Scott Rose-Smith
Subject: Re: Requesting Your Permission to Use, Adapt, and Reprint Your Tables and Figures

Yes, that's fine.

Yours

Susan Michie

Appendix B: Permission to Conduct Research Using SurveyMonkey

SurveyMonkey Inc.
www. surveymonkey.com

For questions, visit our Help Center
help.survemonkey.com

Re: Permission to Conduct Research Using SurveyMonkey

To Whom It May Concern:

This letter is being produced in response to a request by a student at your institution who wishes to conduct a survey using SurveyMonkey in order to support their research. The student has indicated that they require a letter from SurveyMonkey granting them permission to do this. Please accept this letter as evidence of such permission. Students are permitted to conduct research via the SurveyMonkey platform provided that they abide by our Terms of Use at https://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/legal/terms-of-use/.

SurveyMonkey is a self-serve survey platform on which our users can, by themselves, create, deploy and analyze surveys through an online interface. We have users in many different industries who use surveys for many different purposes. One of our most common use cases is students and other types of researchers using our online tools to conduct academic research.

If you have any questions about this letter, please contact us through our Help Center at help.surveymonkey.com.

Sincerely,

SurveyMonkey Inc.

Appendix C: Demographic Questionnaire

Directions: Please answer the following demographic questions below.

1. What is your race?
    a. African American
    b. Black
    c. White
    d. Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish
    e. Asian
    f. Other_____

2. What is your gender?
    a. Male
    b. Female
    c. Other (please specify): _____

3. Are you a corporate employee who works for a private sector company, such as a company that contracts to do work for the U.S. government and receives federal funds?
    a. Yes
    b. No

4. What is your employment status?
    a. Full-time employee
    b. Part-time employee
    c. Self-employed
    d. Unemployed
    e. Retired

5. What is your length of employment?
    a. Less than 1 year
    b. 1 year to 5 years
    c. 5 years to 10 years
    d. 10 years to 20 years
    e. Over 20 years

Appendix D: Public use Permission for the Health and Safety Executive Management Standard Indicator Tool and Health and Safety Executive Analysis Tool

Health and Safety Executive public use statement from their website (http://www.hse.gov.uk/stress/standards/downloads.htm) below:

Tools and templates

There are a number of tools associated with the Management Standards process provided across this website which are free for you to use or share with your colleagues. There are also a number of templates for you to use as a starting point. Below is a quick access list of those tools:

Appendix E: Health and Safety Executive Management Standard Indicator Tool

Instructions: It is recognized that working conditions affect worker well-being. Your responses to the questions below will help me determine your working conditions. It is important that your responses reflect your work in the last 6 months.

For each item, select your answer under one of the five columns: *Never, Seldom, Sometimes, Often, or Always.*

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. I am clear what is expected of me at work	1	2	3	4	5
2. I can decide when to take a break	1	2	3	4	5
3. Different groups at work demand things from me that are hard to combine	5	4	3	2	1
4. I know how to go about getting my job done	1	2	3	4	5
5. I am subject to personal harassment in the form of unkind words or behavior	5	4	3	2	1
6. I have unachievable deadlines	5	4	3	2	1
7. If work gets difficult, my colleagues will help me	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am given supportive feedback on the work I do	1	2	3	4	5
9. I have to work very intensively	5	4	3	2	1
10. I have a say in my own work speed	1	2	3	4	5

11. I am clear what my duties and responsibilities are	1	2	3	4	5
12. I have to neglect some tasks because I have too much to do	5	4	3	2	1
13. I am clear about the goals and objectives for my department	1	2	3	4	5
14. There is friction or anger between colleagues	5	4	3	2	1
15. I have a choice in deciding how I do my work	1	2	3	4	5
16. I am unable to take sufficient breaks	5	4	3	2	1
17. I understand how my work fits into the overall aim of the organization	1	2	3	4	5
18. I am pressured to work long hours	5	4	3	2	1
19. I have a choice in deciding what I do at work	1	2	3	4	5
20. I have to work very fast	5	4	3	2	1
21. I am subject to bullying at work	5	4	3	2	1
22. I have unrealistic time pressures	5	4	3	2	1
23. I can rely on my line manager to help me out with a work problem	1	2	3	4	5
24. I get help and support I need from colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
25. I have some say over the way I work	1	2	3	4	5

26. I have sufficient opportunities to question managers about change at work	1	2	3	4	5
27. I receive the respect at work I deserve from my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
28. Staff are always consulted about change at work	1	2	3	4	5
29. I can talk to my line manager about something that has upset or annoyed me about work	1	2	3	4	5
30. My working time can be flexible	1	2	3	4	5
31. My colleagues are willing to listen to my work-related problems	1	2	3	4	5
32. When changes are made at work, I am clear how they will work out in practice	1	2	3	4	5
33. I am supported through emotionally demanding work	1	2	3	4	5
34. Relationships at work are strained	5	4	3	2	1
35. My line manager encourages me at work	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix F: Permission to Use and Reprint General Well-Being Questionnaire

Professor Thomas Cox's permission to use the GWBQ is below (https://proftcox.com/news-mental-health-research-uk/6-tests/):

Over the years, I have been involved in the development of many different psychometric tests. Perhaps the best known and most used are the *Stress Arousal Checklist* (SACL) and the *General Well-Being Questionnaire* (GWBQ).

Usage

Both tests are in the public domain and there is no charge for their use. However, users are, however, required to agree in writing, email is acceptable, to the following conditions:

Conditions of Use

1. The tests are not used for commercial purposes.
2. The tests are only used for research excluding the profiling and/or selection of individuals.
3. The tests are used in their published form and are not changed or amended and not republished without the authors' involvement.
4. The papers and reports that are associated with the use of the tests appropriately and fairly acknowledge the intellectual ownership of the tests and properly reference them.
5. The researchers explain in writing how the tests are being used and for what purpose.
6. The data collected with the tests is shared through our databases as normative data.
7. I am provided with copies of all publications which are based on the use of the tests.

No Liability

As author of the tests, I take no responsibility or recognise any liability in connection with their use by others howsoever this is framed.

Appendix G: Written Agreement to General Well-Being Questionnaire Conditions of Use

Mr. Scott A. A. Rose-Smith
Phone number redacted
Email address redacted

May 12, 2019

Professor Thomas Cox
Email address redacted
Email address redacted

Subject: Agreeing to the General Well-Being Questionnaire *(*GWBQ) Conditions of Use and Requesting a Copy of the GWBQ

Good Day Professor Cox,

My name is Scott Rose-Smith and I am doctoral student at Walden University. I am conducting a correlational quantitative research study to examine the relationship between workplace stress on workplace well-being among African American corporate employees in the United States as well as whether gender moderates the relationship between workplace stress and workplace well-being within this population.

I am agreeing to the Condition of Use below and your no liabilty statement.

Conditions of Use

1. The tests are not used for commercial purposes.
2. The tests are only used for research excluding the profiling and/or selection of individuals.
3. The tests are used in their published form and are not changed or amended and not republished without the authors' involvement.
4. The papers and reports that are associated with the use of the tests appropriately and fairly acknowledge the intellectual ownership of the tests and properly reference them.
5. The researchers explain in writing how the tests are being used and for what purpose.
6. The data collected with the tests is shared through our databases as normative data.
7. I am provided with copies of all publications which are based on the use of the tests.

No Liability

As author of the tests, I take no responsibility or recognise any liability in connection with their use by others howsoever this is framed.

Thank you for your time and assistance. Have a great day!

Sincerely,
Scott A. A. Rose-Smith
Phone number redacted
Email address redacted

Appendix H: General Well-Being Questionnaire

Instructions: This questionnaire tap aspects of wellbeing in relation to occupational stress and health. It is important that your responses reflect your experiences in the last 6 months.

For each item, select your answer under one of the five columns: *Never, Seldom, Sometimes, Often, or Always.*

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. Have your feelings been hurt easily?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Have you got tired easily?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Have you become annoyed and irritated easily?	5	4	3	2	1
4. Has your thinking got mixed up when you have had to do things quickly?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Have you done things on impulse?	5	4	3	2	1
6. Have things tended to get on your nerves and wear you out?	5	4	3	2	1
7. Has it been hard for you to make up your mind?	1	2	3	4	5
8. Have you got bored easily?	1	2	3	4	5
9. Have you been forgetful?	5	4	3	2	1
10. Have you had to clear your throat?	1	2	3	4	5

11. Has your face got flushed?	1	2	3	4	5
12. Have you had difficulty in falling or staying asleep?	5	4	3	2	1
13. Have you had pains or soreness in your eyes?	1	2	3	4	5
14. Have you worn yourself out worrying about your health?	5	4	3	2	1
15. Have you been tense and jittery?	1	2	3	4	5
16. Have you been troubled by stammering?	5	4	3	2	1
17. Have you had pains in the heart or chest?	1	2	3	4	5
18. Have unfamiliar people or places made you afraid?	5	4	3	2	1
19. Have you been scared when alone?	1	2	3	4	5
20. Have you been bothered by thumping of the heart?	5	4	3	2	1
21. Have people considered you to be a nervous person?	5	4	3	2	1
22. When you have been upset or excited has your skin broken out in a rash?	5	4	3	2	1
23. Have you shaken or trembled?	1	2	3	4	5
24. Have you experienced loss of sexual interest or pleasure?	1	2	3	4	5
25. Have you cried easily?	1	2	3	4	5

26. Have you been having a good stiff drink?	1	2	3	4	5
27. Have you had numbness or tingling in your arms or legs?	1	2	3	4	5
28. Have you bitten your nails?	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix I: Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative Certificate

Completion Date 05-Jul-2019
Expiration Date N/A
Record ID 31762861

This is to certify that:

Scott Rose-Smith

Has completed the following CITI Program course:

Student Researchers (Curriculum Group)
Student Researchers (Course Learner Group)
1 - Basic Course (Stage)

Under requirements set by:

Walden University

CITI
Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative