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Relationships between White Privilege, Organizational Belongingness, Racial Stereotypes, and Motivation to Lead

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MS, University of San Francisco, 1997

BA, San Francisco State University, 1990

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

Despite changes in the law and efforts by organizational diversity practitioners to expand leadership opportunities for people of color, there is still a sharp contrast in the ratio of white leaders to leaders of color. While much research exists regarding the diversity disparity in leadership, there is little research on factors that influence the motivation to lead. The purpose of this correlational study was to test critical race and leader categorization theories by comparing how the independent variables of white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes affected the dependent variable of motivation to lead of black American versus white American survey respondents. It was hypothesized that the independent variables correlated stronger for white Americans than for black Americans in predicting the motivation to lead. A self-selected sample of 179 adults, drawn from various industries in the United States, completed a voluntary, online survey. A quantitative, cross-sectional survey was designed to operationalize study variables and was adapted from existing instruments. Pearson correlations and a multiple linear regression aided in statistically understanding the variables' relationships. Results indicated that effects of white privilege and racial stereotypes had a statistically significant relationship with motivation to lead for black Americans, and organizational belongingness did not. Results also indicated that effects of racial stereotypes had a significant relationship with motivation to lead for the white American population while the other variables did not. This study has implications for positive social change by not only adding a sharper focus on the factors necessary for leaders of color to be successful, but also providing diversity practitioners a north star to change the leadership landscape.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my Grandfather Elmer A. Hof, M.D., who was a lifelong learner, and always encouraged become more educated. He would always ask the question "What's next?" after the completion of an education goal. I would also like to dedicate this study to my parents, Jim and Mary, whose life-long, unwavering support of my education has kept me motivated to complete this degree. Finally, I dedicate this dissertation to my husband André who supported me emotionally and was my rock through trying dissertation times. I would not have accomplished all that I have without the vision, love, support, and encouragement of my family.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

People have struggled to overcome exclusionary behaviors that are exhibited through stereotypes, segregation, and the conscious or unconscious sanctioning of privilege. However, attitudes and behaviors about differences are deeply engrained in human beings (Eagly & Chin, 2010). As society progressed, different groups have worked hard to assert their rights. The result of these assertions culminated in the women's suffrage movement in the late 1800s, the Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s, and the women's liberation movement of the 1970s within the United States. In order to establish more equal workplaces, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was enacted to provide protections for women, religious, ethnic, and racial groups, and impose penalties for organizations that discriminate against protected groups (Brown, 2014).

Organizational leaders have made progress in their inclusionary efforts. However, because of deep-seated societal values and practices it has been difficult to make significant strides, thus driving discriminatory behavior underground, and, as a result, those discriminatory behaviors have become more covert (Nkomo & Ariss, 2014). These covert behaviors are exhibited through microaggressions, which are often unconscious biases, stereotypes, and subtle discrimination (Donovan, Galban, Grace, Bennett, & Felicié, 2013). Furthermore, these entrenched societal values have been pervasive throughout the Western world due to the white male paradigm that is still embraced by most organizations today (Eagly & Chin, 2010). The dominant leadership group in most U.S. organizations today is white men, although women and people of

color are gaining ground (Eagly & Chin, 2010). This dichotomous situation of organizations that need and want to diversify their leadership ranks while white males are still in power, continues to thwart inclusion efforts made by organizational change agents (Shore et al., 2011). This tight control of leadership ranks by white males is reinforced by the political, social, and psychological systems that become self-reinforcing (Brion & Anderson, 2013).

The content of this study becomes important because it is predicted that people of color will represent more than half of the U.S. population compared to white Americans by the year 2044 (Colby & Ortman, 2015). This change in demographics may be challenging to organizations because whiteness is linked to privilege and power, and power affects the way in which leaders are accepted (Ariss, Özbilgin, Tatli, & April, 2014). This pro-white bias in leadership may help underscore why there are less leaders of color because whiteness is seen as reflective of competence while color is not (Gundemir, Homan, de Dreu, & van Vugt, 2014). Further, because white individuals often deny the existence of inherent racism, new innovative ways must be developed in order to change racial attitudes and truly understand the role of the white male in the struggle against racism (Todd, Suffrin, McConnell, & Odahl-Ruan, 2015).

Without further understanding of how white male leaders impact diversity and inclusion efforts within organizations, little progress can be made in understanding why there are less people of color in leadership as compared to their white leaders. Therefore understanding the impact of white privilege on people of color is important because both the white majority group and ethnic groups see leaders as prototypically white.

Simultaneously, the denial of race creates the illusion that organizations provide an equitable workplace with fair, meritocratic opportunity (Lowe, 2013). Thus, white privilege continues to be a real and present issue and not only worthy of study, but may aid in diversification of leadership.

This chapter contains a short review of extant literature, and how the problem is current and relevant. Further defined are the purpose of the study, the questions and hypotheses on which the research was founded, and the theories and theoretical framework supporting the study. Additionally reviewed in this chapter will be a definition of terms used in the study, assumptions believed about the study, the research scope, delimitations, and limitations, and the significance of the study, which will support a positive social change agenda. The chapter concludes with a short summary.

Background of the Study

Human dynamics within the workplace has been studied since the early 20th century. Frederick Taylor, the father of scientific management, brought workplace efficiency to the forefront of organizational study by positing that workers and management should work in friendly cooperation to achieve company objectives (Taylor, 1913). Much of the early 20th century was focused on industrialization and assembly lines. While Taylor's form of management worked well to increase workplace efficiency during this time, it may have suppressed individual creativity and collaboration skills that are much sought after in today's organizations. Although Taylor believed that there should be close and friendly relationship between management and the worker, it was ultimately up to management to oversee how to get the work done (Taylor, 1913). Thus,

the foundation of today's organizational struggle was laid by the efforts of managers to control employees and make work processes more efficient, which created a strained relationship and furthered counterproductive work behavior (Klotz & Buckley, 2013).

Counterproductive work behavior--including discriminatory behavior--in organizations of the 19th century was easy to spot, and now within 20th century organizations such behavior exists but has become less apparent (Nkomo & Ariss, 2014; Wilson, 2014). Throughout America's history, it is difficult to refute the existence of organizational and social systems that support discrimination and racism (Wilson, 2014). As organizations have adopted and mandated more inclusionary practices, overt exclusionary behaviors have nearly disappeared (Nkomo & Ariss, 2014). In some instances organizations have led the way in becoming more inclusive, and in other instances, as previously mentioned, organizations have been forced by the act of law to comply with fairness standards. While employees appear to be supportive of corporate inclusion efforts, some may actively engage in contrary and covert activities (Offermann et al., 2014), such as water cooler talk and resisting inclusion programs. As a result, it has been difficult to make progress in corporate inclusion efforts, and inclusionary practices have also not delivered what was promised or expected (Nkomo & Hoobler, 2014), like fully diversified leadership ranks.

Power struggles have inadvertently developed as a result of these unfilled promises and underground behaviors between organizational demographic groups and within organizational leadership. While power within organizations is necessary to achieve goals, it can also be problematic (Lumby, 2013). As an example, Fleming and

Spicer (2014) stated that leaders can use their power for the greater good, such as helping workers to achieve organizational goals, or they can wield their power for more self-serving motives such as greater power or domination. Further, leaders who use their influence to please others and gain support are less effective (Anderson & Brion, 2014) because it does nothing to contribute to the objective nature of solving organizational problems.

The abovementioned literature is relevant when examining what Eagly and Chin (2010) have coined the white male dominated leadership model. This model, until just recently, has ruled organizational leadership simply because the structures of corporations have been founded, led, and created based on the male experience, ignoring all else (Eagly & Chin, 2010). This patriarchal and hierarchical paradigm has aided in thwarting diversity and inclusion efforts because those in power typically want to stay in power. This type of organization, while still prevalent today, harkens back to the early days of management where managers worked to influence workers to complete tasks in a top-down fashion (Anderson & Brion, 2014). Thus, this patriarchal organization has the potential to stifle individual involvement, creativity, and collaborations and creates, power structures, influence, and authority that runs deep within many organizational cultures.

Power, influence, and authority are constructs that can interact to help individuals achieve organizational objectives, but they can also create barriers to inclusion. Fleming and Spicer (2014) stated that inequities exist because of social, economic, and cultural factors. These inequities create ethical issues within organizations that are attempting to

become more diverse and inclusive of others. As previously mentioned, leaders can either use their power to aid others or for self-aggrandizement. Many leaders who enjoy power tend to protect their power (Anderson & Brion, 2014). However, in order to avoid ethical issues and disperse power and authority, a shared leadership model may be necessary to further diversity and inclusion efforts (Lumby, 2013). Indeed, leadership may need to be dispersed and shared among workers in order to create a system of positive organizational relationships (Lumby, 2013) and thus aid in avoiding organizational ethical issues and power struggles. A utopian ideal of shared leadership, engagement, and empowerment, therefore, can be challenging to achieve within the current construct of organizations, and a shift must happen for organizations to diversify their leadership ranks.

Primary to this shift is the understanding that organizational leaders and employees must adopt a multicultural mindset. This mindset means that individuals, and groups within the organization, must embrace views, values, and beliefs different from their own, which can indicate organizational commitment (Hechanova, 2012). This approach can aid in increasing productivity, commitment, and engagement because employees feel they can bring their unique talents and knowledge to the workplace. Shore et al. (2011) stated that whether an employee feels excluded or included depended on the employee's feelings of belongingness and uniqueness in the workplace. They further stated that the lower the workers scored on the belongingness/uniqueness scale, the more they felt excluded; inversely: the higher they scored on the scale, the more included they felt. Therefore, it is apparent that in order for leaders to create an inclusive

work environment, they need to foster a multicultural mindset. This behavior can ensure that employees feel like they belong and can contribute their unique talents to the organization.

Supporting a shift in organizational culture to be more inclusive then becomes a mandate for organizational leaders. Bolton, Brunnermeier, and Veldkamp (2013) stated that leaders help followers adapt to organizational culture by being resolute in sharing the same set of beliefs and organizational assumptions, which aids in shaping the way individuals comport themselves in the workplace. While this behavior may seem coercive and power-centric, the purpose of leadership is to influence others to achieve organizational objectives (Lumby, 2013). Some researchers believe that assimilating individuality and trusting resolute leaders creates organizational culture (Bolton et al., 2013), while others believe that individuality and unique behaviors contribute to positive organizational culture (Eagly & Chin, 2010; Hechanova, 2012; Shore et al., 2011). Organizational leaders must understand this polarity within their organizational culture, so they know which culture they strive to achieve. Organizational goals cannot be fully achieved if there is lack of clarity in the type of culture desired or if there is a difference between individual and organizational attitudes, values, and behaviors (Jansen, Vos, Otten, Podsiadlowski, & van der Zee, 2016). If there is alignment between individual and organizational values, leaders can achieve positive work relationships and foster creativity, engagement, and collaboration.

Organizational leadership drives and sustains corporate culture (Bolton et al., 2013), and thus is integral in achieving the above-mentioned alignment as well as a more

diverse and inclusive workplace. Managers must not only have heightened self-awareness of their values and beliefs that guide their actions, but also be aware of the values and beliefs of their employees. Therefore, leader effectiveness relates to the ability to understand and moderate their behavior toward their followers in service of increasing engagement (Eagly & Chin, 2010). The leader must balance organizational objectives with an employee's individuality in order to ensure that there is increased job satisfaction and individual well-being (Shore et al., 2011), as well as focus on increased organizational effectiveness (Asim, 2013).

The abovementioned literature underscores the importance of understanding the crux of white privilege as a vehicle in creating a more diverse and inclusive workplace. A central concept to the white male paradigm is that of whiteness and white privilege. Ferber (2012) stated that whiteness is itself a privileged status and confers greater access to rewards and resources and those who have white privilege often are not conscious they have it. If white individuals are aware of their privilege, they often do nothing about it, and they may also persist with a color-blind ideology (Ferber, 2012). Reasons whey white individuals may do nothing about their privilege relate to whether or not white individuals are aware of racial privilege and whether awareness is indicated through empathy, guilt, or fear toward people of color (Torino, 2015). In many situations, there is apprehension by white individuals about costs, whether personal political costs or monetary costs needed to begin an organizational program, related to becoming aware and addressing white privilege (Pinterits, Poteat, & Spanierman, 2009), thus reinforcing the concept of power loss and aversion when it comes to inclusionary behavior.

A final core concept related to diversity and inclusion is that of intersectionality. As exhibited in the above, white privilege and maleness can intersect to form the white male paradigm (McIntosh, 1988), which has been shown to be an organizational paradigm of the 19th and 20th centuries (Eagly & Chin, 2010). Some researchers have examined how life is structured and organized related to the complexity of intersectionality (Cho, Crenshaw, & McCall, 2013). Others have examined intersectionality as a diverse set of characteristics related to how the individual can benefit the organization and lead to future sustainability (Anthias, 2013). Therefore, if organizations are to survive into the future and respond to the changing demographics in the United States, then it is important to recognize varying diversity and create opportunities for relationship building with individuals of different backgrounds. Neville, Poteat, Lewis, and Spanierman (2014) have presented that cross-racial relationships, whether personal or in the workplace, may serve to decrease stereotypes.

This study relates to the correlation of how white male privilege, the feeling of belongingness to the organization, and racial stereotypes influence black Americans' motivation to lead. The study of these variables may help explain why there is a small representation of leaders of color in U.S. corporations. While much of the literature has focused on the fear of power loss by leaders (Anderson & Brion, 2014; Brion & Anderson, 2013; Lumby, 2013) and the call to diversify leadership ranks (Eagly & Chin, 2010; McIntosh, 1988), very little research has been done that helps the leadership community understand not only why there are less leaders of color as compared to their white counterparts, but also how leadership barriers impact the motivation to lead of

black Americans when leadership positions open within an organization. The scarcity of literature directly correlating the study variables indicates a gap in knowledge. This study, therefore, is needed to further understand how to overcome unseen barriers within the white leader paradigm and to aid in the stated goal of many organizations, which is to diversify leadership ranks.

Problem Statement

Many leaders today, while espousing diversity principles and acting as if they exhibit inclusionary behaviors, are having difficulty matching corporate interests with workers' interests. As a result, many organizations struggle with their diversity and inclusion initiatives (Bolton et al., 2013; Bonilla-Silva, 2015; Nkomo & Ariss, 2014; Offermann et al., 2014). One reason may be that discriminatory behavior is not readily detectable or observable, making the glass ceiling harder to break through for women and people of color (Wilson, 2014). Because of this challenge, it is becoming a business imperative to align leader roles to organizational culture closely to support diversity in leadership ranks (Bolton et al, 2013).

While many employment practices ensure fair and equal treatment in the workplace through the eyes of the law (Brown, 2014), and in some instances require diversification, it is not enough. Further, in light of the prediction by Colby and Ortman (2015) that people of color will be a majority of the population, if organizational leadership does not diversify, there is a possibility that organizations could fail because individuals tend to identify more with people who share similar characteristics as them (Eagly & Chin, 2010). Additionally, the aforementioned trend may have a dramatic

impact on the sustainability of organizations into the future if no shift is made from the white male dominated leadership paradigm.

The challenge with the abovementioned change is that the intersection of whiteness and maleness has traditionally kept white men in organizational leadership positions (Eagly & Chin, 2010; McIntosh, 1988; McIntosh, 2012). More specifically, however, white individuals have a vested interest in the imbalance and underrepresentation of people of color in leadership ranks (Lowe, 2013). Further, this white leader prototype produces more white leaders in self-sustaining systems that reinforce their position within the leader hierarchy (Logan, 2011). This vested interest creates power structures that white men are eager to maintain, and thus, by diversifying leadership, fear of power loss is present (Lowe, 2013).

Little research exists, however, about the correlation between white privilege, organizational belongingness factors, racial stereotypes, and their effect on an individual's motivation to lead, which may influence the number of people of color in senior leadership positions. This gap creates a dilemma for organizations that wish for their senior leadership to become more diverse beyond tokenism. Therefore, the problem is that the white leader prototype, which is the typical image of an ideal leader in organizations (Nkomo & Ariss, 2014), is still prevalent in today's organization, thus making the diversification of senior leadership with people of color a challenge. The problem to be that I addressed in this study was the gap in the literature related to how white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes affect an individual's motivation to lead.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative, comparative, survey study was to test critical race and leader categorization theories by examining how white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes affect the motivation to lead between black Americans and white Americans. The three independent variables are white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes. White privilege is defined as invisible and unearned resources accessed by white people that allow them to move more freely within society and access networks (McIntosh, 1988). Belongingness is defined as a strong, developed interpersonal relationship within groups (Shore et al., 2011) and the degree to which employees feel respected and included at work (Cockshaw, 2013). Racial stereotypes are defined as broad group generalizations that have the tendency to disproportionately position some groups as better than others (Embrick & Henricks, 2013). The one dependent variable, motivation to lead, is generally defined as an employee's inclination to apply for leadership positions (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). The relationship of the abovementioned variables may be a strong predictor as to why there are less leaders of color in U.S. corporations.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following are the research questions and hypotheses for this study:

RQ1: Does white privilege affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently?

$H_0$1. There is positive effect or no significant difference in the effect of white privilege on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white

Americans.

H_a1. White privilege has a negative effect on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

RQ2: Do feelings of belongingness towards the organization affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently?

$H_0 2$. There is positive effect or no significant difference in the effect of organizational belongingness on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

$H_a 2$. Organizational belongingness has a negative effect on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

RQ3: Do racial stereotypes affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently?

$H_0 3$. There is a positive effect or no significant difference in the effect of stereotypes on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

$H_a 3$. Stereotypes have a negative effect on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

Figure 1 shows the hypothesized model between the independent and dependent variables.

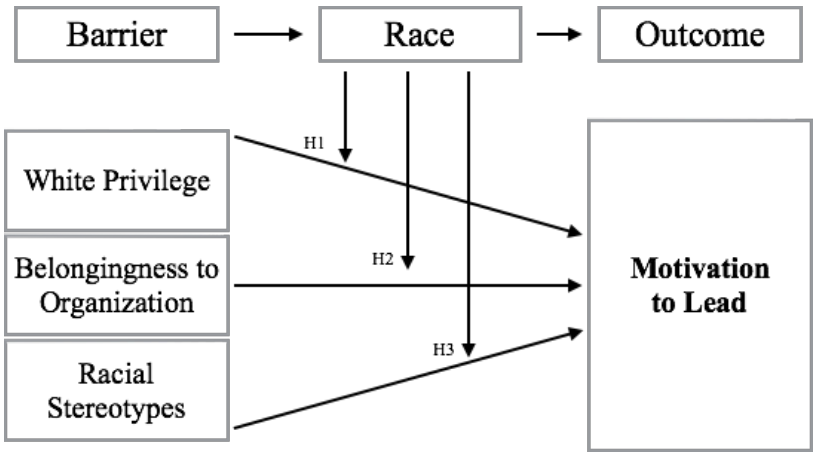

Figure 1. Hypothesized model between white privilege, belongingness to organization, racial stereotypes, motivation to lead, and race.

Further, Table 1 shows a comparison of how barriers to leadership may affect black Americans and white Americans differently.

Table 1

Comparison of Barriers to Leadership Succession between Black American and White American Organizational Leaders

Barriers	Black Americans	White Americans
Organizational barriers to inclusion	Leader prototype Lack of organizational belongingness Stereotypes imposed	White privilege Good 'ole boy network Reinforces stereotypes
Societal discrimination conditioning	Violent Threatening Different legal treatment	Fear of others White privilege Historical power
Individual Conditioning	Conditioned to be inferior Survivalist culture Group pride Historically repressed	Conditioned to lead Assumed ownership and privilege Individual interests Historically dominant

Theoretical Foundation

Study Framework

In this study, I examined how black Americans experience white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes in the workplace and how these aspects affect their motivation to lead differently than their white American counterparts. I used critical race theory explained by Crenshaw (2011), implicit leadership theory (Phillips & Lord, 1986; Schyns & Schilling, 2011), and leader categorization theory developed by Lord and colleagues (Lord, Foti, De Vader, 1984) to guide this study.

Critical Race Theory

Crenshaw (2011) identified Critical race theory (CRT) with the ongoing equality issues regarding ethnicity and race in the United States. While CRT developed from

structure of law in the 1980s, it has permeated the social, educational, psychological, and cultural studies fields (Crenshaw, 2011). CRT theorists are activist focused, and have attempted to make racial equality more visible. The essence of CRT involves the intersection between race, the law, and power, which provides a lens to understand the intersections of race, class, and gender in the United States. The CRT lens also helps to clarify white privilege, racial microaggressions, and racial power structures (Huber & Solorzano, 2015), which was foundational to this study. Crenshaw (2011), one of the main scholars involved in the early development of CRT, stated that CRT is a lens in which to view racial power in the post civil rights era. While there continue to be similar struggles in today's world regarding racial inequalities, scholars and institutional practitioners must embrace intersectionality, interdisciplinary, and cross-institutional strategies for CRT to be effective.

Implicit Leadership Theory

The basic implication of implicit leadership theory is that individuals' beliefs, assumptions, and values form their view of an effective leader. In fact, those beliefs and values help individuals develop appropriate reactions to others, and may help in forming perceptions and creating perceptions of others (Phillips & Lord, 1986). These cues guide the way subordinates view their leaders and how leaders view other leaders.

Additionally, these cues, and other non-behavioral reasons, influence and may bias how leaders are perceived and rated (Phillips & Lord, 1986). Further, more modern research focuses not only on the sole value of a leader being effective, but also of the perception of leaders as ineffective. Moreover, the value of the meaning of leader

effectiveness may be different for different people (Schyns & Schilling, 2011). This viewpoint, as noted by Schyns and Schilling, in the literature has been most furthered by the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project whose data scientists assert that implicit leadership studies have been conducted across multiple cultures. However, the GLOBE project examined what facilitated or inhibited effective leadership, which also leaves much up to interpretation and does not address the bias of ineffective leadership (Schyns & Schilling, 2011).

Leader Categorization Theory

Lord and colleagues linked implicit leadership theory and leader categorization theory in that much of what the latter discusses is the concept that followers not only form their view of effective leaders, but also categorize them into certain types. Leader categorization theory is an information processing theory that focuses on "specifying the internal structures of leadership, sharing how properties of categories can be used to facilitate other information processing tasks, such as recalling information about a leader, and explaining leadership perceptions in terms of categorization" (Lord et al., 1984, p. 344). This categorization process allows for followers to not only remember generalized leadership characteristics about different leaders and use those as a benchmark as to whether they are effective or not, but it also helps in grouping like leaders together in developing a leader prototype. Within the leader category, prototyping is prevalent and is used as a measurement of leader appraisal in understanding what followers believe leaders should or should not be. When leaders are categorized, followers compare whether a specific leader meets their definition of an effective leader (Lord et al., 1984).

If the leader matches the subordinate's leader prototype, they are more likely to be supportive and open to that leader (van Quaquebeke, Graf, & Eckloff, 2014). Leader categorization theory is important when examining what makes an effective leader and how race can be a key factor in the categorization process. Leader categorization theory helps to understand how judgments are formed about leaders (Lord et al., 1984) and what leaders should be like (van Quaquebeke et al., 2014).

Nature of the Study

I selected a quantitative research methodology for this study over mixed-methods or qualitative methodology because predetermined hypotheses were used to empirically and statistically test the relationship between the dependent variable of motivation to lead, and the independent variables of white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes. I measured these variables at the interval level.

In order to study these variables, I used a cross-sectional, survey design to focus on a non-experimental strategy of inquiry. I then collected online survey responses =from 179 online survey participants. Data collection took 1 month. I measured the variables through a correlation analysis to clarify unique effects the independent variables have on the dependent variable, and by multivariate regression to understand how each independent variable contributes to the dependent variable.

Definitions

There is merit in defining not only the variables used in the study, but also providing a base level understanding of the constructs used in the study as there may be more than one intended definition or meaning.

Study Variables

In the case of the independent variables, there are three distinct concepts that determine how an individual may self-select to apply for a leadership position. These concepts are white privilege, belongingness, and racial stereotypes. McIntosh (1988) introduced the concept white privilege by describing the invisible and weightless backpack of privileges carried by white people that allow them to move more freely within society and access networks. These invisible items reinforce a social structure that bestow unearned benefits and advantages to white individuals and support behavior measures of discrimination (Case, Hensley, & Anderson, 2014). Belongingness refers to the degree to which there are strong, developed interpersonal relationships within groups; the less someone feels they belong, the more excluded they may feel from that group (Shore et al., 2011). Racial stereotypes, prevalent within organizations and society, create wide disparities in treatment and have developed over time. Racial stereotypes within an organizational context refer to broad group generalizations and have the tendency to disproportionately position some groups as better than others (Embrick & Henricks, 2013) and are often exhibited through microaggressive behaviors (Offerman et al., 2014).

General Definitions

Diversity: The various dimensions, such as race, gender, age, personality style, education, values, and socio-economic status that make up an individual (O'Brien, Scheffer, van Nes, & van der Lee, 2015).

Inclusion: The feeling of belongingness and the ability for an individual's uniqueness to be valued (Shore et al., 2011).

Leader Prototype: Attributes that are shared by leaders and exclusive to the leader group (van Quaquebeke et al., 2014).

Racism: The inherent belief that differences in human ability and character are based on race and that one race is more superior to the other (Bonilla-Silva, 2015).

Whiteness: Whiteness has many interpretations, as well as being context specific. Whiteness generally relates to socially constructed white privilege and the normativity related to being white, which can produce and reproduce itself in a dominant position (Adams, 2015; Ariss et al., 2014).

Assumptions

There were three main assumptions for this study. The first was that the survey respondents would answer the questions honestly. This assumption is necessary because the respondents are self-reporting. The second assumption was that the sample is a fair representation of the population. This will help to broaden conclusions and to understand if the sample studied fairly represents the culture they belong to as it relates to attitudes surrounding white privilege, organizational belongingness, and stereotypes. This is important when trying to understand a comparison between two groups and how attitudes are similar enough to be able generalize results. A final assumption was that the three independent variables actually influence black Americans' motivation to lead and their decision to apply for leadership positions, therefore having an impact on the numbers of leaders of color in leadership positions. There is some importance of the assumptions

towards the study as it will aid in contributing to the extant literature, extend knowledge around inclusionary practices, and aid practitioners in understanding organizational dynamics about how white male leaders have an influence on the ascension of people of color into leadership positions.

Scope and Delimitations

I projected that the variables in the study covary in that white leaders and the white leader prototype have an impact on the numbers of people of color in leadership. I chose this area of study because little has been written about or studied related to how white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes may affect the number of leaders of color in an organization and their motivation to lead. The scope of the study was limited to the black American and white American populations in order to address the comparison of barriers to leadership as seen in Table 1. Further, this study was delimited to those respondents that will participate in the online survey and to the sample sized explained within this study.

Limitations

There are a number of limitations to this study. The first limitation related to how a participant of the study reacts to the terms of white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes. Some participants may not understand the terms, while others may be emotionally triggered by the terms used. This may leave some important data hidden if the participants do not answer the question appropriately. Parallel to the aforementioned limitation was the limitations survey research has to collecting a narrow subset of feelings and opinions. It may be important to adopt a

qualitative approach for future research to truly understand behaviors and opinions about white privilege and stereotypes. A second limitation to the study was that the variables are used to examine differences between white and black individuals only, which excludes perspectives from other ethnicities. A final limitation relates to the concept of intersectionality, which based in multiple identity forms of an individual (Anthias, 2012). In this study, I only hypothesized differences between races and does not account for difference in race, age, gender, and other factors combined. While it is important to narrowly focus research, there are inherent limitations to this viewpoint. The abovementioned may present biases and risk to the data collection and analysis.

Significance of the Study

Advancing Discipline Knowledge

In this study, I hypothesized that motivation to lead for people of color is impacted by how they experience white privilege, organization belongingness, and racial stereotypes in the workplace. There are a number of inferences that can be derived from the above. For instance, there is an historical pro-white bias, especially in western ideology, which sets the dominant culture as accepted and, as a result, many organizational policies are developed on the white experience (Chin, 2013). Additionally, one can infer that intersectionality is a core construct that is heavily infused throughout the glass ceiling discussion (Cho et al., 2013). Also, it is evident that one dimension of diversity is different from the next, and also those dimensions create the opportunities and challenges of today's organizations (Nkomo & Hoobler, 2014). While strides have been made in diversification of leadership, the white male paradigm

continues to overshadow organizational culture, which makes it more difficult for people of color to ascend into leadership roles.

Further, the challenge with the diversity literature is that it is not inclusive of all experiences and all groups (Chin, 2013). Much of the literature has a male focus, while missing in the literature is a focus on women of color, their progress in leader ascension, and contribution to organizations. These trials make the study of white privilege and the white leader prototype challenging as much of the literature is focused on the male perspective. An additional challenge to the discussion, and only mentioned by a few (e.g., Case et al., 2014; McIntosh, 2012), are the constructs of privilege, stereotypes, and discrimination that are also interlinked, although somewhat divergent from one another. Additionally, much of the literature is focused on the deficit caused by the white leader prototype instead of the success factors and competencies needed by people of color to aid their ascension to leadership ranks (McIntosh, 2012). Finally, there is little mention as to other reasons people of color are not organizational leaders. Leaders of color may be reluctant to move into leadership positions because of poor examples previously set (Cook & Glass, 2013) or because their cultural values do not align well with the white leader prototype (Logan, 2011). Therefore, the goal of this research was to fill a void in the literature by examining the relationship between the motivation to lead and white privilege, organization belongingness, and racial stereotypes.

Application to Profession

One main thrust in the field of diversity is the polarization between the black and white populations. Governments and societies have, for political and social reasons,

constructed well thought out explanations to have racial delineations, thus making race itself a socially constructed concept (Jones, 2014). This delineation challenges self-identity for both white individuals and ethnic minorities not only within their own group (Goren & Plaut, 2012), but also within a whole organizational context as an employee and as a leader (Chin, 2013). This conflict of self-identity and the positioning of society and government related to race might create stereotypes and biases that sustain barriers for ethnic minorities to ascend into leadership ranks.

Stereotypes, which are generalized beliefs ascribed to a group of people (Block, Aumann, & Chelin, 2012; Embrick & Henricks, 2013), have the ability to bias and constrain whether leaders are perceived as effective (Eagly & Chin, 2010). Moreover, stereotypes are enhanced when imagining the ideal leader, as most are envisioned as white (Brown-Iannuzzi, Payne, & Trawalter, 2013; McIntosh, 1988) and male (Coston & Kimmel, 2012; McIntosh, 1988), thus increasing a pro-white and pro-male bias within organizational leadership. McIntosh (1988) used this intersection of white and male to speak to the unearned privileges of white men inherent in our society that permeate organizational leadership structures and aid in positioning the white ideal as normal, morally neutral, and idyllic. This privileged state creates unwarranted challenges to the ascension of ethnic minorities into leadership positions especially when white male leaders create a self-reinforcing process to maintaining the status quo (Logan, 2011) and feel their privileged positions are being threatened (Ferber, 2012).

The above-mentioned discussion, then, reveals social problems that not only creates barriers for people of color to ascend into leadership positions, but also once a

person of color achieves a leadership role there are additional challenges to overcome (Lowe, 2013). As a result, these barriers create a labyrinth with varying routes that can be confusing to individuals of color (Wyatt & Sylverster, 2015). Therefore, the historical context and social problems combined contribute to the white leader prototype, which organizes along racialized lines to reinforce and sustain white individuals in leadership (Logan, 2011). Further challenging, and contrary to the white leader prototype, is the construct of intersectionality where race and gender cannot be studied independently (Cho et al., 2013), as well as the benefits of dual racial identities that can serve to break down the white dominated culture in organizations (Gundemir et al., 2014). These challenges help to move the discussion of inclusion forward as they confront the white leader paradigm within the organizational context. By addressing the impact white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes has on an individual's motivation to lead, results from this study can be used by organizational diversity practitioners to develop and target inclusionary programs to increase the numbers of leaders of color.

Positive Social Change

It is important to understand how the white leader prototype simultaneously can positively and negatively affect the ascension of people of color into leadership positions. It has been shown that not only do white leaders buy into the white leader prototype (Logan, 2011), but also people of color knowingly and unknowingly support such a paradigm (Lowe, 2013). Hence, heightening awareness related to organizational conditioning of the white leader prototype, and thus the white dominated culture, can

serve organizational change and diversity practitioners. Specifically, practitioners can build organization diversity and inclusion models, as well as create needed interventions, based on the strengths and competencies required of people of color to become organizational leaders. By providing focus, this study has aided in, what Chin (2013) stated as, finding a way to contribute to the understanding of resiliency factors in leaders of color in adapting to leadership contexts that differ from their own culture. Therefore, this study may be significant and contribute to positive social change not only by adding to the existing body of literature, but also by adding a sharper focus on the factors necessary for leaders of color to be successful. By understanding how to enable the success of leaders of color and responding to the needs of that population, as well as organizations as a whole, there is potential for the study to improve upon human and social conditions and contribute to positive social change.

Summary and Transition

Organizations of today still struggle with becoming more inclusive of non-white employees in leadership ranks. White males still dominate U.S. corporations (Eagly & Chin, 2010), and this is alarming because by the year 2044 the U.S. population will be more than half people of color (Colby & Ortman, 2015).

The purpose of this study was to investigate and determine how white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes influence the motivation to lead between black Americans and white Americans. This examination process was undergirded by the theories of critical race theory, implicit leadership theory, and Lord and colleagues (Lord et al., 1984) leader categorization theory.

I conducted this study through an online survey platform. I investigating the research questions and hypotheses presented in this chapter through existing and reliable measurement instruments. Significance of this study relates to creating positive social change, contributing to the diversity and inclusion literature, and to heightening awareness related to organization conditioning of the white leader prototype.

I have organized this dissertation into five chapters. Discussed in Chapter 1 is the background of the study, nature of the study, the problem and purpose of the study, and the research questions and hypotheses. Based on the theoretical framework reviewed in Chapter 1, the extant literature and theoretical foundation related to the key study variables of white privilege, organizational belongingness, racial stereotypes, and motivation to lead is covered in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 includes a discussion of the research design, rationale and methodology, and how the study variables were operationalized. Chapter 4 contains the data analysis, statistical tests, and results from the online survey. Finally, coalesced in Chapter 5 are the interpretation of the findings, study limitations, recommendations for future research, and implications for practice and positive social change.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative, comparative, survey study was to test critical race and leader categorization theories by examining how white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes influences the motivation to lead between black Americans and white Americans. In effect, there seems to be a glass ceiling issue that is preventing people of color in attaining leadership positions. While some posit this effect is related to people of color not fitting into the western leader ideology (Gundemir et al., 2014), others believe that focus must be given to understanding barriers to leadership (McIntosh, 2012).

Therefore, the problem is that the white leader prototype, which is the typical image of an ideal leader in organizations (Nkomo & Ariss, 2014), is still prevalent in today's organizations, thus making the diversification of senior leadership with people of color a challenge. This problem is a predominant and continuing issue in U.S. corporations where the leader stereotype is white men (Brown-Iannuzzi et al., 2013), and this propencity has been difficult to change. One reason for lack of progress relates to the covert racial barriers in organizations that prevent people of color from advancing into leadership positions (Rosette, Leonardelli, & Phillips, 2008). These blurred racial barriers coupled with the white leader prototype helps to shape positions within organizations along racialized lines (Logan, 2011), despite attempts otherwise. Further, racialization within organizations is has become inclusive of many cultures and

ethnicities as the workforce becomes more globalized (Leonardi & Rodriguez-Lluesma, 2013).

The abovementioned problem, relating to the predominance of white male leaders, supports the observation that racial minorities are scarce in leadership positions within U.S. corporations. Gündemir, Dovidio, Homan, and De Dreu (2016) mentioned that underrepresentation of people of color in leadership is possibly due to trust issues, bias, and feelings of incompetence. Wyatt and Sylvester (2015) assert that seen and unseen barriers not only reinforce disparity between people of color and white employees in leadership but also perpetuate the white privilege paradigm. McIntosh (1988) compared white privilege to unearned assets kept in an invisible knapsack that white individuals unconsciously access to further meritocracy in organizations. Whether exercised privilege is conscious or unconscious it can be detrimental to organizational human resource practices by maintaining the status quo and reinforcing the power of whiteness (Ariss et al., 2014), thus furthering discriminatory behavior. Case et al. (2014) examined the codependent relationship between privilege and discrimination, and focused the discussion on the benefits of privilege and the disadvantage of discrimination versus the impact on whiteness in the workplace.

Whiteness and organizations, as constructs, do not expressly conjure an image of race (Nkomo & Ariss, 2014), mostly because whiteness is considered to be an invisible attribute. In essence, this raceless lens sanitizes whiteness and aids in a natural fit with organizations. While other races are considered part of a cultural collective with a strong identity, white individuals have no social collective identity (Nkomo & Ariss, 2014).

This lack of social identity poses a number of issues. For instance, there has been very little study of white people's inability to see their own involvement in the reproduction of discrimination (DiTomaso, 2013), how much political and social power they have (McIntosh, 2012), and how whiteness is at the core of the leader prototype (Nkomo & Ariss, 2014). This lack of focus on whiteness in organizations supports the white leader prototype and solidifies a pro-white leadership bias.

In order to further understand the context of the leader prototype and barriers to inclusion, I examined extant literature on white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes. My main objective for this review was to identify gaps in knowledge and research related to understanding and identifying why people of color are less prevalent than White Americans in U.S. corporate leadership. Sections of this chapter include a review of the literature search strategy, a discussion of major theoretical propositions and the source of the theory grounding this study, and a thorough analysis of the literature as it relates to the study's variables, research questions, and hypotheses.

Literature Search Strategy

I began the literature search strategy with broad search terms such as *leadership, leaders of color, people of color, leader prototype, barriers to leadership, leader emergence, motivation to lead, leader succession, race, racism, inequality, ethnicity, discrimination, whiteness, privilege, stereotypes, diversity, belongingness,* and *inclusion*. I also used the terms *African-American, Black, Caucasian-American, European-American, white, Hispanic, Latino,* and *Asian* as search criteria. I used the terms above both individually and in combination with one another to understand the breadth and

depth of the literature as it relates to the study variables. In order to understand and examine the work of leadership and organizational barriers within the context of race, I concentrated on the main disciplines of business, management, and psychology.

I predominantly searched the years 2011 to the current date. However, there were some articles relevant to the research that fell outside of the search criteria. Specifically, the theoretical foundation and seminal articles related to those theories were published before 2011. In examining the literature related to the study variables, I discovered the foundational theories of implicit leadership theory (Phillips & Lord, 1986), the distinct but related leader categorization theory (Lord et al., 1984), and critical race theory that was developed out of legal discourse over the last 20 years (Crenshaw, 2011). While each of these theories was supported by earlier theories, the tenets developed by each of the researchers further aided in my deeper understanding of, and are more directly related to the study variables.

Finally, in addition to using the library databases such as Business Source Complete, ABI/Inform Complete, ERIC, and PsychINFO, I used Google Scholar to source relevant articles with the search criteria listed in the paragraph above. Most of the research I conducted was within the confines the United States, with less literature discovered worldwide. Additionally, I discovered that much extant research was weighted more towards the racially black population versus any other ethnic group. Lastly, I examined the reference list of articles for relevant resources, including seminal theories and survey instruments, and unearthing new search streams.

Theoretical Foundation

There are a number of leadership theories that researchers use to look at social relationships within organizations to understand how individuals move into leadership positions, how followers relate to leaders, and how leaders are viewed as effective or not. I used three cognitive theories to understand why there are fewer leaders of color in U.S. corporations. Two of the three theories, implicit leadership theory (ILT) and leader categorization theory (LCT), are related, as both examine leadership perceptions and traits. These two theories are also distinct from the perspective that ILT is generally related to images of an effective leader (Schyns & Schilling, 2011) while LCT, an ILT in itself, is related to the preconceptions of how effective leaders should behave, which then creates images of an ideal leader and leader categories for the followers (Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984). The third theory undergirding this study is critical race theory (CRT), which asserts that societal and organizational power structures sustain racial inequalities (Kolivoski, Weaver, & Constance-Huggins, 2014). I review he tenets of the three theories below.

Implicit Leadership Theory

Images of an effective leader most often come from the viewpoint of the follower. According to ILT, the values, distinctive personality, and other characteristics inform follower's perceptions of leaders (Ehrhart, 2012). Moreover, ILTs help followers organize these perceptions into the concept of an ideal leader, may guide followers' responses to leaders, and may predict specific leader prototypes (Phillips & Lord, 1986). These ILTs are produced over time with different leader experiences (Offermann,

Kennedy, Jr., & Wirtz, 1994). Further, ILTs may have the potential to bias the way a leader is perceived and categorized (Junker & van Dick, 2014). Therefore, perceptions, prototypes, and biases can all have an effect on followers' conception of an ideal, effective leader.

Offermann et al. (1994) clarified the concept of effective leadership by examining follower categorization of leaders through eight implicit theories of leadership: charisma, sensitivity, dedication, intelligence, tyranny, attractiveness, strength, and masculinity. Through a content and factor analysis of each of the eight elements, they were able to show that followers positively attributed sensitivity, charisma, intelligence, and dedication to effective leadership, and as a result, followers generally held leaders to high standards. The other five elements of tyranny, attractiveness, strength, and masculinity were equated to negative leadership behaviors. Schyns and Schilling (2011) reinforced Offermann and colleagues' work by analyzing 349 statements made by study participants on their views of leadership behaviors and asked them to indicate whether they were ineffective or effective behaviors. Of those behaviors, 225 were categorized as effective and 119 were categorized as ineffective, and five where not clearly labeled. Schyns and Schilling's (2011) results indicated, in support of Offermann and colleagues, that followers with an ineffective image of leadership may view their leaders more negatively.

Ehrhart (2012) expanded on Offermanns et al.'s (1994) study by focusing on the correlation of the follower self-concepts of self-esteem and self-construal. Ehrhart stated that the ILTs of charisma, dedication, and sensitivity had positive links to leadership behaviors and that the other five elements had no clear links to leadership behaviors.

Ehrhart found links between self-construal, charismatic leadership, and relationship-oriented leadership, which indicated that follower self-concept may intimate other influences and impact the notion of an ideal leader. A major finding of Ehrhart's (2012) study was that how one views oneself in relationship to others may have an impact on leadership interaction, which could explain this study's dependent variable of motivation to lead.

Leader Categorization Theory

Developed by Lord and colleagues (Foti et al., 1982), LCT focuses as a subset of implicit leadership theory by further defining leadership into a categorization process, also know as a leader prototype. These schematic images of leaders match the perceptions of followers as to how a leader behaves; the closer the match, the better the prototypical leader and thus a better follower/leader fit (van Quaquebeke et al., 2014). Therefore, how the follower categorizes a leader, whether positive or negative, will impact the effectiveness of the leader. Moreover, knowingly categorizing a leader as positive may bring anticipated benefits for a follower's self-concept (van Quaquebeke & Eckloff, 2013).

Central to LCT is the leader/nonleader concept. The premise of LCT relates to the simple categorization process that interacts with followers' perceptions of leadership hierarchy to form a broad leader prototype, and creates more detailed leader prototypes specifying traits and behaviors (Foti, Fraser, & Lord, 1982). Foti and colleagues tested this leader prototype relationship in a three-part study by examining the internal structure of each categorization level, described as superordinate, basic, and subordinate, the

accessibility of prototypes to make leadership judgments, and the prototypicality of leader behaviors and traits. Together their three studies showed strong support of the internal structure of the leader categorization model, how accessibility to prototypes helped to categorize leadership, and how prototypes are used to understand leadership. Their study defined LCT as a cognitive theory that provides a framework for understanding how follower ratings of leader behaviors and traits not only indicate leader effectiveness, but also how those ratings are accessed and ordered.

Other studies have furthered LCT by focusing on group prototypes of leaders as well as how followers interact with leader prototypes. For instance, van Quaquebeke et al. (2011) posited that the closer to the leader prototype followers perceived themselves, the more they would respect their leader and the rating of leadership effectiveness would be appraised at a higher value. Additionally, van Quaquebeke and colleagues used a three-study approach to test the variables and showed how follower self-perceptions correlated with the leader categorization process. If followers rated themselves close to ideal leader behaviors, then they were toward their leader in exemplifying effective leadership traits and behaviors (van Quaquebeke et al., 2011).

Van Quaquebeke and Eckloff (2013) examined the relationship between follower self-esteem and leader categorization. They posited that follower self-esteem was a mediator in the follower's estimation of leader effectiveness only when the followers felt respected in the relationship. The two-pronged study examined follower's identification with the leader as a mediator between openness to influence and leadership categorization, and identification moderated by feeling respected. In both cases, the

authors found support for their hypotheses, thus expanding the literature by drawing a correlation between the importance of the follower/leader relationship in leader categorization and leader effectiveness. Moreover, Van Quaquebeke et al. (2014) examined whether leaders were mostly categorized by the generalized ideal leader as described by Lord and colleagues (central tendency leader prototype), or whether they were categorized by their follower's ideal image of a leader (goal-directed leader prototype). Van Quaquebeke et al. (2014) were able to show that the central tendency leader prototype had a positive relationship with how followers responded to the ideal leader. In other words, their study indicated that how leaders are perceived, effective or not effective, and how they are categorized, are in the eye of the beholder.

Leadership categorization theory helps to explain this study's variables of identifying and belonging to the leadership group, as well as understanding how culture, influences an individual's motivation to lead. Leader categorization theory not only influences followers behaviors towards leaders (Lord et al., 1984), but can inform followers about how they feel about themselves, how they feel about leaders (van Quaquebeke & Eckoff, 2013), and may influence how they view themselves as leaders (van Quaquebeke et al., 2011).

Critical Race Theory

The final variable of the present study, white privilege, can be grounded through the lens of critical race theory (CRT). Critical race theory provides a central framework that can assist in identifying and investigating the structures of society and organizations that reinforce racism and inequality (Kolivoski et al., 2014). Born out of the discipline of

law (Crenshaw, 2011), CRT intersects race, law, and society by asserting that not only is racism hardwired systemically into American organizational and societal circuitry, but CRT also states that racism exists on a personal level both consciously and unconsciously. Additionally, CRT posits that overcoming the racist past is a challenge for the future, race is a social construction that shifts over time, racial stereotypes limit the advancement of people of color in society and organizations, and that racism intersects with other dimensions of diversity such as gender, sexuality, religion, as well as other forms of inequality (Carbado & Roithmayr, 2014).

Recent scholars equate CRT with the conscious and unconscious enactment of whiteness. For instance, Patton and Bondi (2015) stated that not only is whiteness paired with citizenship, but also historically it comes with legal protections, which now is part of the fabric of society and difficult to overcome. In a study to examine how white men embraced ally work, which means those who are not part of a certain demographic advocate for that demographic, Patton and Bondi (2015) interpreted qualitative data to understand how ally work upheld or reinforced institutional racism and how historical racism informed ally work. Their findings uncovered three key themes as it related to how white individuals enacted ally work: challenging the status quo, the risks and sacrifices of ally work, and aspiring to be an ally. In each situation, the researchers found that white allies need to be cognizant of and monitor the innate power they have in each of the three situations (Patton & Bondi, 2015). White individuals needing to be cognizant of and vigilant in monitoring one's privilege and power is a core assertion from scholars studying white privilege and critical race theory.

Conceptual Framework

This study examined the relationship a black individual's motivation to lead is influenced by white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes. The conceptual framework relates to how the individuals' experiences of the independent variables of white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes can influence the dependent variable, motivation to lead. While there has been much research on each of the individual independent variables of the study, researchers have not examined the relationship of those variables with the motivation to lead. The next section will examine the breadth and depth of extant literature related to each study variable, as well as related concepts that ground the self-selection concept.

Literature Review

Many researchers have written about the study variables especially in the context of organizations. For instance, Lowe (2013) discussed how privileged, white males are vested in maintaining their leadership positions, Offermann et al. (2014) discussed how racial stereotypes contribute to discrimination in the workplace, Cottrill, Lopez, and Hoffman (2014) discussed an individual's need to belong to organizational processes, and Amit and Bar-Lev (2013) discussed how an individual's self-concept contributes to motivation to lead. Further, it is important to understand diversity within the context of organizations because Americans spend so much of their time working. While diversity ideologies are vast, there are a few that continue to drive interest and research so that scholar practitioners can assist in understanding and breaking down barriers to equality, especially in the workplace. Nkomo and Hoobler (2014) stated that white supremacy,

colorblind equal opportunity, multiculturalism, and post-race inclusion practices are challenging ideologies to deconstructing barriers to racism and equality in a post-civil rights America. Focusing on these ideologies as a whole may further bring challenges because they can be intersecting, which may muddy the diversity discourse (Chin, 2013), and they may challenge the leadership effectiveness of leaders of color (Chin, 2013).

Privilege

Privilege is a concept woven through the fabric of U.S. society (McIntosh, 2012), and in its simplest meaning represents those who have an advantaged position and those who do not (Hastie & Rimmington, 2014). While having recognizable monikers within the U.S. society, there has been little empirical focus on privilege, even with McIntosh's 1988 seminal article of the intersection of whiteness and maleness as a hallmark of privilege (Case et al., 2014). McIntosh (1988) equated white male privilege with an invisible knapsack of unearned resources that can be dispatched at anytime, knowingly or unknowingly. McIntosh further stated that the majority of white people exercise this privilege not only because they lack the self-awareness enough to recognize it (McIntosh, 2012), but also because in becoming aware of white privilege one must also become aware of the meritocracy on which it is based (McIntosh, 1988).

White privilege often maintains dominance for white individuals through ignorance, and through organizational and societal systems that are self-reinforcing. Further, those with privilege, for instance white males, not only have a vested interest in maintaining their privileged position (Lowe, 2013), but also, because they are privileged, have a lack of insight into how they negatively affect out-group individuals (Coston &

Kimmel, 2012). Therefore, whiteness, in itself, is deemed as a distinct concept and is equated with privileged status in the United States (Ferber, 2012). Privilege studies can be dissected into three main categories: whiteness, white privilege, and the white leader prototype.

Whiteness. The concept of whiteness is central to understanding privilege in a post-racialized society, and within diversity and inclusion frameworks used in furthering organizational work. While whiteness can be equated with behaviors that include a solid work ethic, courteousness, self-sufficiency, and an orientation towards helping others, critical whiteness studies challenge that paradigm by asserting the white individuals ignore or dismiss their racial-selves (Matias, Viesca, Garrison-Wade, Tandon, & Galindo, 2014). Critical whiteness studies maintain that there is an invisibility factor to being white and that whiteness is foundational to societal racism (Matias et al., 2014). This supports Adams (2015) examination of whiteness not only being represented as a distinct concept, but also being correlated to the concept of invisibility of non-white people.

McIntosh (1988) mentioned the invisibility of privilege, which equates to white people's ability to access resources. Further, there is an inherent invisibility associated with being white (Adams, 2015). This invisibility factor relates to whether or not white people have a racial identification, and relates specifically to McIntosh's premise that privilege is invisible to white people. In a mixed methods four-pronged study, Goren and Plaut (2012) examined white identity to understand how two pro-diversity identities, prideful and power-cognizant, heightened white identity and furthered diversification efforts, which in turn showed white individuals with weak racial identity detracted from

diversification efforts. Goren and Plaut were able to show white individuals with either power cognizant or prideful identification were more likely to have a strong racial identification compared with those who were categorized as weakly racially identified. Thus, those white individuals with weak racial identification can be linked to the white racial invisibility. People can connect weakness and invisibility, therefore, to prejudicial behaviors during diversification efforts (Goren & Plaut, 2012).

To further the aforementioned, then, whiteness can be examined through the lens of critical whiteness studies, which asserts that whiteness is not a singular concept, but something that evolves within and outside of the white community (Matias & Mackey, 2016). As an example, in the early days of U.S. immigration whiteness was relative to the immigrant groups. Whereas the Irish, Jewish, and Italians in today's society are viewed as part of the white population, those same ethnic groups were highly discriminated against in their early immigration to the United States and labeled as an out-group (Joaquin & Johnson-Bailey, 2015). Since the delineation of whiteness has been shown to not only be evidenced by shades of skin, whiteness has also has been connected to racism through understanding the prescriptive nature of an individual's name. The quantitative study conducted by Cotton, O'Neill, and Griffin (2014) showed more normative names are affiliated with white individuals, which were correlated with more positive characteristics than those names perceived to be more ethnic. The two abovementioned studies are indicative of how others are judged through the lens of whiteness, which supports the critical whiteness framework and critical race theory.

White privilege. McIntosh (2012) metaphorically stated that white privilege is related to a bank account that white people are given at birth that allows access to unseen resources, which they are able to draw upon at anytime. These privileges often are unacknowledged by those that have it, and, moreover, those that do have it rarely have the ability to recognize their privilege (Coston & Kimmel, 2012; Geiger & Jordan, 2013; Hastie & Rimmington, 2014). These unseen and unrecognized privileges by the white community create inherent challenges when attempting to understand a modern, post-civil rights view of white privilege. As privilege has evolved, it has moved from a more overt status reinforced by discriminatory laws, to a more covert mechanism to impede the advancement or racial and ethnic minorities within the U.S. (Nkomo & Ariss, 2014).

More recently, however, Knowles, Lowery, Chow, and Unzueta (2014) challenged the invisibility assertion and posited that whiteness, like any other racial construct, is a legitimate visible identity that white people relate to and enact. Further the authors stated that white people overcome meritocratic and group image threats by denying, distancing, or dismantling their privileged identity. By denying privileged status, and by distancing themselves from offending in-group identities, white individuals ignore their role in maintaining racial inequality. However, by dismantling the historical and dominant racial ideologies, white individuals embrace policy change that can change in-group behavior (Knowles et al., 2014). These three, enacted responses to threats to white privilege, then, show that white individuals may be aware of their whiteness as an individual and within a group. This contradicts what others (Case et al., 2014; Coston &

Kimmel, 2012; Hastie & Rimmington, 2014) have forwarded as a core theory supporting the pervasiveness of whiteness through invisibility.

Finally, core to the concept of white privilege is the comparison to maleness. White men have a long been considered the majority (Hastie & Rimmington, 2014) with the power, socio-economic status, and unearned privilege to go with it (Ariss et al., 2014). Further, to maintain the masculine position, males are constantly proving their maleness to others (Coston & Kimmel, 2012). This posturing is well seen in organizations through behaviors that exhibit aggression and dominance in day-to-day interactions. This dominance is a form of power that enables those who have it to impose their will upon others. On the one hand, people equate power with competence and is normative, and on the other hand, it serves to oppress others and is resented (Lucas & Baxter, 2012). Additionally, power is a concept that reinforces the image of an ideal man, as well as characteristics such as being dependable, rational, and critical (Coston & Kimmel, 2012). Thus, this enactment of male power buttresses their historical position and creates power inequities within organizations that protect white male privilege (McIntosh, 1988; 2012).

White Leader prototype. Consistent with leader categorization theory, individuals choose a leader by enacting their conscious and unconscious images of an ideal leader, thus forming a leader prototype (van Quaquebeke et al., 2011). It can be extrapolated from the above review of literature on whiteness that the predominate image of an ideal leader, and therefore the prime leader prototype, is that of the white male. In a four-part study based in the U.S., Rosette et al. (2008) were able to link whiteness as

more prototypical of a leader than that of racial minorities. Not only did white people support this perspective, but black individuals, Latinos, and Asian Americans also supported correlating whiteness to the leader prototype. This may reinforce why leadership in organizations is usually white.

A more recent four-part study by Gundemir et al. (2014) postulated the reason there was an underrepresentation of racial minorities in leadership was due to the predominant leader prototype equating to white. Reinforcing Rosette et al.'s (2008) findings, Gundemir and colleagues showed that racial minorities and white people alike categorized leaders as white, as well as supported equating leadership traits to white. Further discovered, however, was the ability to weaken this pro-white leadership bias by introducing individuals that have dual racial identities, which may maintain the leader categorization process in line with their dual racial identity (Gundemir et al., 2014). Therefore, being purposeful in organizational processes that may decrease the pro-white leadership bias through hiring and promoting individuals enacting dual racial identities may allow people of color more access to leadership positions.

Belongingness

Inclusion and belongingness, while separate concepts, are often related within extant literature. Indeed, they are related within the context of the leadership literature as belongingness is encapsulated within the definition of inclusion. For instance in the discovery of how belongingness relates to the human condition, Brewer (1991) developed optimal distinctness theory (ODT) where individuals not only have a need to belong, but also want to assert their uniqueness. This definition is further explored by Shore et al.

(2011) who defined inclusion to be the degree to which individuals are satisfied through their needs of belongingness and uniqueness by a group. Jansen, Otten, Zee, and Jans (2014) extended Shore et al.'s definition by asserting that inclusion is defined by individual perceptions of authenticity as well as belongingness. Further Cottrill et al. (2014) related inclusion to the organizational domain and posited that individuals need to be a part of organization groups, decisions, and critical processes in order to feel a sense of belongingness.

Belongingness theory was developed by Baumeister and Leary (1995), and stated that individuals have the unique ability of wanting to develop and maintain at least a minimum number of positive relationships with others, even if the relationship is not all that fulfilling. This indicates that individuals have a core need to belong, even in the face of adversity. Maslow (1943), as well as other early human motivation theorists, examined what motivated humans to excel and be high performers. Maslow specifically inserted belongingness in the middle of his hierarchy of needs stating that food, shelter, and safety were needs to be met before one could experience belongingness (Maslow, 1943). Belongingness theory extends Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory by asserting that not only is belongingness a basic human need, but also that physiological and psychological issues may appear with people who lack strong individual and group connections (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). This reinforces Brewer's (1991) optimal distinctiveness theory which asserts social relationships are strongest for those individuals who are not only able to connect to their belongingness needs, but also connect their ability to be unique to other individuals or groups.

Centered on the belongingness framework, more recent discussions and studies have centered on the concept of inclusion. Grounded on Brewer's ODT, Shore et al. (2011) developed their inclusion framework, which forwarded individuals who, on one end, felt they didn't belong and weren't able to assert their uniqueness felt excluded by others, and on the other end felt they belonged and were able to assert their uniqueness felt included. Therefore, high belongingness and high uniqueness, equated to feeling included, has been shown to have positive psychological affects on individuals (Baumeister and Leary, 1995). Shore et al. (2011) asserted by using their framework within the organizational context that one could predict if leaders were more inclusive, employees would perform better, retention would be higher, and would ultimately engender higher attachment, trust, and obligation to the organization. In a recent quantitative study, Kyei-Poku (2014) examined leaders who treated their workers fairly and how that treatment positively impacted an employee's sense of belonging, which in turn was a predictor of how employees helped one another achieve organizational goals. Kyei-Poku was able to show strong support that the more fairly leaders treated their employees, the higher feelings of belongingness they had and the more productive they were in attaining organizational goals. This study supports Brewer's ODT by showing that self-identity can be swayed within a social context. Baumeister and Leary's belongingness theory confirmed that humans have a higher drive to acheieve when they feel they belong, and Shore et al.'s inclusion framework endorsed fair and inclusive leader behaviors as a facilitator of positive organizational citizenship behaviors.

Some have compared inclusion as the right of the privileged (DiTomaso, 2013; Geiger & Jordan, 2014), which continues to hamper feelings of belongingness despite all the work in educating leaders on inclusive behaviors. This dichotomy continues to engender more research related to leadership's interaction with inclusion as well as societies role in inclusionary practices. For example, and in support of Kyei-Poku's (2014) study, Cottrill et al. (2014) posited a positive relationship between an authentic leadership style as an antecedent of inclusion with organizational citizenship behavior and organization-based self-esteem. In their quantitative study, the researchers showed how the internal processes and qualities of a leader, such as openness, self-awareness, integrity, and the attention to diverse perspectives, the hallmarks of an authentic leaders, can significantly predict perceived inclusion, which in turn can help employees go above and beyond their job duties (Cottrill et al., 2014). This study showed a high interaction between inclusion within an organization, organization-based social self-esteem, and achievement of goals, and also reinforced that the feeling of belongingness to a group can affect individual and organizational goal attainment.

In development of the perceived group inclusion scale, Jansen et al. (2014) identified that authenticity and belongingness were the two most significant components of inclusion. The researchers stated that uniqueness, as presented by Brewer (1991) and that resonated more with majority groups, was a more narrow concept than authenticity, which resonated with both minority and majority groups (Jansen et al., 2014). Regardless, it is the group that makes an individual feel included, which correlates to Geiger and Jordan's (2013) affirmation that the majority group is often the group with

privilege, and that inclusion versus exclusion has a direct impact on an individual's own and organizationally-based social self-esteem. In support of the aforementioned Begen and Turner-Cobb (2015) examined through Cyberball manipulation the physiological and psychological impact of inclusion on individuals. Through their study, the researchers were able to correlate emotional wellbeing and positive individual and group produced self-esteem to an increased feeling of inclusion. Moreover, they concluded that positive individual self-esteem coupled with positive inclusionary behaviors has an impact on individual wellbeing (Begen & Turner-Cobb, 2015). This finding, then, reinforces the role of the leader in instituting positive organizational inclusionary practices. The more inclusive environment a leader creates the more an employee will feel included (Cottrill et al., 2014; Kyei-Poku, 2014). Further, creating an inclusive environment also means identifying and eliminating stereotypes within the work environment.

Stereotypes

Despite the Civil Rights Act of 1964, various affirmative action programs, and many organizational initiatives to establish an equal playing field for ethnic minorities, barriers still exist not only to organizational entry, but also to the ability for minorities to attain leadership positions. While overt racism has nearly disappeared, there is still evidence of stereotyping within organizations. Racial epithets, stereotypes, slurs, and most recently micro-aggressions still cloud efforts towards organizational inclusion for ethnic minorities. Stereotypes are mostly associated with negative impacts, but there are also positive stereotypes that produce both positive and negative results (Czopp, Kay, & Cheryan, 2015). Further, stereotypes themselves are not equal between races. Racial

stereotypes disproportionately represent people of color more negatively than white people, and even when a stereotype is applied to white people it does not have the negative psychological, economical, and societal implications it does as with people of color (Block et al., 2012; Embrick & Henricks, 2013). This unequal application of stereotypes not only affects this individual person of color, but also the group with which they interact within an organization.

Stereotyping can manifest within organizations and can occur at any point in the employment lifecycle, within selection, screening, interviewing, promotion, and termination processes. In some instances, perceptions often become reality. Stereotypes, which are beliefs formed about a group of people (Block et al., 2012), are often formed about candidates for leadership based on their perceived and real knowledge, skills, and abilities. Drawing from leader categorization theory (Lord et al., 1984), followers ascribe leader characteristics, real or perceived, which determine a leader's effectiveness and credibility. Carton and Rosette (2011) sought to understand how bias and stereotypes affect the success of black leaders. They posited that goal-based stereotypes, defined as the goals of followers that constrain or endorse stereotypes and surrounding incompetence, and how black individuals compensate for incompetence cannot be equated to white individuals because white people are not generally deemed as incompetent (Carton & Rosette, 2011). A main finding from Carton and Rosette's research was that because of the inequity in applying stereotypes between the two groups, perceivers applied stereotypes differently towards black individuals, which provided strong evidence that goal-based stereotyping helps to support bias towards black leaders.

In essence, because of these goal-based stereotypes, followers use their own context to describe leaders' effectiveness and credibility differently (Carton & Rosette, 2011), thus maintaining racial bias and reinforcing the image of a leader that is prototypically white.

Complementary to Carton and Rosette (2011), Brown-Iannuzzi et al. (2013) examined how imagining an ideal employee can increase racial bias. Their research investigated how imagining the ideal employee can create unintended consequences that reinforce stereotypes. The respondent pools in their two studies represented a mix of ethnicities, although the predominant ethnicity was white. The researchers found that an ideal employee was imagined to be white and that black employees were less likely to be hired over white employee when candidates had matching qualifications. In some instances hiring managers made decisions in the selection process based on a name (Cotton et al., 2014), which reinforced the stereotype and buttressed narrowly focused hiring practices. Further, once the image of an ideal employee has been produced, leaders may have a difficult time reimagining something different in order to create an equal selection process (Brown-Iannuzzi et al., 2013) This may be a contributing factor in reinforcing white privilege within organizations and may be an indicator as to why there are few leaders of color.

A further challenge surrounding stereotypes is the complexity that one not only forms stereotypes about another, but also the stereotypes formed of one's own group (Block et al., 2012). While there is much research on understanding stereotypes through differences with others, Yip (2015) sought to understand the effect of within-group stereotypes. Through the lens of disidentification, Yip examined how the strength of

ethnic/racial identification may influence how individuals respond to ethnic or racial stereotypes. By surveying 129 self-identified minorities within predominately white universities, Yip discovered that those individuals who experience ethnic/racial stereotypes chose to distance, or disidentify, themselves from their own ethnic/racial identification. Yip (2015) stated that when individuals felt that their ethnic/racial identity was threatened, there was an associated disidentification with their own racial group. This disidentification, then, may be a challenge to an individual's identity within the organizational context, and, thus, when challenged with a stereotype may impede an individual's motivation to lead, especially when the individual is unsure of their own ethnic group and how that group fits into organizational leadership.

While some researchers view the research of stereotypes through the lens of negative impacts (see Offermann, Basford, Graebner, DeGraaf, & Jaffer, 2013; Offermann et al., 2014; Embrick & Hendricks, 2013), there has been recent research on the impact of positive stereotypes with mixed results. For instance, in a four-part study, Kay, Day, Zanna, and Nussbaum (2013) were able to show that despite their often harmless initial interpretation, positive stereotypes actually reinforced the beliefs of black/white biological differences regarding behavior, and that they actually facilitate more negative stereotypes being applied towards black individuals. This means, positive stereotypes are not only damaging, but can also be disguised as covert racist behavior known as microaggressions (Offermann et al., 2013). This makes positive and negative stereotypes alike ambiguous and difficult to recognize and change within organizations. Further, positive stereotypes have a negative impact on an individual's psychological

response to situations, challenge intergroup and interpersonal relationships, and can serve to reinforce existing inequalities within organizations (Czopp et al., 2015). Understanding the complexity of stereotypes furthers the concept that discrimination, prejudice, and racism has only gone underground, and erodes systems at the individual and organizational level affecting the ability for people of color to attain leadership positions.

Motivation to Lead

Initial work on motivation to lead (MTL) was led by Chan and Drasgow (2001). They created, tested, and validated an instrument that measured individual motivation to lead through three predictive factors: affective identity MTL, defined as individuals motivated by the satisfaction they receive from their inner leadership drive; social-normative MTL, defined as individuals motivated by social or environmental factors that drive them to lead; and, calculative MTL, defined as individuals motivated by the concrete benefits of being a leader. Chan and Drasgow (2001) defined MTL as "an individual differences construct that affects a leaders' or leader-to-be's decisions to assume leadership training, roles, and responsibilities and that affect his or her intensity of effort at leading and persistence as a leader" (p. 482). This definition, in essence, means individuals who are motivated to lead are generally more resolute in becoming leaders. The researchers further stress while MTL can be conceptualized and measured by the three factors, antecedents that influence MTL relate to past leadership experience, cultural values, individual character, and leadership self-efficacy (Chan & Drasgow,

2001). This means that while an individual may score high on the MTL scale, and thus have a penchant to lead, there are other factors that can help or hinder that motivation.

Recognizing there are cultural implications related to motivation to lead, Amit and Bar-Lev (2013) expanded Chan and Drasgow's MTL scale by examining how perceptions of organizational politics and cultural values influence an individual's motivation to lead. In a comparison, mixed-methods study, Amit and Bar-Lev examined how differences between two ethnic groups related to how their tendency for innovation, their development of organization values through socialization, or work scripts, and organization politics affected their social-normative MTL. Not only did Amit and Bar-Lev find differences between the two ethnic groups as it related to the social-normative factors that drove them to lead, but they also found that one group more positively related to affective and social-normative MTL, while the other group related to a more calculative MTL, reinforcing the antecedents forwarded by Chan and Drasgow. These results showed a strong correlation between socio-cultural factors and an individual's motivation to lead within an organization.

Luria and Berson (2013) extended prior work by examining, through two studies, the affect MTL had on formal and informal leader emergence. In the first study, the researchers were able to show positive interactions between individual's core self-evaluation, cognitive ability, and teamwork behaviors with MTL, which supported informal leadership emergence. In the second study, Luria and Berson were able to show a positive correlation between MTL and formal leadership emergence. Whether formal or informal, emergent leaders tended to be influenced by self-concept, their social skills,

as well as peer cooperation in a team environment (Luria & Berson, 2013). Therefore, the concept of self, as identified by prior studies (Amit & Bar-Lev, 2013; Chan and Drasgow, 2001) may have a direct impact on the actions related to an individual's motivation to lead and also leader emergence.

Extending the research on MTL and its relationship with self-concept, Guillén, Mayo, and Korotov (2015) explored how an individual's own standard of leadership, in the vein of implicit leadership and leader categorization theories (Lord et al., 1984), related to their motivation to lead. Guillén et al. (2015) identified two sub components of self-to-leader comparisons: self-to-exemplar, an individual's perception that they share similar traits to admired and influential leaders in their lives, which gives leadership specific and contextual meaning; and self-to-prototype, an individual's comparison to their own leadership prototype, which gives leadership a more general and normative meaning. In determining motivation to lead, Guillén et al. (2015) stated that affective MTL is an individual construct that supports the pursuit of leadership positions, shows intrinsic motivation, and facilitates leadership behaviors while in leadership positions. For this reason, in their main study, the researchers chose to only focus on the affective MTL measurement, the first nine questions of Chan and Drasgow's (2001) 27 item scale, to correlate with self-to-leader comparisons. Guillén, Mayo, and Korotov (2015) were able to show, in their main study and three follow-up studies, that both self-to-prototype and self-to-exemplar were positively related to MTL, which indicates that how individuals compare themselves with their own standards of leadership may have an impact on whether they apply for an attain leadership positions.

The correlation between an individual's positive self-view related to leadership and what motivates them to lead may, therefore, impact the number of leadership positions applied for during promotional endeavors, thus supporting people of color in becoming emergent leaders. Stanley (2014) posited that the stronger one viewed oneself as a leader the more leadership nominations one would receive, and, vice versa, the more nominations to leadership positions one received the stronger the individual's self-view would be. In development of a self-leader development model, Stanley (2014) equated a strong self-view regarding leadership with hightened self-confidence. Therefore, as concluded by Luria and Berson (2013), the ability to be self-confident, to display dominance by attaining leadership positions, and to be sociable, directly relate to the ability to emerge and be viewed as a leader. When determining whether an individual is motivated to lead, all of these constructs should be taken into consideration.

Summary and Conclusions

Various studies on racism and organizational diversity have reported numerous barriers to people of color in attaining and maintaining leadership positions (Ariss et al., 2014; Block et al., 2012; Chin, 2013; McIntosh, 2012), with a number theorizing on the difference between black and white leadership barriers (Carton, & Rosette, 2011; Rosette et al., 2008). With the large disparity between the social, economical, and organizational benefits available to people of color versus white Americans, and some say the covert nature of racism (DiTomaso, 2013; Nkomo & Ariss, 2014), there have been a number of models of inclusion (e.g., Shore et al., 2011) that have been studied and promoted as a tool that will aid in organizational diversity efforts. However, many of these tools have

been unsuccessful in changing organizational culture not only because of the pervasive and deep-seated racism within U.S. society, but also because people of color and white people alike have reinforced the leader prototype as white (Rosette et al., 2008).

The image of leadership is grounded in the implicit leadership and leader categorization theories. Although similar theories, implicit leadership theory uses the values and belief of followers as the foundation of whether a leader is effective or not (Ehrhart, 2012) and leader categorization theory relates to the match between the follower's ideal schema of a leader and the actual behaviors of a leader (van Quakuebeke et al., 2014). Therefore, the ideal leader is not only one that is perceived to be effective by followers, but also one that fits an image of a leader. These theories, when attempting to diversify leadership ranks with leaders of color, can undergird the disparity in what the ideal leader is and possibly reinforces the lack of people of color in leadership positions because the image of an ideal leader is white (Logan, 2011; Lowe 2013).

The concepts of whiteness and privilege interact within the leadership categorization process to form the white leader prototype, which is well documented to be a main barrier to people of color in attaining leadership positions (DiTomaso, 2013; Gundemir et al., 2014; Logan, 2011; Nkomo & Ariss, 2014). Further, an individual's experience of white privilege, feelings of belongingness towards the organization, and enacted racial stereotypes may influence an individual's motivation to lead. McIntosh (1988; 2012) revealed that in order to break down barriers, white people must become more conscience of the privilege that they have and enact within society and organizations. The challenge, as McIntosh stated, is many white individuals are unaware

of their privilege and how it affects others. The conscious and unconscious behaviors of white employees with U.S. organizations, therefore, have the ability to self-reinforce white male privilege and can be a detriment to others.

White males are still the predominate image of a prototypical leader within U.S. corporations and may continue to further the underrepresentation of ethnic minorities in leadership (Gundemir et al., 2014). White males maintain their position despite whiteness being perceived by others as an invisible characteristic. This dominance may inadvertently provide focus on ethnic groups within an organization, which equates people of color as having an ethnicity (Liu & Baker, 2014), and continue the leadership divide by focusing on ethnic minorities as having few leadership qualities. These stereotypes, then, are not only detrimental to the social, economic, and organizational wellbeing of people of color, but also reinforce the stereotype that white people are more competent and ambitious leaders (Block et al., 2012).

Research on the racial divide with leadership in organizations is mostly focused between the black and white employee populations. As a result, the focus of this study will continue that research by understanding what influences the motivation to lead for black individuals within the U.S. This perspective may aid in understanding how cultural stereotypes and culture-based attributions made by others may impede further diversification of organizational leadership ranks.

Filling the Gap and Extending Current Knowledge

There have been a number of studies surrounding the impact of racism and privilege on diversity within the organizational context and many theories on leadership

are present in extant literature. However, there have been no studies that have examined the effects of white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes on a individual's motivation to lead. By understanding the relationship between the aforementioned variables and an individual's motivation to lead, organizational leaders can develop a better understanding of how to incorporate learned tenets into strategies to truly diversify leadership ranks. Further, as there has been such misalignment between organizational and individual culture, this research also adds to the broader cultural literature by assisting in closing the gap between what people of color and white people value regarding the ideal leader.

Transition and Connection to Chapter 3

In this chapter, I presented various research findings, views, theories, and perspectives found in extant literature on the topic of privilege, the ideal leader, and barriers to people of color attaining leadership positions within U.S. corporations. Further analysis of the literature depicts how the variables of white privilege, feelings of belongingness towards the organization, and racial stereotypes influence an individual's motivation to lead. Discussed in chapter three is the quantitative methodology to explore the relationships between the three independent variables and the dependent variable of motivation to lead. Examined in further detail, outlined in chapter three is the research strategy to include surveys used and justification of their selection, population and sample size, as well as the research questions and associated hypotheses that are foundational to the study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative, comparative, survey study was to test critical race and leader categorization theories by examining how white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes influences the motivation to lead between black Americans and white Americans. This study will advance the understanding about how personal, organizational, and societal barriers affect a person of color's ability to assume leadership positions and will ultimately help clarify why senior leadership positions lack diversity within U.S. corporations.

This chapter includes the scales that I used to operationalize the independent variables of white privilege, organizational belongingness, and stereotypes, and a discussion of the effect they have on the dependent variable of motivation to lead, between black and white Americans. This chapter also includes a discussion of how I considered those scales reliable and valid measures for the variables. Additionally, I discuss in major sections of this chapter the research design, rationale, methodology, and potential threats to validity. Further, I will review subsections to the methodology segment regarding the populations, sample size, recruitment procedures, research instruments, data treatment, the data analysis plan, and storage methods. Finally, I discuss the ethical procedures related to the study as well as any ethical concerns related to recruitment of participants or treatment of data.

Research Design and Rationale

I used a correlational, quantitative design by employing surveys to understand the effect of the independent variables of white privilege, organizational belongingness, and stereotypes, on the dependent variable of motivation to lead. This study is deductive in nature. I deemed an experimental or quasi-experimental design inappropriate for the size and geographic diversity of the population. I operationalized the variables through existing measures. I measured white privilege through the White Privilege Attitudes Scale (WPAS) by Pinterits et al. (2009), organizational belongingness through the Psychological Sense of Organizational Membership scale (PSOM) by Cockshaw and Shochet (2010), and the effects of stereotypes through the Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals (IMABI) by Mercer, Zeigler-Hill, Wallace, and Hayes (2011). Finally, I measured the dependent variable through the Motivation to Lead Scale (MTL) developed by Chan and Drasgow (2001).

I used the abovementioned research method and instruments to determine whether or not a relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables and how significant or insignificant that relationship is for black versus white individuals. I used the instruments as a method to address a focal research question of this study and to help ascertain why people of color less likely to hold leadership positions in U.S. based organizations. This focus adds to the existing literature and the deep divide in leadership diversification is further clarified, as well as providing a new lens with which to understand the organizational leadership barriers for people of color. Using the quantitative design was not only effective in understanding the impact the study

independent variables have on the dependent variable, it was also, as mentioned by Hardigan, Popovici, and Carvajal (2016) a tool that assists in collecting specific information about a specific sample of a distinct population.

Researchers have used quantitative methodologies to understand white privilege, organizational belongingness, and stereotypes, as well as motivation to lead. While a number of studies deal with the aforementioned variables within the leadership context, no researchers have uncovered a direct link between an individual's motivation to lead and white privilege, organizational belongingness, and stereotype influences. Recent examples of quantitative studies that advanced the knowledge of the leadership diversity divide include Block et al. (2012) who conducted a study delineating the difference of white and black racial stereotypes and their effect on leadership. Also, Gundemir et al. (2014) conducted four separate studies to understand how a pro-white leadership bias can explain an underrepresentation of people of color in leadership positions. Finally, Rosch, Collier, and Thompson (2015) studied how leadership behaviors were predicted by an individual's motivation to lead. These studies are only a few examples of many that researchers continue to build upon and advance the leadership and diversity disciplines.

As previously mentioned, I deemed anexperimental design inappropriate for this study. Therefore, it was not necessary to use an intervention for this study.

Methodology

Population

The target population of this study was adult employees who racially identify as black or white across all U.S. industries and who I surveyed through SurveyMonkey's

voluntary participant pool. The SurveyMonkey website estimated the population to be over 45 million. I selected SurveyMonkey because of ease of access, the ability to conduct self-selection sampling, and to allow for anonymous responses.

Sampling Frame and Sampling Procedures

Sampling frame and power analysis. The sample frame for this study was 150 adult volunteer respondents, from U.S. industries, and drawn from the larger SurveyMonkey volunteer participant pool. I used the G*Power statistical software with one-tailed correlation parameters with an a priori type of power analysis, a medium effect size $r = .30$, an alpha $\alpha = .05$, and power = .80 (1-β). Based on the results of the calculation, the appropriate sample size from the population had to be 67 in order for the study to be statistically significant with critical $r = 0.20267$ (See Figure 2). The actual sample size for this study was 179 participants, 81 of whom identified as black and 98 of whom identified as white. The sample size exceeded the indicated G*Power calculation and was sufficient. The larger sample size accounted for incomplete survey responses, dropout respondents, and no responses.

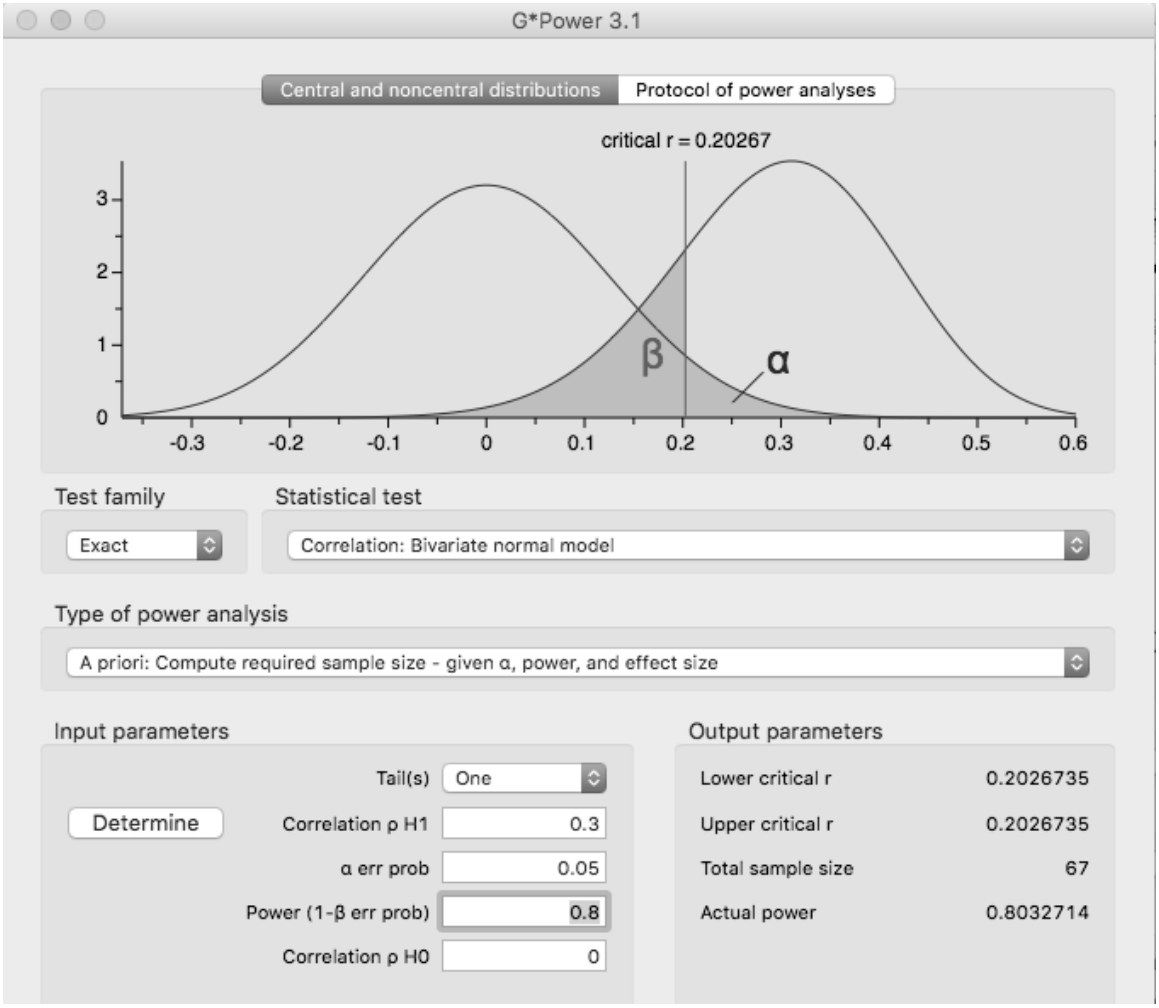

Figure 2. G*power analysis for finding required sample size.

Specific procedures for how the sample was drawn. I contacted Survey Monkey to recruit participants from their volunteer participant pool (Refer to Appendix J for SurveyMonkey permission to access respondents). I chose a self-selection sampling method to allow respondents to choose whether they would like to participate in the study due to the sensitive nature of the topic. While this type of sampling strategy may have degree of self-selection bias, the benefit is a higher level of commitment from survey participants to fully participate and complete the survey.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Recruitment and participation. I provided an online survey to SurveyMonkey who invited participants through SurveyMonkey Contribute, a database where individuals can voluntarily sign up to be survey participants. When participants sign-up, they are asked for information, which allows SurveyMonkey to match participants' information and interests to researchers' requirements. SurveyMonkey then sent the survey to those participants who match the researchers' requirements, who can self-select to participate or opt out. Participants in this study were a diverse and a fair representation of the U.S. population who have access to the internet. For each survey completed, participants were entered into a SurveyMonkey sweepstakes to win $100 Amazon gift card and have the ability to donate $0.50 to a charity of their choice.

Demographic variables that I collected during the survey process included: gender, race, and age. Nominal variables included gender (Male, Female, and another gender), race (African-American/Black, European-American/White). The ordinal variable was age, that I collected and grouped using SPSS. There were no interval or ratio variables as it relates to participant demographics.

Informed consent and data collection. Once the participant clicked on the study link contained within the email from SurveyMonkey, I provided a statement of implied consent on the first page. This statement included whom to contact if there were concerns about the participants' treatment during the survey. I also requested an acknowledgement of consent by selecting the "next" button and by clicking submit at the end of the survey. I collected data through a web survey that included four survey

instruments totaling 47 questions scored on a Likert-type scale, as well as the three demographic questions. Missing survey values were replaced by series mean data using SPSS. Finally, no names were collected through the survey instrument or at anytime during the study and responses were kept confidential.

Study exit. Study participants completed the study by selecting submit at that end of the survey. No additional follow-up procedures were necessary.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

The three independent variables of the study were white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes. The dependent variable was motivation to lead.

White Privilege. RQ1: Does white privilege affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently? White privilege, conceptually defined by McIntosh (1988), is the invisible set of unearned benefits that provide advantages to white people and support discriminatory behaviors. While other attempts have been made to measure the effects of white privilege, the white privilege attitudes scale (WPAS) was developed in 2009 by Pinterits et al. (2009) in an effort to assess the multifaceted nature of the attitudes about white privilege. To answer Research Question 2 I used the WPAS to measure white privilege. The subscale used was made up of nine questions that were scored on a 6-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). I calculated this variable by combining all scores in an average to arrive at the final score and was treated as interval data, with higher scores indicating a higher awareness of white privilege and its anticipated costs. Two of the nine items were reverse scored. Examples of the survey items are: if I were to

speak up against White privilege, I would fear losing my friends; if I address White privilege, I might alienate my family; White people have it easier than people of color.

The full WPAS has 28 questions and is broken down into four subscales: Willingness to confront white privilege (12 items), anticipated costs of addressing white privilege (six items), white privilege awareness (four items), and white privilege remorse (six items). A confirmatory factor analysis was used to test subscale correlations, and each of the four were found to be highly correlated at $p<.001$. In the development and initial validation of the WPAS, Pinterits et al. (2009) used a 2-week retest procedure that showed consistent reliability between the first test, with coefficient alphas being .91, .73, .74, and .89 for each subscale respectively, and the second test, with coefficient alpha's being .91, .83, .81, and .87 respectively, which indicated good temporal stability and good construct validity. To test Hypothesis 1, I only used the WPAS subscales of anticipated costs of addressing white privilege and white privilege awareness in this study to quantify the independent variable of white privilege and test its relationship with the dependent variable of motivation to lead. I obtained permission to use the instrument from Dr. E. Janie Pinterits (see Appendix B).

Pinterits et al.'s (2009) WPAS was used by Paone, Malott, and Barr (2015) as one scale to determine what changes happened when white students participated in an experimental, race-based course. They specifically used the WPAS to measure changes to awareness of white privilege. Kleinman, Spanierman, and Smith (2015) used the WPAS as one measure in their study to evaluate intentions of white heterosexual and nonheterosexual men to challenge white privilege by using the willingness to confront

white privilege subscale. Consistent with the WPAS initial validation scores, Kleinman, Spanierman, and Smith were able to show coefficient alphas for the subscale at above .90 for the participant groups. Another study by Todd, Suffrin, McConnell, and Odahl-Ruan (2015) used three subscales from the WPAS, willingness to confront white privilege, white privilege awareness, and white privilege remorse, to gauge attitudes toward white privilege with a diverse group of undergraduate students to understand how religious conservatism and social justice equate to in-group advantages.

Belongingness. RQ2: Do feelings of belongingness towards the organization affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently? Organizational belongingness, which is conceptually defined by Cockshaw and Shochet (2007) as "the extent to which individuals feel accepted, respected, included, and supported by others in the organisational (sic) environment" (p. 83), I operationalized through the psychological sense of organisational (sic) membership scale (PSOM), which addressed Research Question 2. Cockshaw and Shochet developed the PSOM in 2007 to assess organizational connectedness and psychological well-being (Cockshaw & Shochet, 2007). They adapted the psychological sense of school membership (PSSM) scale by respectively substituting manager/supervisor, employees, and organization where teacher, student, and school appeared in the PSSM scale.

The scale is made of 18 items, of which three, I determined, were redundant and eliminated in this study, and is scored on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) not at all true to (5) completely true. I combined the scores to create an overall average score and were treated as interval data, with a higher score representing a higher sense of

organizational belongingness. I reversed scored five items per the orginal instrument. Examples of scale items include: I feel like a real part of this organization; People in this organization are friendly to me; and, I feel proud to belong to this organization. Coefficient alpha for the PSOM was .94 and the researchers were able to show a relationship between workplace constructs and psychological wellbeing with a participant pool from employees in a disability organization. I used Cockshaw and Shochet's PSOM scale in this study to quantify the independent variable of belongingness and test its relationship with the dependent variable of motivation to lead. I obtained permission to use the instrument from Dr. Wendell Cockshaw (see Appendix D).

Cockshaw and Shochet (2010) used the PSOM again to understand the concept of workplace belongingness by assessing the relationship between organizational commitment and depressive symptoms. The coefficient alpha for this study with employees of a disability organization was .94. They were able to show that depressive symptoms and affective organizational commitment were mediated by workplace belongingness, thus extending the belongingness body of knowledge. Cockshaw, Shochet, and Obst (2013) used the PSOM with university staff to show that workplace belongingness and general belongingness are distinct concepts. These distinct concepts behave differently with depressive symptoms and they influence depressive symptoms uniquely. The study showed that individuals have a need to internalize belongingness and relate to their environment differently depending on the belongingness input. For this study, the coefficient alpha was .94. Finally, Curtis and Day (2013) used the PSOM to determine the influence specialist training had organizational belongingness. The

results of the study showed that the type of training an employee received did have a positive impact on organizational belongingness scores.

Racial Stereotypes. RQ3: *Do racial stereotypes affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently?* I measured the effects of stereotypes through understanding how microaggressions affect stress levels in black individuals. Microaggressions are defined as everyday occurrences that reinforce stereotypes and send negative messages to people of color (Mercer et al., 2011). To answer Research Question 3, stereotypes are best measured through the inventory of microaggressions against black individuals (IMABI) and the instrument initial validation has indicated that the more an individual experiences racial microaggressions, the more discrimination they can expect to experience, which reinforces stereotypes. In 2011, Mercer, Zeigler-Hill, Wallace, and Hayes developed the IMABI to measure microaggressions against black individuals, including microinvalidations and microinsults. The inventory is made up of 14 items scored on a five-point scale from zero, this has never happened to me, to four, this event happened and I was extremely upset about it. All scores are keyed in a positive direction and are combined as an average and is treated as interval data to derive a final score with higher scores representing more experiences with microaggressions. Examples of scale items include: I was treated like I was of inferior status because of my racial/ethnic background; I was followed into my store because of my race/ethnicity; and, someone asked my opinion as a representative of my race/ethnicity. By including the degree to which the respondent was upset, the researchers were able to find a positive association with microaggressions and an individual's perceived stress and general distress (Mercer

et al., 2011). Thus, this instrument tested Hypothesis 3 in order to assess if stereotypes affect black Americans differently than white Americans.

Mercer, Zeigler-Hill, Wallace, and Hayes' IMABI was used in this study to quantify the independent variable of stereotype effects and test its relationship with the dependent variable of motivation to lead. Coefficient alpha for the IMABI had a high estimate of internal consistency at .94. Relating the inventory to scores from other measures that examined psychological distress, anticipated racial discrimination, race-related stress, and anticipated racial discrimination supported concurrent validity (Mercer et al., 2011). I obtained permission to use the instrument from Dr. Sterett Mercer (see Appendix F).

Clark, Mercer, Zeigler-Hill, and Dufrene (2012) used the IMABI as one instrument to understand factors that serve as barriers to success between ethnic minority and ethnic majority students. Specifically they used the IMABI to measure racial microaggression on student experiences on campus and in the community. Coefficient alpha scores were .89 for ethnic minority students, and .80 for ethnic majority students. Davis et al. (2015) used the IMABI as part of a study to develop and validate the group forgiveness scale (GFS) and assess convergent validity. The researchers were able to show moderate correlation between the GFS and perceived microaggressions, thus providing evidence of discriminant validity. Like Mercer et al., Davis et al. were able to achieve a high coefficient alpha of .90 for their population of black students.

Motivation to Lead. The dependent variable of motivation to lead is conceptually defined by Chan and Drasgow (2001) how individual differences affect a

leader or leader-to-be's decision to apply for and/or assume leadership roles, leadership training, and whether or not those differences affect the intensity of leading or perseverance as a leader. Developed by Chan and Drasgow in 2001, the motivation to lead scale (MTL) identified three factors of MTL as affective-identity, noncalculative, and social-normative. The 27-item scale is divided evenly between the three factors and measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. I combined the scores as an average to derive a final score with higher scores representing a higher motivation to lead. Examples of scale items are: I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others; I would only agree to be a group leader if I know I can benefit from that role; and, I was taught to believe in the value of leading others.

Chan and Drasgow conducted three separate studies with the Singapore military, Singapore student, and U.S. student samples. Coefficient alphas for affective-identity MTL were .84, .87, and .91 respectively, for noncalculative MTL were .83, .80, and .84 respectively, and for social-normative MTL were .74, .65, and .75 respectively. Construct and external validity was shown by each of the three MTL factors having their own unique set of antecedents that were consistent across all three samples. I used Chan and Drasgow's affective-identity sub-scale in this study to quantify the dependent variable of motivation to lead and test its relationship with the independent variables of the study. I obtained permission to use the instrument from Dr. Kim-Yin Chan (see Appendix H).

Krishnakumar and Hopkins (2014) used the MTL scale to examine the role of emotion perception in an individual's motivation to lead. Coefficient alphas for the MTL scale were .88 overall, .87 for affective-identity MTL, .87 for noncalculative MTL, and .73 for social-normative MTL. Results show that the ability to be emotionally perceptive was significantly related to an individual's motivation to lead, and that emotional perception was more related to noncalcultative MTL than to the others. Cho, Harrist, Steele, and Murn (2015) used the MTL scale to examine the relationship the psychological antecedent of leadership self-efficacy and basic need satisfaction had on a student's MTL. Affective-identity, noncalculative, and social-normative MTL had coefficient alphas of .84, .80, and .82 respectively, showing good internal consistency. The study showed that noncalculative MTL, i.e, extrinsic motivation, was higher with males than females, with no gender differences seen for affective-identity and social-normative MTL. Further, leadership self-efficacy was shown to be a mediator between a student's basic need satisfaction and their motivation to lead.

Data Analysis Plan

I used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 24 to analyze the data. White privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes are independent variables and motivation to lead is the dependent variable. The purpose of using SPSS was to test the relationships between each of the three independent variables and the motivation to lead.

Data Cleaning and Screening

The SPSS program allows for simple data cleaning processes, which aid in identifying data with missing values. Further, SPSS allows for the transformation of survey items to be reverse coded. I used histograms to review for normally distributed data. In addition, I used scatterplots to review the relationships between variables.

Demographic Characteristics

Demographic categories include gender, race, and age. I analyzed these characteristics by a frequency distribution, which identifies the number of responses that fall into each category.

Descriptive Statistics

Central tendency descriptive statistics was used in this study to report the mean for each variable, which based on each instrument averaging the final score, the independent and dependent variables are assumed interval variables. Further, I reported the standard deviation for each variable to measure the amount of distribution. There were no ratio variables for this study.

Restatement of Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ1: Does white privilege affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently?

$H_0$1. There is positive effect or no significant difference in the effect of white privilege on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

H_a1. White privilege has a negative effect on the motivation to lead for black

Americans relative to white Americans.

RQ2: Do feelings of belongingness towards the organization affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently?

$H_0$2. There is a positive effect or no significant difference in the effect of organizational belongingness on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

H_a2. Organizational belongingness has a negative effect on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

RQ3: Do racial stereotypes affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently?

$H_0$3. There is a positive effect or no significant difference in the effect of stereotypes on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

H_a3. Stereotypes have a negative effect on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

Correlation Analysis

I employed a bivariate correlation analysis to test the relationship between two variables, specifically between each independent variable and the dependent variable. Specifically, I used a Pearson product-moment correlations coefficient (r) via SPSS to quantify the strength of association between each of the variables. The assumptions underlying of the Pearson correlation coefficient are: (a) the variables are normally distributed, (b) there is a linear relationship between the two tested variables, and (c) the

respondents are a random sampling from the population and the scores from each respondent are independent from other respondent scores (Green & Salkind, 2011).

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Once I examined the relationship between two variables through the correlation analysis, a I performed multiple linear regression analysis to understand the unique effects of the independent variables, separately or together, on the one dependent variable. The assumptions underlying a multiple linear regression are: (a) the variables are multivariately normally distributed in the population, and (b) the cases represent a random sample from the population, and the scores on variables are independent of other scores on the same variables (Green & Salkind, 2011).

Threats to Validity

Internal, External, and Statistical Validity

Threats to external validity for this study relate to situational factors, such as the scope and length of the survey instrument, survey administration, and selection-treatment interaction. I used an online webs survey to address the length of the survey instrument and survey administration. I addressed the length of the survey instrument was through the survey design on the web survey portal by using one page per topic. For instance, demographic information were on one page, questions measuring white privilege on one page, questions measuring belongingness on one page, and so on. This gives the participant the feeling they can accomplish the web survey and has been shown to be more effective in obtaining survey responses than placing all questions on one page (De Bruijne & Wijnant, 2014). I addressed the survey administration through the web survey

portal by sending invitations and reminders for completion through the web survey portal administration site. To address the threat of selection-treatment interaction, the study sample was a self-selected sample. There were no anticipated threats to internal, construct, or statistical conclusion validity.

Ethical Procedures

To protect the treatment of human participants, I was granted approval from the Institutional Review Board through Walden University (See Appendix K). SurveyMonkey Inc. granted access to SurveyMonkey's voluntary participant pool (see Appendix J). To address ethical concerns regarding the participants and recruitment materials, SurveyMonkey initiated and managed communication with the study sample, with no access to participant information by this researcher. Within the recruitment email to prospective participants was a link to the study that, when clicked, took the participant to a statement of implied consent and a reminder that participants can withdraw from the study at any time. Finally, I made a summary of the dissertation available to participants through a Google Drive private link in an effort to provide study transparency, which will increase the overall credibility of the study.

Treatment of Data. I treated the data collected from this study as both anonymous and confidential. I collected no names and all data was obtained through the web survey portal. Only I had access to the data, and the data was downloaded from the web survey portal and analyzed in SPSS. I stored the data on a USB drive specific to this research and locked in the researcher's safe. I will destroy the data, as per guidelines, five years after the study is completed and approved by Walden University.

Summary

A cross-sectional, quantitative design was used in this study to assess the relationship between the independent variables, white privilege, organizational belongingness, and stereotypes, with the dependent variable motivation to lead with individual's employed in U.S. corporations. I collected data from full and part-time employees who had no supervisory responsibility over other employees. The White Privilege Attitudes Scale, the Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals, and the Psychological Sense of Organisational (sic) Membership scale measured the independent variables. The Motivation to Lead Scale measured the dependent variable.

I collected data through an online web survey and the SPSS software was used to analyze the data. Once the study was complete I uploaded a summary of the results to the private Google Drive of the researcher for access by participants. Data collected was securely stored on a USB drive solely intended for the study and I have locked it in my person safe. I will destroy the data five years after study completion and university approval.

In this chapter I discussed the scales used to operationalize the study variables, as well as the research design, rationale, methodology, and potential threats to validity. Further discussed are the methodology subsections of population, sample size, recruitment procedures, research instruments, data treatment, and storage methods. Finally, I addressed the ethical treatment of participants as well as solutions to avoid ethical concerns. In the following chapter I will use the data collected through the research design and methodology of this chapter to test and analyze the relationship

between the independent variables and the dependent variables when comparing black and white employees in U.S. corporations.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative, comparative, survey study was to test critical race and leader categorization theories by examining how white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes affect the motivation to lead between black Americans and white Americans. The dependent variable of motivation to lead was defined as individuals motivated by the satisfaction they receive from their inner leadership drive (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). The independent variable of white privilege was defined through variables presented in the White Privilege Attitudes Scale (Pinterits et al., 2009), which included white privilege awareness and the anticipated costs of white privilege. The independent variable of organizational belongingness, measured through the Psychological Sense of Organisational (sic) Membership scale (Cockshaw & Shochet, 2007), was defined as the extent that a person feels respected, accepted, and included by co-workers in their organization. Finally, the independent variable of racial stereotypes, measured through the Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals (Mercer et al., 2011), was defined as broad group generalizations that position some groups as better than others (Embrick & Henricks, 2013) and are often seen through microaggressive behaviors (Offerman et al., 2014).

This study contained three research questions with corresponding hypotheses that examined the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

RQ1: Does white privilege affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently?

$H_0$1. There is positive effect or no significant difference in the effect of white

privilege on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

H_a1. White privilege has a negative effect on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

RQ2: Do feelings of belongingness towards the organization affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently?

H_02. There is a positive effect or no significant difference in the effect of organizational belongingness on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

H_a2. Organizational belongingness has a negative effect on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

RQ3: Do racial stereotypes affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently?

H_03. There is a positive effect or no significant difference in the effect of stereotypes on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

H_a3. Stereotypes have a negative effect on the motivation to lead for balck Americans relative to white Americans.

This chapter includes an overview of data collection strategies, including timeframe and response rates, data cleaning and screening, and sample characteristics. In addition, I will discuss the results of the statistical tests to include the general descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, multiple linear regression analysis, and hypothesis testing

through an independent samples *t*-test. Lastly, I will summarize the findings and provide a transition to Chapter 5.

Data Collection

Time Frame, Response Rates, and Sample Characteristics

The period for data collection was 1 month. As described in Chapter 3, participants were recruited from SurveyMonkey's volunteer participant pool, where they self-selected to answer the survey. There were 179 responses received, with 81 respondents identifying as black and 98 respondents identifying as white. As indicated in Table 2, the majority of participants were male and the age range was diverse. There were missing data in the responses that were determined to be incomplete surveys.

Table 2

Demographic Profile of Participants

Gender	Count	%
Male	82	45.80
Female	59	33.00
Missing	38	21.20
Total	179	100.00
Ethnicity	**Count**	**%**
Black	81	45.30
White	98	54.70
Total	179	100.00
Age	**Count**	**%**
18-24	6	3.30
25-34	26	14.50
35-44	33	18.40
45-54	35	19.60
55-64	31	17.30
65 and older	11	6.20
Missing	37	20.70
Total	179	100.00

Study Results

Descriptive Statistics

The mean, standard deviation, and Cronbach's Alpha for each scale used in the study are presented in Table 3. Generally, alpha scores of .65 or higher are acceptable when attempting to show internal reliability of an instrument (Vaske, Beaman, & Sponarski, 2017). The Cronbach's Alpha scores for all instruments had good to excellent internal consistency. White privilege showed the highest standard deviation (.94). Organizational belongingness, however, presented the lowest standard deviation (.68) when compared to the other variables, (i.e., white privilege, racial stereotypes, and motivation to lead).

Table 3

Mean, Standard Deviation, and Cronbach's Alpha for Study Variables

Variable	Mean	Standard deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
White privilege	3.19	.94	.80
Organizational belongingness	2.66	.68	.90
Racial stereotypes	1.03	.93	.94
Motivation to lead	3.15	.75	.87

Note: Cronbach alpha scores indicated all items have high internal consistency.

Statistical Assumptions Evaluation

Two statistical tests were used in this study to not only understand the strength of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, but also to understand whether or not the independent variables are predictors for the dependent variable. Through SPSS, Pearson's product-moment correlation (*r*) was used to measure the strength of the relations between the variables and multiple linear regression analysis was used to determine whether the independent variables were predictors of the dependent

variables. Before the statistical tests were completed, I evaluated the data for missing values, outliers, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity.

First, the data were examined for missing values. One hundred and seventy-nine respondents answered 47 quantitative questions for a total of 8,413 Likert-type responses, without the three demographic questions. There were 974 missing responses from the survey, which represented 12% of the total possible. In examining the data set, it appeared that respondents dropped out at different times during the course of the survey. I replaced missing data through the series mean method in SPSS.

Next, I examined the data for outliers. Variable histograms (Figure 3) did not reveal obvious outliers therefore I examined outliers statistically. I listed the results of that analysis in Table 4 and showed the white privilege variable as having one upper bound outlier.

Table 4

Outlier Upper and Lower Limits and Extreme Values

Variable	Lower bound	Upper bound	Min	Max
White privilege	5.61	.82	1.00	6.00
Organizational belongingness	5.24	.16	.24	4.00
Racial stereotypes	4.23	-2.44	.00	4.00
Motivation to lead	5.86	.46	1.00	5.00

Note. There was one upper bound outlier for white privilege.

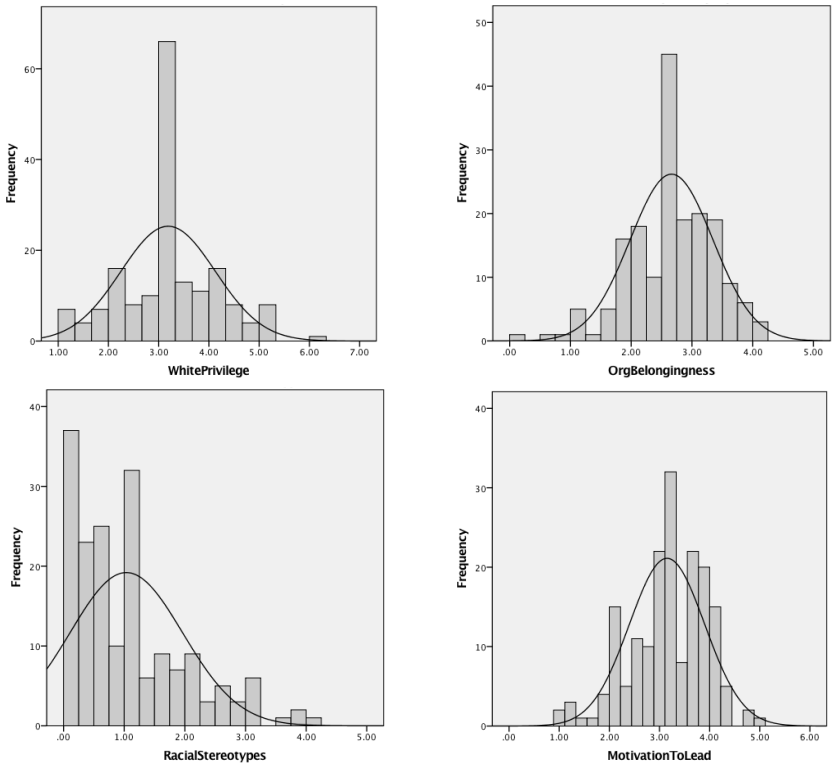

Figure 3. Histograms of data set.

Third, I conducted tests of normality through histograms (Figure 3), Q-Q plots (Figure 4), and by statistically validating with the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality (Table 5).

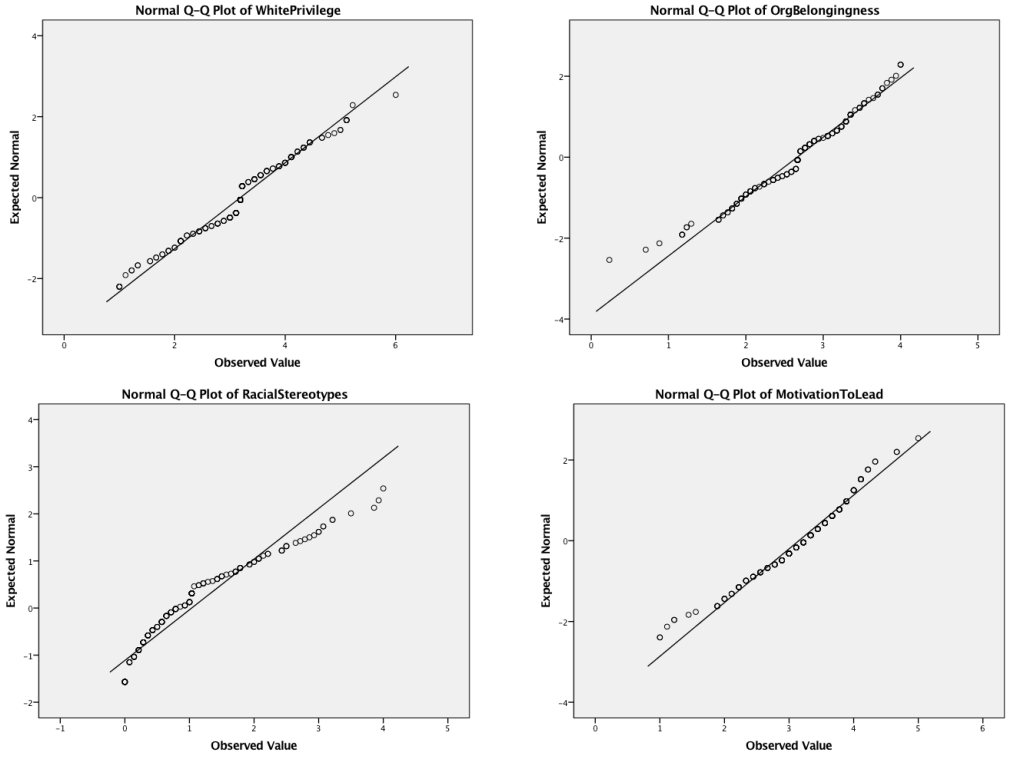

Figure 4. Q-Q plots for data set.

The Q-Q plots appeared to follow a linear pattern and suggested that the data were normally distributed. However, in conducting the Shipiro-Wilk test of normality, the *p* values showed values less than .05, consequently the null hypotheses presuming normally distributed data was rejected. Therefore, I concluded that the responses were not from a normally distributed population.

Table 5

Shipiro-Wilk Test of Normality

	Shapiro-Wilk	
	Statistic	Sig.
WhitePrivilege	.97	.00
OrgBelongingness	.97	.00
RacialStereotypes	.89	.00
MotivationToLead	.97	.00

Next, to understand the linear relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable, I employed a scatterplot. White privilege and racial stereotypes appeared to be positively and linearly related to motivation to lead, while organizational belongingness looked to have a negative linear relationship with motivation to lead.

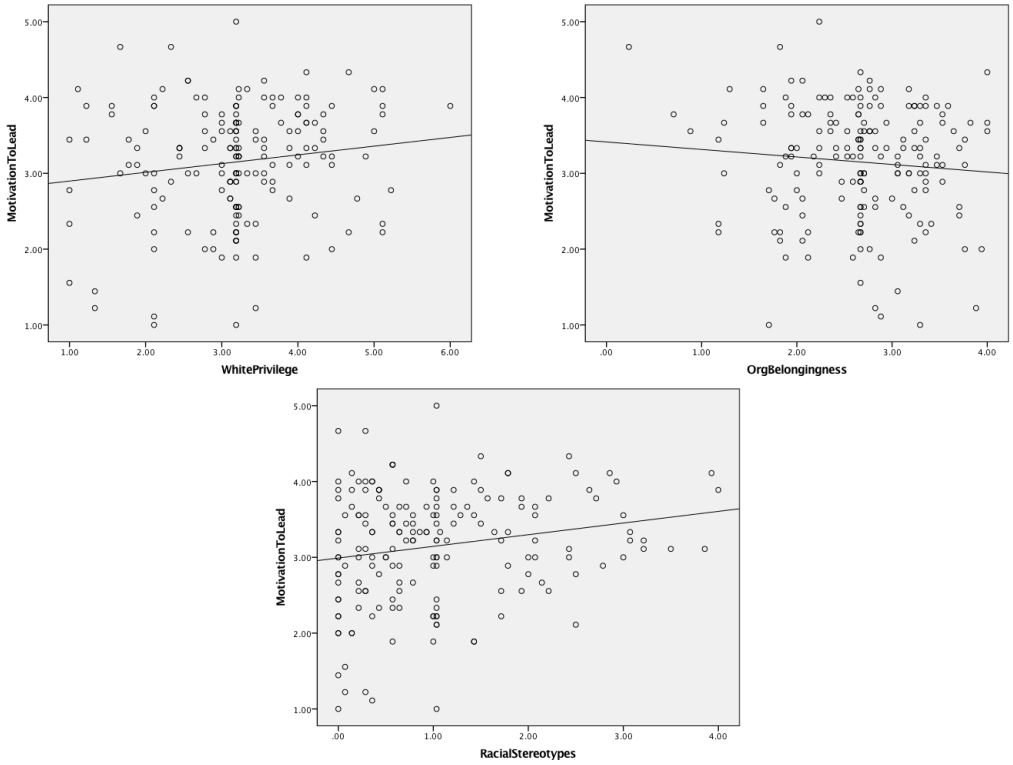

Figure 5. Scatterplot of the data set.

Finally, I examined homoscedasticity by a scatterplot for the regression model with one axis for predicted scores and one axis for the standardized residuals (Figure 6). The results appeared not to support the assumption of homoscedasticity.

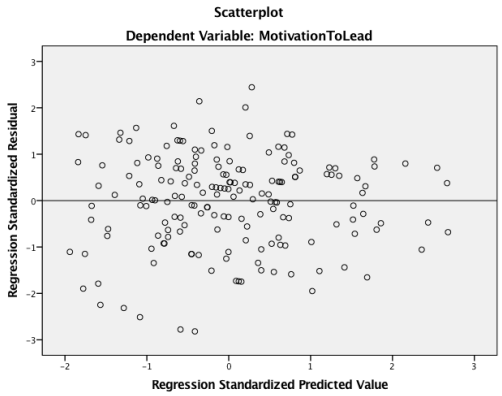

Figure 6. Scatterplot indicated the assumption of homoscedasticity was not supported.

Correlation Analysis

I processed a Pearson's product-moment correlation among the four scales on data for 179 participants to ascertain the relationship among white privilege, organizational belongingness, racial stereotypes, and motivation to lead. As Table 6 indicates, there were statistically significant and positive correlations between white privilege and motivation to lead ($r = .14$, $p < 0.05$) and between racial stereotypes and motivation to lead ($r = .19$, $p < 0.01$), while organizational belongingness was negatively related to motivation to lead.

Table 6

Correlation Matrix of Study Variables

	White privilege	Org belongingness	Racial stereotypes	Motivation to lead
White privilege	1			
Org belongingness	.02	1		
Racial stereotypes	.38**	.07	1	
Motivation to lead	.14*	-.09	.19**	1

Note. **Pearson correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). *Pearson correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

I performed a standard multiple linear regression analysis to assess the ability of white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes to predict an individual's motivation to lead. An R^2 of .05 (Table 7) indicated that 5% of the variance of motivation to lead (DV) is explained by white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes (IVs). Additionally, a significant regression equation was found, *F*

(3,175) = 3.25, p = .02 (Table 8), which allowed for the rejection of the null hypotheses. Further, the regression coefficient table (Table 9) indicates that the effects of racial stereotypes significantly predict an individual's motivation to lead, while the other independent variables do not.

Table 7

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.23[a]	.05	.04	.74

a. Predictors: (Constant), RacialStereotypes, OrgBelongingness, WhitePrivilege

Table 8

ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.30	3	1.77	3.25	.023[b]
	Residual	95.18	175	.54		
	Total	100.48	178			

a. Dependent Variable: Motivation To Lead

b. Predictors: (Constant), Racial Stereotypes, Org Belongingness, White Privilege

Table 9

Regression Analysis

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	3.10	.29		10.77	.00	2.53	3.67
	White privilege	.07	.06	.08	1.05	.30	-.06	.19
	Org belongingness	-.11	.08	-.10	-1.39	.17	-.27	.05
	Racial stereotypes	.13	.06	.17	2.08	.04	.01	.26

Dependent Variable: Motivation To Lead

Hypotheses Testing

In order to test the hypotheses, I took the combined data set and split it into a black respondent data set ($N = 81$) and a white respondent data set ($N = 98$). Once I split the data sets into two independent samples, I processed a Pearson's product-moment correlation to understand the relationship among white privilege, organizational belongingness, racial stereotypes, and the motivation to lead and how those relationships may or may not be different for black and white individuals. As indicated in Table 10, there were statistically significant and positive correlations for the black respondent independent sample between white privilege and motivation to lead ($r = .20$, $p < 0.05$) and between racial stereotypes and motivation to lead ($r = .25$, $p < 0.05$), while organizational belongingness was not significantly and was negatively related to motivation to lead. Presented in Table 11 is a significant and positive correlation

between racial stereotypes and motivation to lead ($r = .18$, $p < 0.05$) and no significant correlations between white privilege and organizational belongingness with the motivation to lead for the white respondent independent sample.

Table 10

Correlations for the Black Population

	White privilege	Org belongingness	Racial stereotypes	Motivation to lead
White privilege	1			
Org belongingness	.11	1		
Racial stereotypes	.43**	.24*	1	
Motivation to lead	.20*	.03	.25*	1

Note. **Pearson correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). *Pearson correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Table 11

Correlations for the White Population

	White privilege	Org belongingness	Racial stereotypes	Motivation to lead
White privilege	1			
Org belongingness	-.02	1		
Racial stereotypes	.19*	-.10	1	
Motivation to lead	.11	-.15	.18*	1

Note. *Pearson correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Finally, I used Fisher's *Z*-transformations to analyze and compare the correlations for both independent samples to test each of the study's hypotheses (Table 12). There was not enough evidence to conclude the alternative hypotheses 1a, 2a, and 3a and thus the null hypotheses for 1o, 2o, and 3o were retained.

Table 12

Fisher's Z-Transformations

	Fisher's *r*-to-*z* transformations
Comparison of black respondents with white respondents and white privilege with motivation to lead	Retain null hypothesis $z = .60$ one-tailed $p = .2743$
Comparison of black respondents with white respondents and organizational belongingness with motivation to lead	Retain null hypothesis $z = 1.19$ one-tailed $p = .117$
Comparison of black respondents with white respondents and racial stereotypes with motivation to lead	Retain null hypothesis $z = .48$ one-tailed $p = .6312$

Note. *Fisher's *r*-to-*z* transformations significant at .05 level.

Sensitivity Analysis

As shown in Table 12, the results from Fisher's *Z*-transformations indicated that each of the study's null hypotheses should be retained. Therefore, I thought it prudent to run a sensitivity analysis by using the original sample data set with missing values to understand if there were any differences in the results with the replaced missing values data set used in the prior analyses. To conduct similar testing, I deleted the missing values (N = 38) and the combined data set was split into a black respondent data set ($N = 64$) and a white respondent data set ($N = 77$) (see Table 13). Once I split the data sets, I processed a Pearson's product-moment correlation to understand the relationship among white privilege, organizational belongingness, racial stereotypes, and the motivation to lead and how those relationships may or may not be different for black and white Americans.

The results of the sensitivity analysis showed that the original combined data set with missing values correlation analysis (Table 14) showed similar positive significance scores as the first correlation analysis with replaced missing values (Table 6) as it related to the relationship with white privilege ($r = .16$, $p < 0.05$) and racial stereotypes ($r = .21$, $p < 0.01$) to an individual's motivation to lead. However, when examining the missing values split samples' correlation analyses (Tables 15 & 16) with that of the replaced values split samples' correlation analyses (Tables 10 & 11) there was no significant relationship between white privilege and motivation to lead for either black or white respondent groups. There was, however a significant and positive relationship between racial stereotypes and motivation to lead for both the black ($r = .27$, $p < 0.05$) and white respondent groups ($r = .26$, $p < 0.05$). Finally, I conducted Fisher's *Z*-transformations (Table 17) with the missing data two independent samples to understand whether there was any change in the original analysis. The analysis confirmed the original findings that each of the study's null hypotheses should be retained.

Table 13

Missing Values Sample Demographic Profile of Participants

Gender	Count	%
Male	82	45.80
Female	59	33.00
Missing	38	21.20
Total	179	100.00
Ethnicity	Count	%
Black	64	35.80
White	77	43.00
Missing	38	21.20
Total	179	100.00
Age	Count	%
18-24	6	3.30
25-34	26	14.50
35-44	33	18.40
45-54	35	19.60
55-64	31	17.30
65 and older	11	6.20
Missing	37	20.70
Total	179	100.00

Table 14

Missing Values Sample Correlation Matrix for Combined Population

	White privilege	Org belongingness	Racial stereotypes	Motivation to lead
White privilege	1			
Org belongingness	-.01	1		
Racial stereotypes	.40**	-.08	1	
Motivation to lead	.16*	.02	.21**	1

Note. **Pearson's correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). *Pearson's correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Table 15

Missing Values Sample Correlations for the Black Population

	White privilege	Org belongingness	Racial stereotypes	Motivation to lead
White privilege	1			
Org belongingness	-.18	1		
Racial stereotypes	.45**	-.28*	1	
Motivation to lead	.16	.11	.27*	1

Note. ** Pearson's correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed). *Pearson's correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Table 16

Missing Values Sample Correlations for the White Population

	White privilege	Org belongingness	Racial stereotypes	Motivation to lead
White privilege	1			
Org belongingness	.05	1		
Racial stereotypes	.17	-.03	1	
Motivation to lead	.12	-.02	.26*	1

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Table 17

Missing Values Sample Fisher's Z-Transformations

	Fisher's *r*-to-*z* transformations
Comparison of black respondents with white respondents and white privilege with motivation to lead	Retain null hypothesis $z = .24$ one-tailed $p = .4052$
Comparison of black respondents with white respondents and organizational belongingness with motivation to lead	Retain null hypothesis $z = .75$ one-tailed $p = .2266$
Comparison of black respondents with white respondents and racial stereotypes with motivation to lead	Retain null hypothesis $z = .06$ one-tailed $p = .9522$

Summary and Conclusion

The purpose of Chapter 4 was to analyze the relationship between white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes with an individual's motivation to lead. I hypothesized that white privilege would have a negative effect on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans. I also hypothesized that organizational belongingness would have a negative effect on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans. Finally, I hypothesized that racial stereotypes would have a negative effect on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

To test the hypotheses, I split the aggregated sample into two independent samples, black and white respondents, from the data set that had replaced missing values. A correlation analysis of those independent samples showed a weak positive correlation

between white privilege and motivation to lead ($p < 0.05$) as well as racial stereotypes and motivation to lead ($p < 0.05$) for the black population, as well as a weak positive correlation between racial stereotypes and motivation to lead ($p < 0.05$) for the white population. Additionally, there was insufficient evidence to reject each of the three null hypotheses after conducting Fisher's *Z*-transformations to compare the independent samples' correlations.

To increase the robustness of the findings, and to reduce uncertainty, I conducted a sensitivity analysis was with the original data set that showed missing values. Results of the correlation analysis showed that racial stereotypes were positively and significantly related to motivation to lead for both the black and white populations, while white privilege and organizational belongingness were not significantly related to motivation to lead for either population. Finally, I conducted Fisher's *Z*-transformations on the missing value data set and confirmed the original findings that the null hypothesis should be retained. Table 18 summarizes whether the null hypotheses was retained or rejected for each hypotheses.

Table 18

Summary of Null Hypotheses Test Results

Null hypotheses	Description	Retain/reject
$H_0$1	There is positive effect or no significant difference in the effect of white privilege on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.	Retain
$H_0$2	There is a positive effect or no significant difference in the effect of organizational belongingness on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.	Retain
$H_0$3	There is a positive effect or no significant difference in the effect of stereotypes on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.	Retain

In Chapter 5, I will discuss the interpretation of research findings, limitations of the study, and my recommendations for further research. I will also review implications for diversity practitioners and positive social change.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Chapter 5 includes a review of five main topics: a general discussion and interpretation of the findings; the limitations of the study; recommendations for future research; implications for researchers, diversity practitioners, and for positive social change; and, conclusions. The purpose of this quantitative, comparative, survey study was to test critical race and leader categorization theories by examining how white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes affects the motivation to lead between black Americans and white Americans. The study was based on three research questions: (a) Does white privilege affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently, (b) Do feelings of belongingness towards the organization affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently, and, (c) Do racial stereotypes affect the motivation to lead of black Americans and white Americans differently? While there is significant literature on each of the study variables, there is still considerable research needed on how white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes affect an individual's motivation to lead.

There was no supporting evidence in this study that indicated black individuals experience white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes differently than their white counterparts. In the replaced values correlation analysis, there was support of a positive relationship between white privilege and an individual's motivation to lead, as well as racial stereotypes and motivation to lead for the black population; organizational belongingness had no statistically significant relationship.

However, through a sensitivity analysis I found that only racial stereotypes and motivation to lead were significantly and positively correlated for the black population.

Additionally, in the replaced values correlation analysis there was a significant relationship between racial stereotypes and motivation to lead for the white population and no significant relationship between white privilege, organizational belongingness, with an individual's motivation to lead. Similar to the black population, the sensitivity analysis indicated that there was a significant and positive relationship between racial stereotypes and the motivation to lead.

Interpretation of the Findings

White Privilege

Peggy McIntosh introduced the concept of white privilege, which described white people as having an invisible backpack of resources that can be used knowingly or unknowingly to position advantage (McIntosh, 1988). Moreover, whiteness and maleness have intersected within American corporations to create and maintain privileged power structures in the image of white men (Lowe, 2013; Eagly & Chin 2010). This formation of leadership in the image of the white man has reinforced the leadership prototype as white and male (Nkomo & Ariss, 2014), which has created barriers that prevents people of color from advancing into leadership positions (Rosette et al., 2008) and created an unequal balance of race within U.S. corporate leadership (Gundemir et al., 2016).

Using leader categorization and implicit leadership theories, I examined whether or not white privilege affected an individual's motivation to lead comparing black

Americans to white Americans. I presented evidence through the original correlation analysis of this study that showed there was a weak, positive relationship between white privilege and motivation to lead. However, there was no supporting evidence, when comparing the correlation coefficients of the black and white independent samples from the WPAS (Pinterits, et al., 2009), to indicate that white privilege affected an individual's motivation to lead differently for the two independent samples. Thus, there was no support for the hypothesis that white privilege has a negative effect on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans.

Organizational Belongingness

Baumeister and Leary (1995) developed the belongingness theory and posited that individuals need to belong in order to thrive. Shore et al. (2011) extended belongingness theory into the workplace with their inclusion framework and stated that if leaders were more inclusive, then employees would perform better and have higher trust in leaders and the organization itself. In this study, I hypothesized that organization belongingness had a negative effect on the motivation to lead for black Americans relative to white Americans. There was no support for this hypothesis; organizational belongingness not only had no statistically significant relationship with motivation to lead, but there was also no statistically significant difference in the correlation coefficients between the black and white populations on the psychological sense of organisational (sic) membership scale by Cockshaw and Shochet (2007).

Racial Stereotypes

Racial stereotypes disproportionately represent people of color more negatively than white people, and even when stereotypes are applied to both races, stereotypes are more psychologically, economically, and socially damaging for people of color relative to white individuals (Embrick & Henricks, 2013). Critical race theory (Crenshaw, 2011) combines race, law, and power to provide a lens through which to understand race, class, and gender in the United States, which contextualizes the leader/follower interaction with race in the workplace. This interaction can involve racial epithets, stereotypes, slurs, and most recently microaggressions that cloud efforts toward a fully inclusive workplace. These negative interactions with stereotypes can have a negative effect on an individual's psychological response to situations and reinforce inequalities within organizations (Czopp et al., 2015).

The present study illuminated a weak, positive relationship between racial stereotypes and motivation to lead for both the black and white populations. However, there was no supporting evidence, when comparing the correlation coefficients of the black and white independent samples from the inventory of microaggressions against black individuals (Mercer et al., 2011), to indicate racial stereotypes affected an individual's motivation to lead differently for the two independent samples. These results did not support the hypothesis that racial stereotypes have a negative effect on black Americans compared to their white American counterparts.

Limitations of the Study

While the present study has contributed to the literature around the relationship of white privilege, organization belongingness, racial stereotypes, and motivation to lead, there were five limitations to this study. First, this study relied on cross-sectional data to test the hypotheses. Because of this, I was not able to draw any conclusions of causality, but only to show whether the variables were related. Second, data collection was through self-selection sampling as well as self-reported measures, which may present threats to validity because participants may have chosen to complete the survey because they aligned with the topic and their responses may not truly be reflective of their feelings about the topic. Another limitation related to the sample size. If there had been more time for data collection, more than 179 respondents could have been included, which would have allowed for broader generalizability to the population. Fourth, this study was narrowly focused to black and white racial groups and excluded other races. The study may have benefitted by being more inclusive of how the variables interacted with other races. Lastly, this study would have benefitted from a more balanced black (45%) to white (55%) sample ratio.

Recommendations

Since no other studies have examined the effects of white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes on an individual's motivation to lead, there is potential for future research to expand on this study through experimental research to ascertain if white privilege and racial stereotype experiences cause an individual to be more or less motivated to lead. Another recommendation for future

research would be to expand the population being examined from black to other ethnic groups of color. Further, while there was no evidence to support that organizational belongingness had a relationship with an individual's motivation to lead, further research is needed to understand what role organization belongingness has in an individual's decision to apply for leadership positions. Past research has shown that individuals feel more comfortable with leadership when they feel included within organizations (Shore et al., 2011). It might also be interesting to research the differences between the nonleaders surveyed in this study, with those already in leadership positions to see if the effect of white privilege and racial stereotypes on an individual's motivation to lead is different, especially with communities of color. Finally, future research can be done to understand if there are differences how male and female respondents of color may interact with white privilege and racial stereotypes with motivation to lead, as this was beyond the study boundaries.

Implications

The results of this study indicated that there is still much to be discovered in their field of diversity and inclusion related to understanding barriers to leadership for individuals of color. While there is opportunity to continue this research for scholars, there is much to learn for not only diversity practitioners, but also those wishing to make positive social change within an organization as well as society.

Implications for Researchers

My goal for the present study was to close a gap in the literature related to how white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes affect a person of

color's motivation to lead. By focusing on the black population, the most studied race in the literature, there is potential to take findings from this study recreate the study for other ethnic populations. Very little has been uncovered in the literature related to the exact combination of variables' effects (i.e., white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes) on an individual's motivation to lead. By uncovering a relationship between white privilege and racial stereotypes with motivation to lead, researchers can use this study to further diagnose race relations within the diversity and leadership fields. Finally, as mentioned in study limitations, researchers can use this study as a basis to broaden the participant pool to other races to either confirm or reject that the study hypotheses work within other racial groups.

Implications for Diversity Practitioners

Diversity practitioners are continually looking for ways that will help illuminate why there are fewer leaders of color in U.S. corporations. In some instances, however, white diversity practitioners may be unaware of the white culture that shapes the organizational diversity paradigms in which they work (McIntosh, 2015). This study places a spotlight on the differences between black Americans and white Americans, and factors that influence motivation to lead in order to emphasize how white culture may cause there to be fewer leaders of color.

While the results of this study showed no significant difference between the effect of white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes on the black and white populations' motivation to lead, in the original analysis there was a significant positive correlation between white privilege and racial stereotypes with motivation to

lead among black Americans. Additionally, I found a significant positive correlation between racial stereotypes and the motivation to lead for the white population in the original analysis. The study results may provide insight to organizational diversity practitioners in having a deeper understanding of barriers to diversifying leadership ranks with people of color. By acknowledging and addressing white privilege and racial stereotypes in the workplace, there is potential for diversity practitioners to close a gap between how people of color and white people view the ideal leader, as well as develop and target inclusionary programs to increase the numbers of leaders of color.

Implications for Positive Social Change

The impetus for conducting this research related to a central question. Why are there fewer leaders of color in U.S. corporations? In my view, the selection and promotion of people of color into leadership positions continues to be a challenge in today's organizations. Galinsky et al. have shown that recruitment, selection, and promotion are directly affected by organizational diversity. This initial issue developed into the study variables and questions examined throughout the research. Ultimately, although there was not sufficient evidence to support the hypotheses of the present study, it is evident in organizations that real barriers exist that inhibit black employees from holding leadership positions. Further, because privilege, race, and stereotypes are often intertwined, this study helped to delineate the variables as distinct constructs that interact with one another separately. Finally, by focusing on factors that inhibit leaders of color to be successful, diversity practitioners can redirect the focus in understanding how to

enable the success of leaders of color, which can contribute to positive social change at the organizational level.

It is interesting to note that the WPAS was designed to test the attitudes of white individuals regarding white privilege. This study used a portion of the full WPAS--the anticipated costs of addressing white privilege subscale and the white privilege awareness subscale--to understand how the WPAS scores of the black population correlated to motivation to lead differently than their white counterparts. Because white privilege was significantly and positively correlated for the black population, and it was not for the white population, it may mean that black individuals have a keener sense of the costs of addressing white privilege and have a sharper awareness about white privilege. Further, as indicated in Chan and Drasgow's (2009) original research, this difference between the two populations may mean that as white people are discovering their privilege, there may be some avoidance happening while they learn about the nature of privilege and oppression.

Further, akin to the abovementioned, while both black and white populations had significant and positive correlation scores between racial stereotypes and motivation to lead, the black population scored higher. This is not a surprising result in that the IMABI was an instrument designed to test microaggressive and racist behaviors experienced by black individuals. I used the IMABI to test both black and white populations. The fact that both populations scored similarly indicates that while the black respondents' experiences with racial stereotypes affect their motivation to lead, so does it affect the motivation to lead for the white respondents. This may mean that the white respondents

are aware of the microaggressive and racist behavior that happen in day-to-day life and there could be an opportunity to engage allies in creating a more fair and equitable work environment.

Concluding Remarks

In this study, I explored the relationship of white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes and motivation to lead. Empirical results showed that white privilege and racial stereotypes were linearly related to motivation to lead, while organizational belongingness was not. However, there was no statistically significant support that white privilege, organizational belongingness, and racial stereotypes predicted black American's and white American's motivation to lead differently. Although I found some of the study results to be counterintuitive, and regardless of the results, it is my foundational belief if organizations are to become more racially diverse within leadership ranks, it will be important for diversity practitioners to acknowledge, educate, and address strategies to lessen the effects of white privilege and racial stereotypes for people of color. Further, as noted by Festekjian, Tram, Murray, Sy, and Huynh (2014), it may be important to highlight leaders of color so racial minorities see others like them in leadership positions, which may inspire a leadership career track. While this study extends prior research on white privilege and racial stereotypes in organizations, I addressed a gap in the literature by positively and significantly relating white privilege and racial stereotypes with black American's motivation to lead from the initial analysis. Further research is needed, however, to understand if the variables used in this study are relevant predictors for other racial groups as it was for black Americans.

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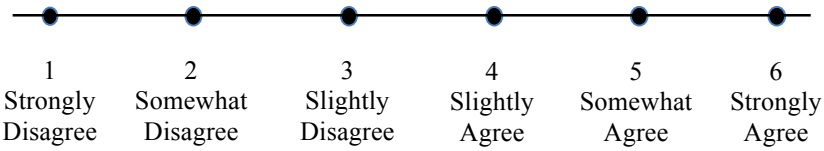
Appendix A: White Privilege Attitudes Scale



1. I am anxious about stirring up bad feelings by exposing the advantages that Whites have.
2. If I were to speak up against White privilege, I would fear losing my friends.
3. I am worried that taking action against White privilege will hurt my relationship with other Whites.
4. If I address White privilege, I might alienate my family.
5. I am anxious about the person work I must do within myself to eliminate White privilege.
6. Everyone has equal opportunity, so this so-called White privilege is really White-bashing. (R)
7. White people have it easier than people of color.
8. Our social structure system promotes White privilege.
9. Plenty of people of color are more privileged that Whites. (R)

Note. (R) = Reverse scored.

Appendix B: Permission for the White Privilege Attitudes Scale

Dr. E. Janie Pinterits

December 3, 2016

Dr. Pinterits,

I am a doctoral student in the School of Management at Walden University specializing in leadership and organizational change. I am conducting a study to fulfill the dissertation requirement of the doctoral degree and plan to collect my data in January, 2017 and I am contacting you to request permission to gain access to and include the White Privilege Attitudes Scale for use in my study.

My research is an attempt to examine the relationships between an individual's motivation to lead with organizational belongingness, racial stereotypes, and white privilege. This study is consistent with the IRB guidelines for using human subjects and employee participation will be voluntary. The proposed sample population is 150 employees from U.S. corporations.

If you have further questions or need clarification about the study, please contact me. I appreciate your assistance in helping me with the project and will be happy to provide you with an executive summary of the study finding if you are interested.

Thank you for your attention and support.

Alexander Vaughan-Bonterre

Janie Pinterits Mon, Dec 5, 2016 at 10:39 AM
To: Alexander Vaughan-Bonterre

Greetings Alexander:

Thanks for your interest in the WPAS. Your study sounds very worthwhile. I'm attaching a copy of the scale and a scoring key. If you do indeed decide to collect data with the WPAS, I have a request. In keeping with my ethical obligations to monitor the use and continued development of the scale, I'd like you to eventually send me information on your sample, scale reliability and descriptive statistics of the

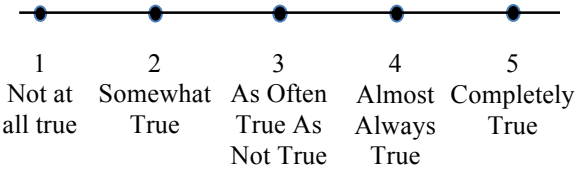
data you collect. I would also value your feedback.

If you have any further questions or if I can be of assistance in any way regarding the WPAS, please feel free to contact me.

Good luck with your study,

Janie

Appendix C: Psychological Sense of Organisational Membership Scale



1. I feel like a real part of this organization.
2. People here notice when I'm good at something.
3. It is hard for people like me to be accepted here. (R)
4. Other people in this organization take my opinions seriously.
5. Sometimes I don't feel as if I belong here. (R)
6. There's at least one supervisor/manager in this organization I can talk to if I have a problem.
7. People in this organization are friendly to me.
8. Managers/supervisors here are not interested in people like me. (R)
9. I am treated with as much respect as other employees.
10. I feel very different from most other employees here. (R)
11. I can really be myself in this organization.
12. The managers/supervisors here respect me.
13. People here know I can do good work.
14. I wish I were in a different organization. (R)
15. I feel proud to belong to this organization.

Note. (R) = Reverse scored.

Appendix D: Permission for the Psychological Sense of Organisational Membership Scale

Dr. Wendell Cockshaw

June 12, 2016

Dr. Cockshaw,

I am a doctoral student in the School of Management at Walden University specializing in leadership and organizational change. I am conducting a study to fulfill the dissertation requirement of the doctoral degree and plan to collect my data in Fall of 2016. I am contacting you to request permission to gain access to and include the Psychological Sense of Organisational Membership for use in my study.

My research is an attempt to examine the relationships between an individual's motivation to lead and organizational belongingness. This study is consistent with the IRB guidelines for using human subjects and employee participation will be voluntary. The proposed sample population is 150 employees from a large utility company located in the western United States.

If you have further questions or need clarification about the study, please contact me. I appreciate your assistance in helping me with the project and will be happy to provide you with an executive summary of the study finding if you are interested.

Thank you for your attention and support.

Alexander Vaughan-Bonterre

Wendell Cockshaw Mon, Jul 4, 2016 at 6:57 PM
To: Alexander Vaughan-Bonterre

Hi Alexander,

Just noticed your email was tagged as spam - apologies for slow response.

Best of luck in your research.

Kind Regards,

Wendell

I have CCed my new email address

Appendix E: Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals

0 – This has NEVER HAPPENED TO ME
1 – This event happened but I was NOT UPSET
2 – This event happened and I was SLIGHTLY UPSET
3 – This event happened and I was MODERATELY UPSET
4 – This event happened and I was EXTREMELY UPSET

1. I was made to feel that my achievements were primarily due to preferential treatment based on my racial/ethnic background.

2. I was treated like I was of inferior status because of my racial/ethnic background.

3. I was treated as if I was a potential criminal because of my racial/ethnic background.

4. I was made to feel as if the cultural values of another race/ethnic group were better than my own.

5. Someone told me that I am not like other people of my racial/ethnic background.

6. Someone made a statement to me that they are not racist of prejudiced because they have friends from different racial/ethnic backgrounds.

7. I was mad to feel like I was talking too much about my racial/ethnic background.

8. When successful, I felt like people were surprised that someone of my racial/ethnic background could success.

9. Someone assumed I was a service worker or laborer because of my race/ethnicity.

10. I was followed in a store due to my race/ethnicity.

11. Someone reacted negatively to the way I dress because of my racial/ethnic background.

12. Someone asked my opinion as a representative of my race/ethnicity.

13. Someone told me that they are not racist or prejudiced even though their behavior suggests that they might be.

14. Someone told me that everyone can get ahead if they work hard when I described a difficulty related to my racial/ethnic background.

Appendix F: Permission for the Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals

Dr. Sterett H. Mercer

December 3, 2016

Dr. Mercer,

I am a doctoral student in the School of Management at Walden University specializing in leadership and organizational change. I am conducting a study to fulfill the dissertation requirement of the doctoral degree and plan to collect my data in January, 2017 and I am contacting you to request permission to gain access to and include the Inventory of Microagressions Against Black Individuals for use in my study.

My research is an attempt to examine the relationships between an individual's motivation to lead with organizational belongingness, racial stereotypes, and white privilege. This study is consistent with the IRB guidelines for using human subjects and employee participation will be voluntary. The proposed sample population is 150 employees from U.S. corporations.

If you have further questions or need clarification about the study, please contact me. I appreciate your assistance in helping me with the project and will be happy to provide you with an executive summary of the study finding if you are interested.

Thank you for your attention and support.

Alexander Vaughan-Bonterre

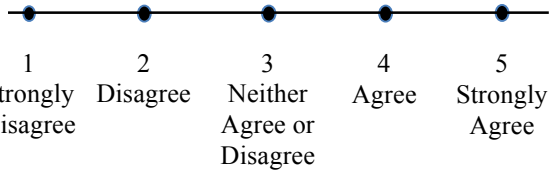
Mercer, Sterett Sun, Dec 4, 2016 at 6:00 PM
To: Alexander Vaughan-Bonterre

Dear Alexander,

It is fine to use the IMABI. Best wishes for your study.

Sterett

Appendix G: Motivation to Lead Scale



1. Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group.
2. I am the type of person who is not interested to lead others. (R)
3. I am definitely not a leader by nature. (R)
4. I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others.
5. I believe I can contribute more to a group if I am a follower rather than a leader. (R)
6. I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in.
7. I am the type who would actively support a leader but prefers not to be appointed as leader. (R)
8. I have a tendency to take charge in most groups or teams that I work in.
9. I am seldom reluctant to be the leader of a group.

Note. (R) = Reverse scored.

Appendix H: Permission for the Motivation to Lead Scale

Dr. Kim-Yin Chan

December 3, 2016

Dr. Chan,

I am a doctoral student in the School of Management at Walden University specializing in leadership and organizational change. I am conducting a study to fulfill the dissertation requirement of the doctoral degree and plan to collect my data in January, 2017 and I am contacting you to request permission to gain access to and include the Motivation to Lead scale for use in my study.

My research is an attempt to examine the relationships between an individual's motivation to lead with belongingness, racial stereotypes, and white privilege. This study is consistent with the IRB guidelines for using human subjects and employee participation will be voluntary. The proposed sample population is 150 employees from U.S. corporations.

If you have further questions or need clarification about the study, please contact me. I appreciate your assistance in helping me with the project and will be happy to provide you with an executive summary of the study finding if you are interested.

Thank you for your attention and support.

Alexander Vaughan-Bonterre

Chan Kim Yin Sat, Dec 3, 2016 at 2:37 PM
To: Alexander Vaughan-Bonterre

Hi Alexander,

Thank you for your interest in my MTL research and questionnaire. You have my permission to us the 27-item MTL scale from my original 2001 JAP paper. Attached is the original measure (JAP2001_MTL_LSE_scale.pdf) with scoring instructions.

You may however wish to know that since then, I have adapted the MTL measure to

include in a broader framework of Entrepreneurial, Professional and Leadership (EPL) motivations which may be more useful for helping one to understand Leadership motivation RELATIVE to professional motivations -- this is particularly relevant to workplace contexts. Consider this... if Trump were probably higher in Entrepreneurial-_Leadership motivation, Hilllary was probably more a Professional Leader in her motivation. The EPL measure also contains items selected from the original 27 item MTL scale. This was published in a JVB paper in 2012 (see attached). You have my permission to use the 27-item EPL scale from my JVB paper as well.

Note however that the MTL scale were designed more for STUDENTS… and I am now working with Prof Ringo Ho to adapt the EPL measure (which includes 9 of the original MTL items) for working adults, which we are now piloting in Singapore. Given that you are planning to collect data from corporations, you may wish to take a look at our latest EPL scale for working adults. Let us know [note: I am copying this email to Prof Ringo who is running the pilot study for working adults].

Good luck!

Kim CHAN
Singapore

Appendix I: Demographic Characteristics

Responses to these demographic questions will be used to generally describe the characteristics of survey respondents. This information will be kept confidential and will not be used to identify individual respondents.

What is your gender? ☐ Male ☐ Female ☐ Another gender

What is your race/ethnicity?
☐ African-American/Black ☐ European American/White

What is your age? _____

Appendix J: SurveyMonkey Permission

SurveyMonkey

SurveyMonkey Inc.
www.surveymonkey.com

For questions, visit our Help Center
help.surveymonkey.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, a copy of which is available on our website.

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 K: Institutional Review Board Approval

Dear Mr. Vaughan-Bonterre,

This email is to notify you that the Institutional Review Board (IRB) has approved your application for the study entitled, "Relationships between White Privilege, Organizational Belongingness, Racial Stereotypes, and Motivation to Lead."

Your approval # is 12-27-16-0292099. You will need to reference this number in your dissertation and in any future funding or publication submissions. Also attached to this e-mail is the IRB approved consent form. Please note, if this is already in an on-line format, you will need to update that consent document to include the IRB approval number and expiration date.

Your IRB approval expires on December 26, 2017. One month before this expiration date, you will be sent a Continuing Review Form, which must be submitted if you wish to collect data beyond the approval expiration date.

Your IRB approval is contingent upon your adherence to the exact procedures described in the final version of the IRB application document that has been submitted as of this date. This includes maintaining your current status with the university. Your IRB approval is only valid while you are an actively enrolled student at Walden University. If you need to take a leave of absence or are otherwise unable to remain actively enrolled, your IRB approval is suspended. Absolutely NO participant recruitment or data collection may occur while a student is not actively enrolled.

If you need to make any changes to your research staff or procedures, you must obtain IRB approval by submitting the IRB Request for Change in Procedures Form. You will receive confirmation with a status update of the request within 1 week of submitting the change request form and are not permitted to implement changes prior to receiving approval. Please note that Walden University does not accept responsibility or liability for research activities conducted without the IRB's approval, and the University will not accept or grant credit for student work that fails to comply with the policies and procedures related to ethical standards in research.

When you submitted your IRB application, you made a commitment to communicate both discrete adverse events and general problems to the IRB within 1 week of their occurrence/realization. Failure to do so may result in invalidation of data, loss of academic credit, and/or loss of legal protections otherwise available to the researcher.

Both the Adverse Event Reporting form and Request for Change in Procedures form can be obtained at the IRB section of the Walden website:
http://academicguides.waldenu.edu/researchcenter/orec

Researchers are expected to keep detailed records of their research activities (i.e., participant log sheets, completed consent forms, etc.) for the same period of time they retain the original data. If, in the future, you require copies of the originally submitted IRB materials, you may request them from Institutional Review Board.

Sincerely,

Libby Munson
Office of Research Ethics and Compliance