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Racial Attitudes in the Workplace Among Age Groups of African American Women

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Abstract

Racial Attitudes in the Workplace Among Age Groups of African American Women

by

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Abstract

Limited research exists on the impact of racial attitudes upon varying age groups of

African American women in the workplace. The factors of conformity, dissonance,

resistance, and internalization among African American women of accumulated negative

experiences may affect their performance in the workplace. The purpose of this

comparative descriptive quantitative study was to use the PRIAS and OCB scales to

examine the impact of generational status and racial attitudes on organizational

citizenship behavior in a sample of African American women. The study was guided by

the theoretical framework of Ajzen's theory of planned behavior. Participants in the study

consisted of individuals in Generation Y (aged 21-34), Generation X (aged 35-49), and

the Baby Boomer generation (aged 50-64). Two survey instruments guided this study: the

People of Color Racial Identity Attitude Scale (PRIAS) and the Organizational

Citizenship Behavior Checklist (OCB-C). MANOVA and multiple regression were the

statistical data analysis procedures that provided results for the 2 research questions

guiding this study. The results showed statistically significant differences in racial

attitudes among varying age groups of African American women in the workplace; Baby

Boomers scored highest across the measures and Generation X scored lowest. Key

themes related to this study were racial attitudes, self-identity, self-efficacy, racial bias,

and stress-related issues. Organizations that have a limited minority workplace

population will benefit from this study because workplace productivity can increase

through positive interventions, awareness, and advocacy for positive change.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Schuman, Steeh, Bobo, and Krysan (1997) defined the phrase *racial attitude* as the way members of a race feel about themselves based on learned experience, trends, or the voiced or perceived interpretation of others. Often, negative experiences encountered during adolescent years can result in a negative self-image, increasing an adult's perception of workplace discrimination or negative attitudes of others toward them (Schuman et al., 1997). The factors of conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization among African American women may affect their performance in the workplace. These factors may also be perceived differently by each woman, depending on the age of each woman, as racial attitudes may differ among generational age groups. These attitudes can affect not only an African American woman's self-perception, but can also influence the way an African American woman perceives society's attitudes toward her and her own self-efficacy in the workplace. Mechanisms for coping with discrimination and the perception of racial attitudes can also differ depending upon the age of the woman.

African American women are exposed to a higher risk of abuse, promiscuity, and racial stereotypes in the environments in which they grow, live, and work than non–African American women (Howard, Wang, & Yan, 2007). Negative experiences encountered during adolescent years often result in a negative self-image, which affects these women's experiences in the workplace when encountering perceived discrimination. In turn, workplace discrimination reinforces a prescient negative self-image. These interactive factors can affect organizational citizenship behavior, defined as

the behavior and beliefs that individuals display in the workplace. Perceived discrimination can result in workplace inefficiency and negatively impact worker productivity and organizational success. The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore whether a significant relationship existed between age and conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization as assessed by the People of Color Racial Identity Scale (PRIAS) in a sample of African American women. I examined how these variables were related to organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as measured by the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Checklist (OCB-C; Fox & Spector, 2009).

Chapter 1 contains a discussion of the background of the problem, a statement of the problem and purpose of the study, and a statement of the significance of the research results. The research questions and related hypotheses are detailed, and the methodological nature of the study, the theoretical framework and assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of the study are summarized. Relevant terminology is defined.

Background of the Problem

Organizations consist of groups of individuals who perform different tasks in pursuit of a common goal (Robbins & Judge, 2014). OCB scholars are concerned with how individuals or groups work together, and they focus on processes with which to manage organizations and groups, as well as the processes used to accomplish work. People often perform the necessary tasks of their jobs regardless of how they feel about the workplace. In the case of low OCB, a group of people rally against the norm as a protest to negative treatment. Leaders with knowledge about organizational citizenship

behavior can efficiently and effectively manage their organizations, including the individuals within them and the interaction of the organizations with the environment within which they exist (Robbins & Judge, 2014).

African American women in the workplace bring conformity, dissonance, immersion/resistance, and internalization of their life experiences into the paradigm of organizational citizenship behavior. Conformity, the first scale, is used to measure the resistance, denial, or coping mechanisms associated with unawareness of societal perception and its relevance in racial dynamics. Dissonance, the second scale, is used to measure the confusion and disorientation that occurs when racial dynamics are in the consciousness or awareness of individuals. Immersion/resistance, the third subscale, is used to measure physical and psychological withdrawing into a person's own racial/ethnic group. Internalization is used to measure the integration of positive own-group racial identification with the capacity to appreciate the positive aspects of European Americans (Helms, 1995). There are four factors that constitute racial attitudes: conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization.

OCB is often a product of a person's ability to express and communicate effectively to achieve social and professional interactions that arise from conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization of life experiences. Johnson (2002) determined that studying individual perception and its role in society can reveal how people perceive reality. One person's reality consists of various internal and external factors, but the same internal and external factors may result in a different sense of reality for another person. Herek (2000) argued that individual perception can influence allegiance with others and

overall self-perception, both of which are elements of OCB. Perception affects the way in which an individual is able to cope with cultural context, societal demands, and expectations, of which racial attitudes are a prominent motivator.

An urgency to fulfill many roles affects the way that many African American women cope with racial identity, racial attitudes, and workplace demands, often at the expense of their psychological or physical health (Woods-Giscombe, 2010). Many African Americans are plagued with internal and external oppressive thoughts and lack self-efficacy that may be channeled into the work environment (Evans-Winters & Esposito, 2007). A lack of self-efficacy can have multiple consequences that may impact workplace productivity, which can result in discrimination based on poor performance (Bates, 2007).

Without the benefit of insights into how African American racial attitudes and age influence their attitudes and self-efficacy, organizations may be poorly informed and unable to provide supportive work environments that optimize the satisfaction and effectiveness of African American women. It is important to determine how ethnic attitudes can increase workplace satisfaction and productivity (Blanchard et al., 2003).

Statement of the Problem

There is a lack of knowledge related to racial attitudes and age and their relationship with conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization among African American women in the workplace. The study of OCB provides a construct that enables workplace behavior to be measured and related to racial attitudes and how they impact workplace attitude and workplace productivity (Robbins & Judge, 2014). Little research

has been conducted on the interaction of racial attitudes among African Americans in the workplace; how they influence self-efficacy; and how they are related to conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization of life experiences. In addition, there is less research on the impact that age has on racial attitude and self-efficacy. The absence of research may be limiting the efficiency and productivity of organizations, as a portion of the workforce may not be experiencing workplace satisfaction.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the quantitative study was to explore the racial attitudes of African American women working in the United States, and how their racial attitudes may differ among varying age cohorts. In addition, I wished to reveal what influence, if any, age has on racial attitudes. A quantitative method with a survey questionnaire design was implemented, in which the OCB-C and PRIAS survey instruments were distributed to a convenience sample. I also used a short demographic survey to establish a picture of the sample population. The results may provide insights into existing relationships between racial identity and self-efficacy, as well as into any moderating effect age might have on the interaction of these variables.

There is minimal research into existing relationships between generational status and its impact on racial attitudes. Cameron and Turner (2010) noted the importance of understanding and implementing multicultural inclusion to maintain diverse policies and practices. The insights gained from the study will address an existing gap in the body of organizational psychology literature related to racial attitudes and self-efficacy and will provide practitioners with insights into African American women employees that may

help to optimize organizational effectiveness. Dowe (2016) addressed the political strength of African Americans; a strong political presence has the capability to change laws, policies, and regulations politically and professionally for African American women in the workplace.

Korn and Burztyn (2002) contended that it is important for researchers and employers to rethink and reflect on understanding multicultural sensitivity. Through the understanding of multicultural sensitivity, organizations can place value on the relevance of ethnicity and racial attitudes in the workplace. Although there are numerous articles related to racial injustice, discrimination, and stereotypes and racial disparities that African American women face, there are fewer articles on how the difference in age among African American women affects racial attitudes in the workplace. Many scholars have addressed the medical, socioeconomic, and physical challenges that African American women face in society; however, researchers have not addressed the negative personal perceptions many African American women face that affect their self-image, self-esteem, psychological health, well-being, and racial attitudes about themselves. In this study, I addressed inward perceptions and not societal perceptions. Furthermore, most scholars address racial bias and the perception of outside influences concerning racial attitudes without addressing how the inward perception of racial attitudes among African American women in the workplace may differ depending on generational status. Previous researchers have often addressed the racial attitudes of European Americans toward African Americans; however, there is limited research on racial attitudes that are inwardly expressed among varying age groups of African American women in the

workplace. Carter and Dowe (2015) addressed the continuance of racial disparity and stereotypes in exposing racial bias among non–African American counterparts who identified Barack Obama as an exception to the perceived minority image in what was referred to as "racial exceptionalism." There is little research on racial attitudes among varying age groups of African American women in the workplace, which makes this study and others like it significant.

Significance of the Study

The results of this study will contribute to research in organizational development by addressing the limited base of literature related to racial attitudes and age among African American women. The results of the study may increase awareness that organizational culture can be more inclusive of African American women and offer insights into how best to accomplish it. For organizational development practitioners, the results may provide insights to improve practice, including an increase in ethnic-focused interventions in the workplace. By studying racial attitudes, ethnicity, and age in the workplace, practitioners can rethink multicultural awareness, which can improve efficacy of employment policies and ultimately, productivity.

Nature of the Study

The quantitative study was an exploration of correlations between racial attitudes and self-efficacy in the workplace. I also examined any influence that age might have on this relationship among African American women. This quantitative study with a survey instrument design was conducted using a convenience sample of 208 African American women working in public sector jobs. The generational divides were defined as

Generation Y (ages 21-34), Generation X (ages 35-49), and the Baby Boomer generation (ages 50-64).

Participants were solicited online using the Research Market Audience tool from SurveyMonkey (2010), a secured web-based service for researchers. A link to the letter of invitation and consent form was sent electronically to the sample population. A prior sample size determination was calculated using a G Power 3 analysis. Details of the power analysis are found in Chapter 3.

After reviewing and completing an informed consent form, the participants completed three instruments: the PRIAS, the OCB-C, and a short demographic survey. Both the PRIAS and the OCB-C have been validated and are in general use. The OCB-C served as the dependent variable, racial attitudes was the independent variable, and generational status was the independent variable. Following data collection, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.0 software was used to complete the statistical analysis portion of the study.

Multiple linear regression provides a predictive model that reflects the proportion of the variability in the dependent variable of OCB-C that can be attributed to the four subscales of the PRIAS: conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization. Through the regression analysis, the significant predictors were highlighted, along with a correlation matrix assessing the interrelationships among the variables. MANOVA was used to analyze significant differences in generational status on conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization.

Research Question and Hypotheses

The central research question that guided the study was the following:

RQ: For African American women in the workforce, is there a difference by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in the racial attitudes conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization as assessed by the PRIAS?

To provide a framework for a focused study of the influence of generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) on racial attitudes and the predictive model for citizenship comprised of conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization, the following subquestions have been developed:

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization, as assessed by the PRIAS, by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace?

$H_0 1$: There is no significant difference in conformity by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_a 1$: There is a significant difference in conformity by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_0 2$: There is no significant difference in dissonance by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_a 2$: There is a significant difference in dissonance by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_0 3$: There is no significant difference in resistance by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

H_a3: There is a significant difference in resistance by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

H_04: There is no significant difference in internalization by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

H_a4: There is a significant difference in internalization by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

Dependent variable: conformity, dissonance, resistance, internalization; Independent variable: generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation Y).

RQ2: Among a sample of African American women, are conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization, as measured by PRIAS, predictors of citizenship behavior, as measured by the OCB?

H_02: Conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization are not predictors of citizenship behavior.

H_a2: Conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization are significant predictors of citizenship behavior.

Dependent variable: citizenship behavior; Independent variables: conformity, dissonance, resistance, internalization.

A structured view of the two subquestions, related variables, and statistical technique used to test each question is provided in Table 1. For RQ1, a MANOVA was used to analyze multiple DVs to determine if generational status influenced conformity,

dissonance, resistance, and internalization. For RQ2, a multiple regression of analyses

was run to determine if conformity, resistance, dissonance, and internalization were

predictors of citizenship behavior.

Table 1

Research Questions With Related Methodological Components

Question	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Statistical Technique
RQ1	Generational Status	Conformity Dissonance Resistance Internalization	MANOVA
RQ2	Conformity Dissonance Resistance Internalization	Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Multiple Regression

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical foundation underlying a study is an interrelated set of concepts

organized into a deductive system intended to explain relationships about certain aspects

of the world (Hutchison, 2003). Babbie (2008) stated that the theoretical framework of a

study explains the reasons why a problem exists, and Cone and Foster (2006) stated that a

theoretical framework is the foundation of the study. The theoretical framework of a

study provides guidelines to follow for data collection and analysis (Shank, 2006).

In this study, I used behavioral patterns and neo-analytic concepts to maximize

the recognition of the minority female perspective. Hanson (2006) asserted that, although

there are challenges that many minority women confront, there is little evidence of

historical or psychological recordings that credit their challenges. Richardson (2006)

concluded that increased historical and psychological insight into the challenges and struggles of women of color and their psychological and emotional infrastructure are conceptualized in terms of family, career, self, and community. Without credible research, this insight can become discredited if psychological advancement and workplace understanding is excluded from research and workplace practice.

The theoretical framework chosen for this study was the theory of planned behavior. The theory of planned behavior is associated with the reasons why people make certain choices and what internal or external social pressures or factors influence their decision making (Ajzen, 2006). The theory of planned behavior is used to study attitudes and what subjective norms impact them. The theory applies to basic belief systems and attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behaviors in different areas (Ajzen, 2006). Three kinds of situations that control human behavior, as proposed by Ajzen (2006), are shown in Figure 1.

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Figure 1. Ajzen's theory of planned behavior.

As shown in Figure 1, normative beliefs are the normal expectations people have of others and are motivated to comply with, behavioral beliefs are those that people believe have outcomes that are subject to evaluation, and control beliefs are those that often aid or reduce the manifestation of behaviors and their perceived power. Given a sufficient degree of control over a behavior, people can carry out expected intentions when an opportunity arises. Ajzen (2006) defined intentions as the immediate antecedent of

behavior and argued that so long as a perceived behavioral control is valid, it acts as a proxy for control, which can contribute to the prediction of the behavior in question. According to Ajzen's theory of planned behavior, a person's belief system determines that person's behavior. Given these concepts, my examination of the ability of African American women to control or modify their racial attitudes in a workplace environment was based on the theory of planned behavior.

Assumptions

Research assumptions, as defined by Leedy and Ormrod (2005), are self-evident truths encompassing the research process. The validity of the results of a study is based on the assumption that the participants will answer the survey questions accurately, honestly, and to the best of their individual abilities (Mujis, 2011). It was assumed that the two surveys implemented in this study to gather data would accurately measure the concepts intended by the questions, and that the demographic survey would capture sufficient pertinent data about the participants to provide a picture of the sample population. It was assumed that I would be unbiased and collect, evaluate, and report data and determine findings in an unbiased and ethical manner.

Limitations

Due to cost, availability, and time, convenience sampling was used. Convenience sampling allows for the selection of people who are available to take the questionnaire in a single-testing procedure (Mujis, 2011). Because a homogeneous population was used, convenience sampling was most effective. Convenience sampling is a nonprobability method of sampling that may impact validity due to the lack of measurable differences in

probability. Although it may be appropriate to apply the results to the study population, the results may not accurately portray all African American women, particularly those in rural parts of the United States. Unknown variables in the study may have affected the outcome.

Delimitations

Delimitations of a study are characteristics that limit the scope of the inquiry as determined by the conscious exclusionary and inclusionary decisions that are made throughout the development of the study (Creswell, 2009; Mitchell, Wirt, & Marshall, 1986; Mujis, 2011). Thus, the population and sample were defined using inclusion and exclusion criteria. Limitations of age range, geography, racial background, and employment setting were all delimitations that I imposed to keep the scope sufficiently narrow. In the scope of this study, I addressed the hypotheses and discussed the theoretical foundation on which this study was based.

Definition of Terms

Definitions are provided to ensure clear meanings of terms and phrases in a study to avoid discrepancy (Mujis, 2011; Neuman, 2003). Creswell (2009) stressed the importance of identifying constructs to increase a shared understanding of a phenomenon. The following operational definitions apply to the language in the study:

Cognition: Cognition is the ability to think or process information (Lazarus, 1991).

Coping mechanism: A coping mechanism is the way in which a person handles or perceives various situations (Greer, 2011).

Cultural synergy: Cultural synergy is the ability to work together in the workplace, regardless of race, background, or ethnicity (Hughes & Dodge, 1997).

Discrimination: Discrimination is defined as favoring one group or race unjustifiably among others (Bates, 2007).

Gender role: Gender role is the role an individual perceives, displays, or accepts based on familial or societal expectations or traditions based on gender (Thomas, Speight, & Witherspoon, 2008).

Minority: A minority is defined as a racial, political, racial, or ethnic group that is in less than the majority of the larger population and or larger group (Greer, 2011).

Neo-analytic: Neo-analytic is defined as the compassionate whole of understanding logic (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB): OCB is defined as an individual's voluntary and willing desire to perform workplace tasks that go beyond his or her assigned contractual duties (Organ, 1990).

Perception: Perception is defined as a person's ability to understand information through senses or awareness (Gibson & Abrams, 2003).

Racial: Racial is defined as sharing similar traits of a shared ancestry or culture (Musil & Standing, 2007).

Racial attitudes: Racial attitudes are defined as attitudes about race that divide or link a culture demographically or culturally (Helms, 1995).

Self-identity: The self-image or personal reflection in which a person views him or herself (Wyche, 2010).

Self-efficacy: Self-efficacy is the strength of how a person believes he or she can obtain a goal or outcome (Helms, 1995).

Stereotype: A stereotype is a generalization concerning a group or situation (Feather & Boeckmann, 2007).

Stress: Stress is the pressure or burden of emotional or physical strain (Perez, Voelz, Pettit, & Joiner, 2002).

Workplace: A workplace is the occupational environment or career in which a person secures for gainful employment (Gerstein, Rountree, & Ordonez, 2007; Miller & McWhirter, 2006).

Summary

Racial attitudes are formed from multiple influences, and they may affect self-efficacy in the workplace. This chapter contained an overview of the study, which was designed to explore the relationship between racial attitudes and self-efficacy among African American women in the workplace. I also examined whether age had any moderating influence on the relationship. Chapter 1 also provided an overview of the study and an explanation of the problem. The purpose of the study and research questions were presented, as well as the nature of the study, the assumptions, limitations, and delimitations. Also included in this chapter was a statement of significance of the results and relevant terminology.

Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature related to racial attitudes with an emphasis on how these variables function in the workplace for African American women.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Various psychological and environmental challenges impact the interaction between African American women and others in the workplace. There is a gap in the literature about the varying belief systems related to biases and other social injustices experienced by minority women in the workplace. There is also a lack of research on how conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization in response to these negative experiences among African American women may affect their performance in the workplace. These factors may also be perceived differently depending on the age of each woman because racial attitudes may differ among generational age groups. Personal racial attitudes can affect not only African American women's self-perceptions but also the way African American women perceive society's attitudes toward them.

The ability to succeed in family and workplace relationships is emphasized through awareness, self-efficacy, and recognizing a person's role in society. However, there is little research pertaining to age and the impact that stress upon minority women in the workforce has on families, communities, and overall racial identity or self-efficacy. Moore (2006) established that the memories and experiences learned throughout childhood impact the psychological and social well-being of minorities throughout life.

Documentation

A perusal of peer-reviewed sources, journal articles, and documents provided a review of past and present studies related to this study's topic. Databases that were reviewed included Academic Search Complete, EBSCO Business Source Complete, SocINDEX Full Text, PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, ProQuest, and Thoreau Multi-

Database. The reviewed sources provided the framework for the scope of the study, as well as the contents of Chapter 2. The inquiry spanned 212 books, peer-reviewed articles, and scholarly websites. Key words that were searched in the combined databases included *racial attitudes, discrimination, stereotypes, inequality in the workplace, organizational development, gender role, motivation in the workplace, self-image, minority perception, self-efficacy, generational status, minorities and age, minority bias, minority commitment, dissonance, conformity, employee resistance, citizenship behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, motivational behavior, African American women, racial perception,* and *minority advancement*.

Historical Overview

Minority women have encountered social barriers, myths, and injustices throughout history (Moore, 2006). Dunbar (2001) recommended counseling practices to minimize harassment and discriminatory practices in workplace environments. Dunbar indicated that a systematic approach to reduce social barriers works best to decrease discrimination. Coupled with a therapeutic setting, such an approach can ameliorate social alienation in the workplace. To conquer the misgivings that African American women may have about seeking counseling, Nicolaidis et al. (2010) advocated that historical and psychological barriers as well as upbringing must be addressed. However, Nicolaidis et al. failed to address the long-term repercussions that historical discrimination and perception have had on immediate social discrimination. Gay (1999) posited that slavery and sexual myths concerning African American women still cause emotional trauma because of their association with slavery and misconceptions.

Franklin (2000) addressed historical legends and challenges in reviewing the impact of the Civil Rights Movement and the advantages and disadvantages of the movement for African American women in the workplace. Rosette and Dumas (2007) discussed the pressure on African American women to conform to hair acceptance norms. Rosette and Dumas did not provide insight into whether hair assimilation is a barrier to obtaining employment among lower income African American women, or even those who make higher salaries. Armstrong (2006) recommended using personal experiences, testimonies, and narratives through qualitative means to provide insight into the challenges and victories that impact women of color. In this study, I explored the racial attitudes of African American women working in the United States and how racial attitudes may differ among varying age groups, using a quantitative method with a survey questionnaire design implemented through distribution of the OCB-C and PRIAS survey instruments.

Theory of Planned Behavior

Using the theory of planned behavior, Blanchard et al. (2008) observed that ethnicity may impact attitudes and perceived behavioral control among African American college students and their European American counterparts regarding physical activity and health. Blanchard et al. further indicated that attitude toward maintaining physical activity and physical health is lower among African American college students. Although Blanchard et al. provided information on the importance of understanding ethnic attitudes, they did not address how other internal or external factors could impact the desire to maintain a healthy exercise regime. Shen, Rinehart-Lee, McCaughtry, and Yi

(2012) found that as African American girls get older, their participation in physical education declines. Shen et al. ascertained that lack of support and unfavorable attitudes impact the way in which African American high school girls engage in physical education. Shen et al. declared that despite health benefits, unrealistic expectations related to body image, motivation, and perception lead to the decrease in participation of African American females in any physical education activities.

Peters and Templin (2010) described the importance of incorporating the theory of planned behavior when looking at factors that motivate individuals. Peters and Templin acknowledged that the way in which an individual perceives goals impacts the way in which he or she deals with stress and health care. Further confirming the effect of motivation in achieving short- and long-term benefits, Davis, Ajzen, Saunder, and Williams (2002) addressed the attitudes and behaviors formulated by African American students related to completing high school. Using the theory of planned behavior, Davis et al. determined that early intervention and understanding of ethnic attitudes among African American students can improve the perceived expectations and consequences of short- and long-term goals.

Blanchard et al. (2003) identified how ethnic attitudes impact the value that individuals place on health, and found that attitudes related to health can be studied by understanding differences in ethnicity. Incorporating the theory of planned behavior, Blanchard et al. studied the attitudes of African American and European American undergraduate students about health and wellness. However, Blanchard et al. did not

provide an in-depth view of what coping practices African Americans might use when there are no interventions.

Nehl et al. (2009) found that African American students were more likely to have higher smoking intentions than their European American counterparts. Nehl et al. argued that the usage of the theory of planned behavior may help in understanding how differences in ethnicity impact the way African American students view smoking habits. Nehl et al. also suggested that an increase in ethnic-focused interventions should be addressed when understanding planned and unintentional behavior.

African American Racial Attitudes, Development, and OCB

Duff (1993) studied how important it is to optimize organizational citizenship behavior in the workplace. Duff confirmed that to increase diversity, organizations should recognize personal achievement as a motivating tool for minorities to decrease the incidence of workplace dissatisfaction. However, Duff did not address what factors motivate personal achievement. Triana, Kim, and Garcia (2011) recommended encouraging OCB among minorities in the workplace by understanding how to recognize each individual's personal value and acceptance of diversity.

Subasic, Schmitt, and Reynolds (2011) proposed that OCB increases when workplace social justice is present and practiced. Although Subasic et al. affirmed the need to increase social change and positive workplace behavior, there was little information on how organizations can go about doing so. Nor did Subasic et al. address how social injustices that are prevalent in and outside of the workplace impact racial attitudes and social identity. Lara (2012) noted weaknesses in the social identity theory

when fostering an understanding of racial multiculturalism and group identity. Lara argued that the social identity theory is only one segment and not the entire picture of minority attitudes in the workplace. Thau and Aquino (2008) contended that minority employees, unlike their European American counterparts, are programmed to accept interpersonal discrimination and social injustice in the workplace because they are often exposed to negative outcomes throughout their daily personal and professional lives.

Racial Attitudes in the Workplace: A Minority Perspective

Feather and Boeckmann (2007) stressed the importance of applying humanistic approaches and individualized incentives when recognizing diversity and acceptance in the workplace. For instance, studying the impact of age discrimination and the effect that decreased promotions have on job satisfaction and organizational development can be hindered in the presence of discrimination between genders and related affirmative action issues (Feather & Boeckmann, 2007). Age discrimination can also be studied through analysis, examination, and group analysis concerning attitudes in the workplace. Feather and Boeckmann addressed the impact of culture, age, and workplace discrimination and stereotypes.

Rodriguez (2006) addressed hardships and challenges that many minority women face in society and the workplace, which can become stress indicators. Rodriguez produced narratives that addressed self-efficacy, identity issues, and how society's perceptions influence the image of women of color. Rodriguez noted the importance of using qualitative approaches to address factors that confront women of color; however, although the research was inclusive of women ages 21 years and older, it pertained only

to those on an undergraduate college campus, which eliminated women in the workforce who had no degree, were entrepreneurs, or were pursuing a graduate degree.

Studies of African American women in the workplace have been mixed and lack a definitive picture. Hutchinson and Condit (2009) found that the perception of community service should be redefined in advocating policy-making among African American women. Hutchinson and Condit noted the importance of reinventing the image of the modern public servant, yet did not delve into entrepreneurship among African American women in the workplace. Harvey (2008) addressed the economic opportunity for African American women in any socioeconomic income bracket to improve social, personal, and financial development through entrepreneurship in the hair industry. Yet, Harvey did not address entrepreneurship opportunities afforded to African American women not interested in the hair industry. Rubenstein (2001) determined that continued social change and advocacy could encourage the advancement of entrepreneurship among African American women beyond hairdressing. Burlew and Johnson (1992) argued that career development increases advancement and professional awareness and creativity among African American women, thus increasing productivity and entrepreneurship accessibility and advancement. However, Burlew and Johnson did not provide a comprehensive picture of the African American woman in the workplace.

African American women's experiences in overcoming bias, racism, and social injustices can be analyzed through more comprehensive research, critical thinking, and heightened awareness. Using various measurements, multimode approaches, and empirical studies, the authors in this literature review examined outcomes and varying

factors that relate to workplace attitudes and societal perceptions impacting racial identity and stress indicators among women of color in the workplace. Implementing surveys, statistics, personal experiences, and the use of various graphs and scatter plots, the authors were able to express the psychological, mental, and physical health results that impact the gender and racial attitudes of women of color in the workplace. In this study of conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization as assessed by the PRIAS and the OCB-C and generational status, I will contribute to the body of knowledge on this topic.

Counseling and Mentoring in the Workplace

Evans and Cokley (2008) found that career awareness and opportunity increase through mentoring approaches. Evans and Cokley argued that nontraditional careers inclusive of African American women in academies and other occupations in which there is a limited population of minority women can be minimized through career coaching and mentoring. Yet, Evans and Cokley did not address whether career mentoring increases productivity in African American women in more traditional occupations or whether the additional mentoring was essential for productivity. Sanchez-Hucles (1997) found that challenges are associated with African American women in the workplace despite career awareness and opportunity because social misconceptions and historical and psychological myths persist. Hughes and Dodge (1997) posited that racial and ethnic discrimination displayed in the workplace impact job performance and occupational stress regardless of the career choice.

Schulz and Lempert (2004) established how important it was for African

American women to feel included in the workplace and society without the pressure of discrimination and social injustice. Betsey (1994) affirmed that laws assist in mediating employment discrimination among African American women; however, Betsey did not indicate whether organizations or businesses would avoid ethnic discrimination if there were not legal or political repercussions in place.

Self-Efficacy and Historical Image in the Workplace

Robinson and Nelson (2010) addressed the impact of civil rights, social mobility, and career advancement among African American women in the workplace; however, they did not demonstrate the impact of working mothers or the impact of ethnic and gender discrimination on African American women. Robbins-McNeish (2006) found that sexual discrimination occurs in certain social conditions, for single families, and for African American women in the workforce, and that discrimination extends even into the higher echelons of education. Gasman (2007) found that social discrimination and injustice exist in education at historically African American colleges and universities, and Bates (2007) found that African American women in higher education settings are faced with racial and ethnic discrimination.

Evans-Winters and Esposito (2010) noted that oppressive thought theory must be minimized to support and motivate African American women in educating their daughters. Yet, Evans-Winters and Esposito did not express the impact of education among African American women who opt to pursue higher education. Gaetane (2006) cautioned that the emergence of African American female leaders in administrative and managerial careers was unwelcome and not often socially progressive. McAndrew (2010)

warned that many agencies seek to monopolize and capitalize on African American beauty and educate African American girls in private schools differently than their European American counterparts. McAndrew declared that what sells and is acceptable differs culturally and historically, especially in the 21st century.

Gooley (1990) established a conceptual model to analyze the impact of historical implications for and perceptions of African American women in the workforce and found that history makes their social and emotional status nontraditional and mostly unexplored. In a counter article, Bomberger (1998) found that perceptions of European American females, along with bitter race relations and misconceptions among the genders, can impact racial attitudes and discrimination. As a remedy to narrow the gap in understanding and perception of African Americans, Gibson and Abrams (2003) posited that racial differences can be conquered if sound recruiting, interviewing, and retention strategies for racial equality exist among African American women.

Nieves (2005) established that victory over discrimination can be obtained via social change, politics, and education when advocated by African American women. Nieves created a framework to show how limited opportunities and historical Jim Crow laws still impact African American women in the workplace. Crewe (2009) demonstrated the significance of advocating for equality, ethnocentrism, and fairness in the workplace and society among African American women.

Racial Identity

Rank (1988) contended that historical background and cultural challenges have a greater bearing on African American women than on their European American female

counterparts. Rank argued that demography and historical perceptions associated with slavery often hinder the perception of welfare acceptability and accessibility and the length to which some African American women use the social system, as opposed to non-minority women. Morgan, Mcdaniel, Miller, and Preston (1993) found that demographics and social perception among African American women and their families impact the family structure and social dynamics.

Boyd (1996) established that beauty and hair culture became a niche that was afforded through availability and social trends and did not necessarily arise out of the need for African American women to find a place in the early workforce. Yet, Boyd did not address why the desire to provide beauty services to other African American women was an attractive venture or was needed. Hunter (1998) investigated challenges and misconceptions related to color assimilation, image, and hair among African American women in the workplace, but Hunter did not explore the perceptions of other minorities addressing skin color in the workplace. Broussard (2004) presented the personal narrative of Carlotta Stewart Lai and her challenges in achieving and being recognized for professionalism. Broussard acknowledged that Lai had faced racial discrimination as an African American woman, but insisted that social racism and discriminatory perceptions can exist among other minorities as well. Lykes (1983) proposed that racial discrimination provides an environment for coping mechanisms and continued efforts toward racial assimilation among African American households.

Hunter (2002) studied the historical backlash of workplace and cultural dissimilation by observing the presence of the color barrier among minorities in the

workplace and how other minorities view color barriers. Hunter found a prevalent and continuing incidence of such discrimination. In an article depicting the amount of media coverage of African American women in the news and media, Wilcox (2005) explored how gender and race play a part in racial discrimination in the media and social perception, and maintained that discrimination is widespread.

Minority Women's Psyches, Health, and Workplace Performance

In a national study of workplace stress and measured health outcomes among African American women, Mays, Coleman, and Jackson (1996) contended that race and ethnic discrimination impact minority employment status and overall perception. They asserted that health hazards are associated with occupational stress but did not clearly indicate whether education or personal beliefs about self-image impact workplace stress among African American women. Kane and Kyyrö (2001) asserted that education may play a significant part in addressing the effects of gender, sex, and racial differences, age, integration, and social attitudes on African American workplace inequality and stress. Further affirming the belief in educational success as key to personal and professional success, O'Connor (2003) utilized Wilson's macro-historical approach to conceptualize how race, economics, social class, educational awareness, and opportunity impact processional significance and social status among African American women in the workplace. Sakamoto, Woo, and Kim (2010) contrasted the social status, racial disadvantages, and perceptions of non-minorities with those of immigrants and second-generation African Americans and found a wide disparity.

Thomas et al. (2008) concluded that sexism and gender inequality significantly

increased stress among African American women in the workplace, but did not clearly indicate how African American women adjusted to workplace pressure and discrimination when unable to cope with this psychological distress. Harrington, Crowther, Payne Henrickson, and Mickelson (2006) found a correlation between eating disorders and distress and trauma among African American women in the workplace.

Stress Factors Towards Racial Attitudes in the Workplace

Quantitative research results in the past have indicated that workplace barriers and discrimination threaten the motivation, acceptance, and personal satisfaction of minorities (McAtee & Benshoff, 2006). Reid (2006) discussed the ability of African Americans to overcome historical and psychological setbacks and found that such successes are limited among the population. The research by McAtee and Benshoff (2006) and Reid (2006) is important because these researchers addressed the psychological and environmental influences of social pressures, biases, and anxieties that challenge many minority women and therefore impact their community networks, family structures, and workplace performance and satisfaction. However, these researchers focused primarily on minorities in rural settings and certain established communities and did not fully consider the effects on women in other parts of society.

Perez et al. (2002) conducted a meta-analysis to determine the impact of stress on white, Hispanic, and Black undergraduate women. Their findings were of critical importance because they found that minority women who reported low levels of acculturative stress did not have decreased levels of racial identity or body satisfaction, but those minority women who did indicate high levels of acculturative stress and body

dissatisfaction were highly and more significantly correlated to have greater issues of self and body image. Furthermore, the minority women who seemed to lack increased levels of acculturative stress had a reduced presence of bulimic disorders (Perez et al., 2002). Lazarus (1991) found a direct correlation from identifying positive and negative stress and emotion to health, well-being, and workplace performance. Both Perez et al. and Lazarus attempted to examine the impact of individual stress and emotion on the mental and psychological makeup of individuals and their ability to interact and fulfill daily duties.

Taylor (1999) utilized diagnostic labels to indicate the reoccurring oppressive challenges that impact the psychological and physical health of African American women due to social discrimination. Taylor, however, provided little insight as to how African American women cope with social perceptions and health and social challenges. Carter and Rogers (1996) provided a biological sociocultural perspective indicating that social barriers, discriminatory perceptions, and negative notions increased rates of alcoholism among African American women, therefore impacting their physical, social, and psychological health and well-being.

Betsey (1994) found there were employment challenges often associated with African American women in the workplace, and that lingering misconceptions persisted in management that African American women lacked the knowledge or the tenacity needed to excel. Singh, Robinson, and Williams-Green (1995) addressed the contrast in work attitudes among African American women and men in colleges and universities and determined that there was an acute difference in perception and workplace satisfaction.

Neither Beverly nor Singh et al. fully addressed the workplace satisfaction and social implications associated with African American women who make lower wages. Lipscomb et al. (2007) compared overall work ethic, life satisfaction, depressive symptoms, working conditions, and productivity levels among African American women in North Carolina low-wage jobs and observed difficult issues in every dimension. Schulz et al. (2006) conducted a longitudinal study to follow the health and psychological impacts of workplace discrimination among African American women in Detroit and found similar difficulties. Schulz et al. offer a larger city workplace analysis in contrast to the more rural perception of Lipscomb et al. that is projected through lower-wage African American female workers in North Carolina, but the results are the same.

Salary and Socioeconomics

Fosu (1995) noted the disparity in career advancement for African American women that still exists despite the passage of decades since the civil rights movement. Browne (2000) found that limited opportunities and political restructuring have widened the gap in career advancement and increased the number of African American women as heads of households. Yet, both Fosu and Browne failed to address whether these lost career opportunities can be regained.

Daily and Humphreys (2011) argued that lower-income African American women handle stress and depressive tendencies differently than middle-class and higher-earning African American women, but did not provide thorough research pertaining to the contrast in social stressors between lower-income African American women and their European American female counterparts. Thorburn and Bogart (2003) conducted an

exploratory study to research how preconceived notions among non-minorities concerning birth control and family planning affected the mental and physical health of African American women during pregnancy. Canady, Bullen, Holzman, Broman, and Tian (2008) found discrepancies in depression symptoms between African American women and their European American counterparts; they indicated that coping strategies and reasons for depression often differed between the races, and as such, the impact of health issues related to pregnancy and depression differed as well. Thorburn and Bogart (2005) also found that African American women experienced more discrimination when addressing family planning issues and perceptions of planned pregnancies. These health and social issues impact how productive African American women are at work.

Greer (2011) found that psychological differences exist in how African American women handle stress and use coping mechanisms. Yap, Settles, and Pratt-Hyatt (2011) examined how coping styles impacted the perception, image, and self-analysis of African American women in a community sample. However, although they provided a thorough analysis of their samples, both Greer and Yap et al. failed to address social stressors associated with African American women from other socioeconomic groups. Daily and Humphreys (2011) offered insight into the social disparities and stressors that impact African American women who are challenged because of lower income levels. The results of each of these three research efforts acknowledged the differences and similarities in personal life satisfaction and racial and ethnic attitudes that challenge African American women.

Finally, Feather and Boeckmann (2007) conducted a study implementing two

quantitative surveys, the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory and the Ambivalence Towards

Men Inventory. These were scales of measurement used to study attitudes of hostility and

benevolence among minorities that provided a means to allow the continued study of

gender opinion, differences, and perception against affirmative action in workplace

environments and how racial thought and perception impact working conditions (Feather

& Boeckmann, 2007).

Affirmative Action in Action

In an attempt to display varying occupations and perceptions among minority

women, Moore and Webb (1998) posited that work attitudes toward equality and racial

justice shifted among African American women on active-duty military status in the U.S.

Navy; however, Moore and Webb did not clearly explore how affirmative action

impacted other minorities and social attitudes in the Navy, or how workplace

discrimination in the Navy differed from that in other workplace environments. Newsome

(2003) determined that customs officials target many African American women during

border patrols. Newsome suggested that African American women are targeted not just in

non-traditional careers and workplace environments, but in non-traditional settings and

countries where the black population is smaller.

Shenhav (1992) found an increased emergence of occupational segregation in

science and engineering careers among African American women. Through a detailed

longitudinal study, Shenhav researched the impact of affirmative action programs, but did

not provide a thorough analysis of how to increase advocacy and strategic planning

among African American women in non-traditional careers. Lloyd-Jones (2009) offered a

personal perspective on how to increase acceptance of African American women in non-traditional careers.

Gaines (2006) emphasized that it is often challenging for minority women to find a comfortable fit within the workplace even with affirmative action programs in place, which often creates feelings of anxiety, apprehension, insecurity, or inferiority. Gaines's report was important because the study included general perceptions of workplace satisfaction and stability when there may be an imbalance created by hardship, indifference, or hostility enabling credible research to emerge analyzing how unfair treatment and battling generations of preconceived biases and behavior can impact the livelihood of women of color.

Social Support, Self-Identity, and Workplace Satisfaction

Button, Moore, and Rienzo (2006) asserted that advocacy of diversity programs and employment increase multiculturalism and decrease discrimination. However, Button et al. failed to establish what happens when social advocacy is not obtained and racism persists. Hall (2006) suggested that a postmodernist perspective of women's rights also establishes a basis for racial injustices and social discrimination against African American women. Marbley (2005) affirmed that third-wave feminism is forcing alienation among African American women and their European American female counterparts. Russell (2004) contended that income, social status, and racial discrimination still present a visible color barrier that segregates thoughts, perceptions, and equality in the workplace for African American women. Musil and Standing (2007) suggested several concepts and approaches to move beyond racial barriers by creating

cross-cultural dynamics and the acceptance of multiculturalism.

Recognizing daily distress among African American women, Ajrouch, Reisine, Lim, Sohn, and Ismail (2010) addressed the ramifications of social support and motivation from individuals and family, but did not clearly address the impact of community support. Wyche (2010) found that personal reflections, self-identity, and image impact social awareness and that perception impacts psychotherapy approaches for African American women. Wyche, however, did not clearly address how past memories and background impact the ability to counsel African American women facing identity issues. Dailey, Kasl, Holford, Lewis, and Jones (2010) indicated that the benefits of obtaining urban health and awareness when achieving community and individual support allow various perceptions to be challenged when facing social disparities and racism in the community and workforce.

Age and Racial Disparity

Hicks (2009) argued that the potential threat of self-identity, social image, and racial discrimination causes harm to African American women in the criminal justice system. Although Hicks used quantitative surveys to investigate perceptions of African American women in the criminal justice system, he did not fully note the impact of environmental racism among this population or how pregnancy and stress impacted African American women processed through the judicial system. Dominguez (2011) discussed the social repercussions, health risks, and oppressive mechanisms that impact birth outcomes for African American women, and provided an insightful overview of how social aspects can impact not only race relations, but also health disparities and

discrimination against African American women in the workforce.

Keene and Prokos (2007) found significant racial disparities in socioeconomic status, medical coverage, and salary among African American women in the workforce. Keene and Prokos provided a thorough framework of salary comparisons utilizing regression analysis in the formulated data collection. Ruggiero (1999) found that racial disparities were commonplace and that ethnic groups such as African American women were often targeted, misrepresented, and underpaid in the workplace. However, neither Keene and Prokos nor Ruggiero adequately pinpointed how the status quo and economic gap exist cross-culturally. Welch and Sigelman (1989) maintained that there was an increase in the gender gap and labor supply among African American women.

In their study on the impact of family and community among African American women in the workplace, Hummer and Hamilton (2010) found that social status, ethnology, and social and cultural attitudes impact family relations. The uncertainty of workplace stability impacts workplace satisfaction and family fulfillment and productivity. Reid and Padavic (2005) suggested that there is an emerging racial disparity for younger African American women in the workforce, due to the impact of family and status obligations. Reid and Padavic, however, did not discuss the workplace implications, stressors, and motivators for older African American women in the workforce. Trotman (2002) noted that racial disparities still exist among aging African American women that transcend history, socioeconomics, and politics. Trotman also noted that racial discrimination is still prevalent against African American women of all ages despite time and historical context.

Peebles-Wilkins (1995) discussed the importance of community activism in providing support for children at a school for African American girls. Peebles-Wilkins proposed the basic framework of the importance of child welfare and other community-based youth services for African American girls, but only addressed local or community concerns for family and youth. Collins (2001) argued that racial equality is a nationwide problem and should be addressed as such through community and national awareness, support, and advocacy.

Byrd and Stanley (2009) posited that when people work together as a social unit, increased advocacy and gender acceptance can be obtained. However, Petitt (2009) countered that notion by asserting that discrimination will persist because working together is simply a borrowed idea and not an owned philosophy of shared power and equality.

Conclusion

A search of the empirical research revealed an incomplete and unbalanced body of knowledge related to racial attitudes and age as they affect conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization among African American women in the workplace. Little research has been focused on the interaction of racial attitudes among African Americans in the workplace, how those attitudes influence self-efficacy, and in particular, how they are related to conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization of life experiences. Even less research was found that addressed the impact of age on racial attitudes and self-efficacy.

Several of the reviewed studies were over 15 years old, which is a limitation

within the scope of the research; the search of the literature failed to reveal recent empirical research about many of the subjects represented by the older studies. The historical perspective of these older studies, when juxtaposed with the unbalanced and incomplete current research, demonstrates that workplace and social discrimination still plague many African American women.

Using statistical evidence, surveys, and a quantitative approach, this study provided valid and credible evidence based on reliable data collection. The results provide a basic framework for analyzing the psychological, historical, environmental, and health challenges many minority women face in the workplace as opposed to their non-minority counterparts. Buchanan and Fitzgerald (2008) suggested that interviewing, theoretical orientation, and a collaboration of personal narratives and surveys assist in producing reliable evidence that strengthens the argument of the impact of stress upon minority women in the workplace. Buchanan and Fitzgerald's suggestion is relevant because it addresses the way that societal perceptions, hostilities, and positive reflections impact cultural diversity and acceptance in the workplace. Varca and Pattison (1993) noted the impact that stereotypes and workplace discrimination can have upon the future. Both Buchanan and Fitzgerald and Varca and Pattison provided evidentiary frameworks for determining how racial identity and self-efficacy may impact assessments of age and workplace discrimination. Neither article fully addressed subjective or objective views or strategic plans for constructing or implementing strategies or theories that directly address workplace discrimination.

Gaines (2006) and Rodriguez (2006) both gave personal accounts of the impact of

racial identity challenges and experiences on their lives as professional women of color. Both authors emphasized the identity crisis they experienced when feelings of insecurity or inferiority and professional and personal acceptance issues challenged their overall perception of society and how others perceived them.

The articles mentioned in this review were relevant to the purpose of the study and informative about assessing assumptions and limitations of the research to minimize bias and occupying preconceived notions during data analysis. The results allowed the formation of analytical thought and critical thinking skills based on subjective and objective information and not on personal perspective. In sum, through a compilation of literature linked to the study of racial attitudes in the workplace among various age groups of African American women, Chapter 2 provided an overview of the obstacles and triumphs that challenge African American women in the workplace.

A review of the method and design of the study is found in Chapter 3, which also contains details about the survey instruments and data analysis. Using a quantitative approach, results from the PRIAS and OCB-C as well as from the short demographic survey were analyzed to answer the research questions and validate or invalidate the appropriate hypotheses.

Chapter 3: Research Method

This study investigated whether generational status (i.e., Generation Y [aged 21-34], Generation X [aged 35-49], or Baby Boomer [aged 50-64]) influences the relationship between age and racial attitudes among African American women and the ability to predict OCB based on the racial attitude scale. People are more likely to succeed in personal and professional relationships through a strong family network and the strength of tradition (Moore, 2006). Moore (2006) also found that social, historical, and psychological occurrences from childhood impact an individual's psyche throughout life. Herek (2000) argued that personal perceptions impact social prejudice, perception, and cultural context. Ajzen (2006) contended that life experiences can be used to predict behavior.

African American women have been challenged with social discrimination and injustice throughout history (Moore, 2006). Through historical psychology and progressive social change, racial attitudes among African American age groups in the workplace can be studied. Johnson (2002) noted that personal perception and attitude and personal belief systems may impact what is perceived and what is the actual reality.

Quantitative research, as described in this chapter, allows for observation of the racial attitudes of African American women in the workplace. The impact of these racial attitudes can be expressed through oral history or quantitative data from African American women. I included surveys in the study to address the racial identity issues, challenges, and triumphs that confront African American women in the workplace by measuring the factors of conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization as

assessed by the PRIAS, and predictors of OCB as measured by the OCB-C.

Stress and minority relations impact the workplace through decreased employment opportunities. Social and educational systems are created to increase awareness and preparation for minorities (Gerstein, Rountree, & Ordonez, 2007; Miller & McWhirter, 2006). Although legal systems are structured to legislate human resource policy, there is a gap in the literature on the impact of racial attitudes among varying age groups of African American women.

The Civil Rights Act of 1991 provided a legal gateway to decrease discrimination. Although the act regulated the way in which minorities were hired, it did not reform or change workplace preconceptions or establish guidelines for organizations to follow to address discrimination (Gerstein et al., 2007). Researchers who address the social and historical perceptions that impact racial attitudes among various age groups of African American women in the workplace can also address social change and encourage awareness about racial identity.

In this chapter, I will describe the method and design of this study for data collection and analysis, as well as how the research method was implemented and how the research questions and hypotheses were addressed.

Research Method and Design

This study investigated the racial attitudes of African American women in the workplace across three age groups. The PRIAS and OCB-C surveys were distributed to participants via SurveyMonkey. The participants included a diverse population of women of color from various socioeconomic levels and professions to allow for an internal and

external analysis of age, perception, coping mechanisms within the workplace, and societal outlook. Health effects related to age, workplace stress, overall salary, and ratios of African American women in the workplace were all incorporated in the two main study instruments. The results were generalized to African American women in the United States.

Population, Sample, and Sampling Methodology

This study was implemented using a sample of 208 African American women in the United States between three generational statuses inclusive of African American women currently in the workforce. Participants were solicited using SurveyMonkey's Research Market Audience tool, which can be used for convenience sampling; about 1,000 participants who met the needed criteria were randomly selected to participate in the study, assuming a 30% response rate. The extracted sample consisted of rural and urban African American women aged 18 and up who were employed at public enterprises or institutions in the United States. Girls younger than 18, women who were retired or unemployed, and women not of African American descent were excluded from this study.

A convenience sampling technique was used to extract the sample from the population. There are several different types of sampling techniques (Creswell, 2009; Mujis, 2011): typical, unique, maximum variation, convenience, snowball, chain, and network. Convenience sampling encompasses participants who are available for the research and agree to be included. Merriam (1998) asserted that this sampling technique

is used when there are restrictions of "time, money, location, and availability of sites or respondents" (p. 63).

Convenience sampling is used in exploratory research to collect data that are generally representative of the population being studied. StatPac (2007) stated, "This method is often used during preliminary research efforts to get a gross estimate of results, without incurring the cost or time required to select a random sample" (p. 1). Convenience sampling enables the researcher to act within a certain time period and under conditions that facilitate data collection. By its nature, convenience sampling sacrifices generalizability; therefore, the results may not provide sufficient representation of the target population. Those selected for the study may only partially represent the population being investigated. Convenience sampling enables the researcher to seek an approximation of the truth when obtaining the truth (i.e., via random sampling) is conditionally prohibitive (Creswell, 2009; Mujis, 2011). Replication may be necessary to validate study results (Keppel & Zedeck, 2001). Neuman (2003) contended that despite deficiencies, convenience sampling is the best method of obtaining a sample population when time and conditions prohibit random sampling. I deemed convenience sampling to be the most appropriate method for the study because of the availability of respondents and the limited time for the study to take place.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

A quantitative method employing a survey questionnaire design was used as the framework to test the research questions and related hypotheses. The following research question guided the study:

RQ: For African American women in the workforce, is there a difference by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in the racial attitudes conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization as assessed by the PRIAS?

To provide a framework for a focused study of the influence of generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) on racial attitudes and the predictive model for citizenship comprised of conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization, the following subquestions were developed:

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization, as assessed by the PRIAS, by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace?

$H_0 1$: There is no significant difference in conformity by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_a 1$: There is a significant difference in conformity by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_0 2$: There is no significant difference in dissonance by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_a 2$: There is a significant difference in dissonance by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_0 3$: There is no significant difference in resistance by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_a 3$: There is a significant difference in resistance by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_0 4$: There is no significant difference in internalization by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_a 4$: There is a significant difference in internalization by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace

Dependent variables: conformity, dissonance, resistance, internalization; independent variable: generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation Y).

RQ2: Among a sample of African American women, are conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization, as measured by PRIAS, predictors of citizenship behavior, as measured by the OCB?

$H_0 2$: Conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization are not predictors of citizenship behavior.

$H_a 2$: Conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization are significant predictors of citizenship behavior.

Dependent variable: citizenship behavior; independent variables: conformity, dissonance, resistance, internalization.

The predictor variable for the primary research question was generational status. The dependent variables were (a) conformity, (b) dissonance, (c) immersion/resistance, and (d) internalization. The independent variable for the primary research questions was generational status, consisting of Generation Y (ages 21-34), Generation X (ages 35-49), and Baby Boomers (aged 50-64). The alternative hypothesis dependent variable was the

OCB-C. The relationship or association between the two variables (Alreck & Settle, 2004) was explored in this research.

Procedure

Permission to use the survey instruments was obtained through a letter and a purchase receipt (Appendix A). Permission to use human subjects was obtained from the Walden Institutional Research Board pursuant to the U.S. Federal Government Department of Health and Human Services (2009) regulation 45 CFR, which states, "the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research should not be greater in and of themselves than any ordinarily encountered in daily life, or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests" (para. 46.10). A letter of invitation and consent form were sent to prospective participants who met the selection criteria through SurveyMonkey, a private U.S. company that enables users to design surveys, collect responses, and analyze the responses to their created surveys. A short demographic survey (Appendix B) was also administered by SurveyMonkey. Data from the survey were used to establish a profile of respondents. Next, the PRIAS and OCB-C instruments were presented by SurveyMonkey.

Data were collected from rural and inner-city African American women in the United States, at least 18 years of age, who were currently in the workforce. Participants were recruited from the online community and extracted from panels of professionals who fit the sample criteria. They confidentially recorded their responses on SurveyMonkey.

This study was anonymous; therefore, I had no knowledge of participant identity.

Prior to taking the survey, each participant read the consent form, and by choosing to take the survey, the participant indicated consent. Participants could withdraw from the study at any time. To ensure that they had the targeted demographic characteristics that I was studying, participants responded to the demographic survey and the OCB-C before being directed to the PRIAS scale. Once confirmed, they completed the PRIAS scale. All data were collected and recorded using SPSS, and remained confidential and anonymous. No identifying information was used during the data collection and analysis.

Instrumentation

Appendix A contains letters of permission from Huentity Consulting and Dr. Paul Spector to use the PRIAS and OCB-C instruments for the study. The PRIAS was used to assess racial attitudes, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Organization of Subconstructs of the Research Instruments

Variable Name	Scale	# of items	Questions	Survey
Conformity	Interval	12	Questions 1-9, 29, 44, 46	PRIAS Survey
Dissonance	Interval	14	Questions 30-43	PRIAS Survey
Immersion/Resistance	Interval	14	Questions 10-19, 45, 47, 48, 49	PRIAS Survey
Internalization	Interval	10	Questions 20-28, 50	PRIAS Survey

The instruments administered in the study were a demographic questionnaire, the PRIAS, which included 50 items. and the OCB, which included 20 items.

Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire was a 10-item survey that included questions about gender, age, ethnicity, and other demographic data. Each question on the demographic survey was measured at the nominal level. A copy of this instrument is in Appendix B.

The PRIAS Instrument

Creswell (2009) indicated that there are three main identifiers to determine the content validity of research: (a) relevant literature, (b) the ability to represent or include a targeted population, and (c) expert analysis. Implementation of the sources adds credibility and validity to data collection and content. The PRIAS was developed using the blueprint of the minority identity development model, which incorporated the various schemas listed below (Atkinson, Morten, & Sue, 1989). The PRIAS is a 50-item self-report survey used to assess self-conceptions of people of color with respect to those in their own racial group, in contrast to how they react to non–African Americans (Helms, 1995). The PRIAS measures four racial identity schemas: (a) conformity, (b) dissonance, (c) immersion/resistance, and (d) internalization. These schemas are different strategies for interpreting and responding to a person's own understandings of race.

1. Conformity, the first scale, measures the resistance, denial, or coping mechanisms associated with unawareness of societal perception and its relevance in racial dynamics.

2. Dissonance, the second scale, measures the confusion and disorientation that occur when racial dynamics are in the consciousness or awareness of individuals.

3. Immersion/Resistance, the third subscale, measures physical and psychological withdrawing into one's own racial/ethnic group.

4. Internalization measures the integration of positive own-group racial identification with the capacity to realistically appreciate the positive aspects of Whites. (Helms, 1995, p. 3)

To test the hypotheses, a score was computed for each individual subconstruct of racial identity: (a) conformity, (b) dissonance, (c) immersion/resistance, and (d) internalization. For Hypothesis 2, an overall composite score was generated by adding up values across 50 items for each case and then dividing by the number of questions. The PRIAS items were answered by respondents on a scale of 1 to 5, ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree), meaning that the maximum score was 5 and the minimum score was 1. The overall average score was computed.

Utilizing multivariate analysis to outline the results of a questionnaire allows the incorporation of many variables to compute in a quantitative study. In a valid study observing the racial attitudes of Asian-American minorities, the following was found:

Kohatsu, et al. (2000) used PRIAS in their study of 160 Asian Americans, with an average age of 21.6 years ($SD = 5.03$). The reliability coefficient estimates they obtained for each subscale of the PRIAS were: .66 (Conformity); .65 (Dissonance); .78 (Immersion/Emersion); and .67 (Internalization). In Alvarez

and Helms's (2001) study of 188 Asian American college students, they reported

a reliability coefficient for each subscale of the PRIAS of .75 (Conformity); .78

(Dissonance); .83 (Immersion/Emersion); and .61 (Internalization). In the current

study, the internal consistency estimate for the Conformity scale was .71,

Dissonance was .70, Immersion-Emersion was .82, and for the Internalization

scale $\alpha = .76$. (Iwamoto & Liu, 2010, p. 79)

The reliability of the PRIAS and the OCB-C is a causal indicator scale that

consists of items that are not all parallel assessments of a single underlying construct.

Organ (1990) reported coefficient alphas for the 20-item checklist of the OCB-C of .89

and .94 for two self-report samples, and .94 for a co-worker sample (co-workers who

reported on the target employee).

Role of Researcher

Data collection from peer-reviewed sources impart valid issues that impact the

health, psyche, and historical, media, and psychological image and perception of African

American women in society, the workplace, and community. An understanding of data

collection is necessary when choosing selection tests and participants, and also when

making judgments based on the test results (Cascio & Aguinis, 2010). Creswell (2009)

noted the significance of implementing objective and subjective tools in obtaining

credible research.

Power Analysis

Sample size was determined using the power table provided by Aguinis (2004) for

a variety of slope differences for moderated multiple regression (Appendix C). For

medium to large differences in regression slopes between two groups, a total sample size of approximately 208 is needed to achieve power at .80 or above. The necessary sample size to detect smaller differences in regression slopes is between 320 and 400 (Aguinis, 2004, p. 114). Ideally the sample sizes for the groups should be equal. Given that multiple power analyses were run, the largest minimum sample size was used as a target during data collection.

A prior sample determination is assessed by conducting a formal power analysis in which three factors are taken into consideration: the intended power of the study, the effect size of the phenomena under study, and the level of significance to be used in rejecting the null hypotheses (alpha). As a matter of convention, adequate power to reject a false null hypothesis is .80 (Kuehl, 2000). Effect size is an estimated measurement of the strength of the relationship between variables in the study (Cohen, 1988). The effect size was characterized by Cohen (1988) as Cohen's f^2, medium, and large, where each level is associated with a specified effect size. Thus, small = .02, medium = .15, and large = .35.

Alpha is defined as how confident one is when rejecting the null hypothesis. Social science research convention suggests that alpha should be set at .05. Thus, the power was set at .80, effect size set at .15, and alpha set at .05 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007).

Operational Definition of Variables

Racial Identity

Racial identity is defined as the racial background with which a person most identifies. Racial identity as measured by the PRIAS includes four subconstructs: (a) conformity, (b) dissonance, (c) immersion/resistance, and (d) internalization. Racial identity was measured at the interval level. Questions 1-50 on the PRIAS were used to assess racial identity. Each question was answered on a 5-point Likert scale from 1-5: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = uncertain, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. Racial identity was extracted from primary sources.

Generational Status

Generational status is defined as the generation each participant was born into: Baby Boomer (aged 50-64), Generation X (aged 35-49), or Generation Y (aged 21-34). Generational status was measured at the nominal level. Question two on the demographic survey was used to assess generational status: 1 = 21-34, 2 = 35-49, 3 = 50-64. Generational status was extracted from primary sources.

Frequencies run confirmed the integrity of the data. Data cleaning, computation, and/or transformation occurred at this point as well. Listwise deletion accounted for missing data from participants who entered information that was missing one or more missing values (Peugh & Enders, 2004).

The final dataset consisted of responses from a total of 208 African American women. Using Survey Monkey's Online Audience Tool, a maximized respondent limit was used in order to keep track of the number of responses provided through

SurveyMonkey. SurveyMonkey allows the researcher to monitor and collect data from a certain number of respondents through its collect responses option. As such, 225 cases were needed in order to reach the sample size of 208, resulting in 208 usable cases and 17 unusable cases that were deleted through listwise deletion.

Frequencies and percentages for age, marital status, job status, and education are included in Table 3. The majority of participants reported their age range as 25-34 ($n = 62$, 29.8%) or 35-44 ($n = 78$, 37.5%). Marital status responses varied, but most participants indicated they were single ($n = 51$, 24.5%) or married ($n = 43$, 20.7%). Other participants reported that they were separated ($n = 29$, 13.9%), divorced ($n = 27$, 13%), single/cohabitating ($n = 26$, 12.5%), widowed ($n = 7$, 3.4%) and single/never married ($n = 25$, 12%). Almost all participants worked more than 35 hours per week ($n = 202$, 97.1%). Many participants worked in for-profit organizations ($n = 50$, 24.0%), with numerous participants also working in health care ($n = 37$, 17.8%), education ($n = 36$, 17.3%), and nonprofit organizations ($n = 36$, 17.3%). Many participants were employed as managers ($n = 45$, 21.6%) and directors ($n = 42$, 20.2%) within their organizations. The majority of the sample held bachelor's degrees ($n = 131$, 63%) and had not attended a historically black college ($n = 154$, 74%).

Statistical Analysis

The raw scores from the survey were downloaded as an SPSS file. Using information provided through the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2013), summary tables were constructed that outlined the resulting statistical information.

In order to answer the first proposed research question, "Is there a significant between-group difference in the racial attitudes conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization, as assessed by the PRIAS, by generational status in African American women in the workplace?", a one-factor multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze the data. For this RQ, the independent variable was generational status and the dependent variables were the four subscales that comprise racial attitude: (a) conformity, (b) dissonance, (c) immersion/resistance, and (d) internalization.

The strength and direction of the relationships between conformity, dissonance, immersion/resistance, and internalization were first determined using Pearson's *r*. A significant correlation between the subscales both indicates the presence of the proposed construct and also validates the use of MANOVA as the appropriate analytic technique (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2010). If a significant main effect for the independent variable was found, Tukey's post hoc procedures were run in order to identify where the differences occurred. Prior to interpretation of the results, data were checked for violations of MANOVA assumptions.

For the second research question, "Among a sample of African American women, are conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization, as measured by PRIAS, significant predictors of citizenship behavior, as measured by the OCB?", a multiple linear regression (MLR) was utilized to analyze the data. Regression analysis is effective for modeling relationships between variables and is an appropriate method when the desired outcome is to predict the variability in the dependent variable using information from two or more predictor variables. The current study fit a model to the data using the

independent variables of conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization and the dependent variable of citizenship behavior.

Prior to running the regression analysis, regression assumptions (linearity, independence, normality, and homogeneity) were checked for violations. Specifically, a quantile-quantile (Q-Q) plot was created for each variable to assess the normality of the data (Chatterjee & Simonoff, 2013; Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). A scatterplot of residuals and fitted values was used to assess the linearity and homogeneity of variance assumptions. All descriptive statistics and inferential tests were run using SPSS. The overall model and independent variable inclusion used $\alpha = .05$ for level of significance. The results of the regression and MANOVA are reported in the results section of this study.

Missing Data

SPSS was used to detect information missing from participant surveys, and automatically listwise deleted 17 responses due to individual participant information that did not meet the key variable criterion or incomplete surveys. There were 208 usable cases. Peugh and Enders (2004) confirmed that listwise deletion is a common occurrence and is often used to handle missing data.

Parametric Assumptions

To check the normality of distribution for participant responses, a normal probability plot was used. This is a tool that compares observed values with what is expected of a normal distribution. Cooper, Beach, Johnson, & Inui (2009) noted that assumptions for parametric tests are as follows: (a) observations must be independent and

not affect any other participant responses, (b) observations must be drawn from normally distributed populations, (c) the populations should have equal variances, and (d) the measurement scales should be at least interval so that arithmetic operations can be used with them.

Order of Analyses

First, information collected from participants was coded into SPSS worksheets for analysis. Second, the responses were examined to find those missing data and remove them from further analysis. Third, parametric assumptions were evaluated to determine if the data met specified criteria for conducting multiple regression. Finally, MANOVA and multiple regression were performed to test the hypotheses.

Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)

MANOVA examines the relationship between multiple dependent variables, and was used to assess RQ1. Multivariate analysis is thought to be a more sophisticated approach when compared to bivariate correlation (Keith, 2006). The aim of MANOVA is to determine if a relationship exists between variables and whether a particular variable can predict an outcome. The dependent variable for RQ1 was racial attitudes, which included the four subconstructs of (a) conformity, (b) dissonance, (c) immersion/resistance, and (d) internalization, and the independent variable was generational status.

MANOVA power analysis. Sample size was determined using the power table provided by Aguinis (2004) for a variety of slope differences. For medium to large differences in regression slopes between two groups, a total sample size of approximately

208 is needed to achieve power at .80 or above. The necessary sample size to detect smaller differences in regression slopes is between 320 and 400 (Aguinis, 2004). Ideally, the sample sizes for the groups should be equal. Given that multiple power analyses were run, the largest minimum sample size of 300 was used as a target during data collection.

Multiple Regression

Multiple regression analysis was used to assess RQ2. Multiple regression examines the relationship between multiple predictor variables and a dependent variable, and is also thought to be a more sophisticated approach than bivariate correlation (Keith, 2006). The aim of regression is to determine if a relationship exists between variables and whether a particular variable can predict an outcome. The dependent variable for RQ2 was citizenship behavior, and the predictor variable was racial attitudes, which included four subconstructs: (a) conformity, (b) dissonance, (c) immersion/resistance, and (d) internalization.

Multiple regression power analysis. Sample size was determined using the power table provided by Aguinis (2004) for a variety of slope differences. For medium to large differences in regression slopes between two groups, a total sample size of approximately 208 is needed to achieve power at .80 or above. The necessary sample size to detect smaller differences in regression slopes is between 320 and 400 (Aguinis, 2004). Ideally, the sample sizes for the groups should be equal. Given that multiple power analyses were run, the largest minimum sample size was used as a target during data collection; that is, approximately 225 cases were collected and analyzed.

Ethical Considerations

Participants were informed that the goal of the study was to study the impact of age on the racial attitudes of African American women in the workplace. Participants were also informed that, at any time during the study, if they felt uncomfortable with continuing for any reason, they could discontinue participation (Creswell, 2009).

The objective of the research was ensuring that everyone is afforded opportunity despite education or socioeconomic status so that every perception and experience is recorded and analyzed through participant observation and in cultural context. The results of the study were made available to participants after the study because struggles and learned behaviors can be analyzed as they relate to challenges and victories afforded to African American women in the movement of social psychology and history (Johnson, 2002).

Ethical considerations included the participants' right to anonymity. No identifying information was collected. The risk level to participants was considered to be minimal. Further, during the data collection process and before the data analysis process, each participant's results were coded numerically to prevent identification of the participant. An additional ethical consideration was voluntary participation. Before taking the surveys, participants read a letter of consent explaining the study and its purpose, risks, and benefits. The letter clearly indicated that participation was voluntary. The level of anonymity was explained in the letter.

The surveys deployed were within Walden Institutional Review Board guidelines. Informed consent was received and clear instructions were given before a participant

could respond to the survey. The study was conducted based upon the proposition that ethical research would directly inform the respondents of what they are being asked and the free choice of opting in or out (Fowler, 2009). The data collection instruments used also respected the identity and opinions of each participant. No information regarding the participants' names, religious beliefs, sexual orientations, or health and criminal records was asked or collected for this study.

Taking careful precautions to increase external validity, I used convenience sampling to select African American female participants from various socioeconomic backgrounds, ages, demographics, and educational levels so as to not create a biased study group or group bias or perception as relevant to a particular culture or demographic. By increasing random selectiveness, the increase for controlled internal and external validity issues can be enforced.

Summary

This quantitative study was designed to determine the relationship between generational status of African American women and racial attitudes and OCB in the workplace. This chapter contained descriptions of the research methodology used to accomplish this purpose. Additionally, this chapter included descriptions of the sample, data collection procedures, and data interpretation/analysis. Finally, ethical considerations were addressed to ensure confidentiality and protection of participants.

Chapter 4 includes a description of the data collected, the data analysis procedures, and the results of the study as they pertain to the hypotheses and research

questions. Chapter 5 contains a discussion of the study, interpretation of the findings,

implications of the findings, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate the influence of generational status on racial attitudes and OCB in a sample of African American women. The participants in the study were members of Generation Y (aged 21-34), Generation X (aged 35-49), and the Baby Boomer generation (aged 50-64). Participants completed the PRIAS and the OCB-C using SurveyMonkey to assess their racial attitudes and OCB. The research question guiding this study was the following:

RQ: For African American women in the workforce, is there a difference by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in the racial attitudes conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization as assessed by the PRIAS?

To provide a framework for a focused study of the influence of generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) on racial attitudes and the predictive model for citizenship comprised of conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization, the following subquestions were developed:

RQ1: Is there a significant difference in conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization, as assessed by the PRIAS, by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace?

$H_0 1$: There is no significant difference in conformity by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_a 1$: There is a significant difference in conformity by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_0 2$: There is no significant difference in dissonance by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_a 2$: There is a significant difference in dissonance by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_0 3$: There is no significant difference in resistance by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_a 3$: There is a significant difference in resistance by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_0 4$: There is no significant difference in internalization by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace.

$H_a 4$: There is a significant difference in internalization by generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation X, Generation Y) in African American women in the workplace

Dependent variables: conformity, dissonance, resistance, internalization; independent variable: generational status (Baby Boomers, Generation Y).

RQ2: Among a sample of African American women, are conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization, as measured by PRIAS, predictors of citizenship behavior, as measured by the OCB?

$H_0 2$: Conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization are not predictors of citizenship behavior.

H_a2: Conformity, dissonance, resistance, and internalization are significant predictors of citizenship behavior.

I conducted multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and multiple regression to address the research questions. In this chapter, I present the data collection and preliminary data management conducted on the dataset. Descriptive statistics for the sample are provided. The results of the data analysis to address the research questions are presented. The chapter closes with a summary of the salient findings.

Data Collection

Raw scores from the survey were downloaded as an SPSS file. Frequencies were used to confirm the integrity of the data and identify and address any missing data issues. Using the information provided through the U.S. Census Labor Market (2013), summary tables were constructed that outlined the resulting statistical information. The completed data collection from the two surveys was downloaded as an SPSS file. The participants included African American women who were at least 18 years of age and in the workforce. The participants were recruited from the online community, where they confidentially recorded their responses on SurveyMonkey. The participants confirmed consent by anonymously completing the survey. Deletion accounted for 17 missing cases of unusable results from participants who either did not complete the survey or were missing one or more of the criteria needed to analyze the data.

The final dataset consisted of responses from a total of 208 African American women. SurveyMonkey assisted in filtering the number of participants who were able to take the survey by allowing data collector options that allowed me to turn on response

limits. SurveyMonkey notified me when the calculated number of participants had successfully completed the survey. When the response limit was met, the survey automatically closed.

Frequencies and percentages for age, marital status, job status, and education are included in Table 3. The majority of participants reported their age range as 25-34 ($n = 62$, 29.8%) or 35-44 ($n = 78$, 37.5%). Marital status responses varied; however, most participants indicated that they were single ($n = 51$, 24.5%) or married ($n = 43$, 20.7%). Other participants reported that they were separated ($n = 29$, 13.9%), divorced ($n = 27$, 13%), single/cohabitating ($n = 26$, 12.5%), widowed ($n = 7$, 3.4%), or single/never married ($n = 25$, 12%). Almost all of the participants worked more than 35 hours per week ($n = 202$, 97.1%). Many participants worked in for-profit organizations ($n = 50$, 24.0%), with numerous participants also working in health care ($n = 37$, 17.8%), education ($n = 36$, 17.3%), and nonprofit organizations ($n = 36$, 17.3%). Many participants were employed as managers ($n = 45$, 21.6%) and directors ($n = 42$, 20.2%) within their organization. The majority of the sample held bachelor's degrees ($n = 131$, 63%) and had not attended a historically black college ($n = 154$, 74%). Although the education results were statistically high, they were not unfounded. The U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (2017) affirmed that in the past 8 years, African American women have become the most educated group in the United States, earning 66% of bachelor's degrees.

Table 3

Frequencies and Percentages for Demographic Variables

Variable	*N*	*%*
Age		
18-24	12	5.8
25-34	62	29.8
35-44	78	37.5
45-54	37	17.8
55-64	19	9.1
Marital Status		
Single	51	24.5
Single-Never Married	25	12.0
Single-Cohabit	26	12.5
Married	43	20.7
Separated	29	13.9
Divorced	27	13.0
Widowed	7	3.4
Work Hours		
<35	4	1.9
35+	202	97.1
Unemployed	2	1.0
Organization Type		
Education	36	17.3
For Profit	50	24.0
Gov't	30	14.4
Health Care	37	17.8
Non-Profit	36	17.3
Other	18	8.7
Job Type		
Intern	6	2.9
Entry-level	32	15.4
Analyst/Associate	23	11.1
Manager	45	21.6
Director	42	20.2
President/CEO	6	2.9

(table continues)

Variable	N	%
Self-Employed	11	5.3
Senior Manager	28	13.5
Senior Vice President	4	1.9
Vice President	11	5.3
Education Level		
Some HS	3	1.4
High School	3	1.4
Some College	11	5.3
Associates	18	8.7
Bachelors	131	63.0
Graduate School	41	19.7
Historically Black College/University		
No	154	74.0
Yes	54	26.0

Means, standard deviations, and distribution statistics were calculated for the continuous variables in the dataset. Table 4 includes descriptive statistics for the continuous variables based on a Likert scale. Histograms were included to display the data distributions for the continuous variables (Figures 2-7).

The mean RA score was 3.00 ($SD = 0.25$), and the mean OBC score was 2.90 ($SD = 0.58$). Participants had the highest mean score on the internalization scale ($M = 4.36$, $SD = 0.43$). Participants had the lowest mean score on the conformity scale ($M = 2.24$, $SD = 0.41$). Skewness and kurtosis values were within the acceptable levels, indicating that the data were normally distributed within the sample.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Continuous Variables on the Racial Attitude (RA) Based on Likert Scale

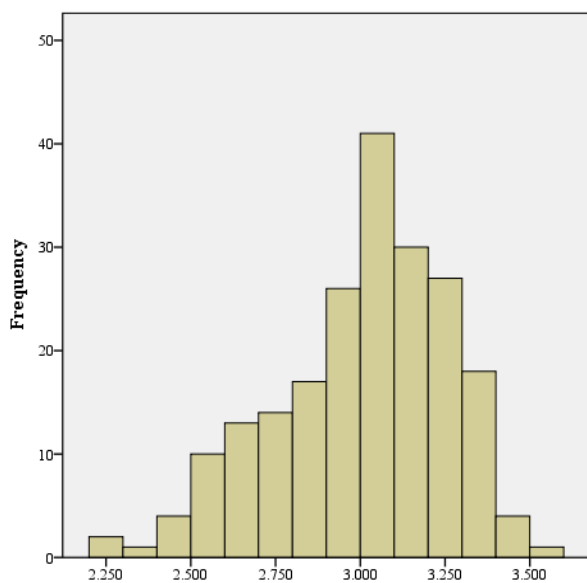| Variable	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
RA	3.00	0.25	-0.57	0.01
Conformity	2.24	0.41	-0.73	-0.31
Dissonance	2.76	0.57	-0.65	-0.25
Immersion	2.91	0.34	0.43	0.88
Internalization	4.36	0.43	-0.47	0.50
OBC	2.90	0.58	-0.98	0.98

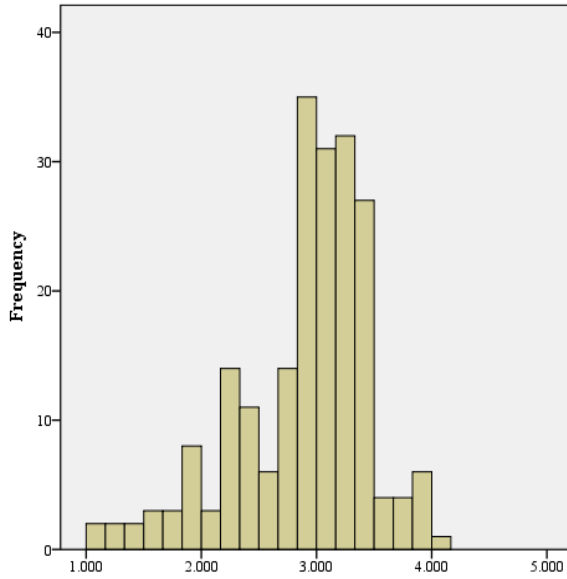*Figure 2*. Histogram for average racial attitudes.

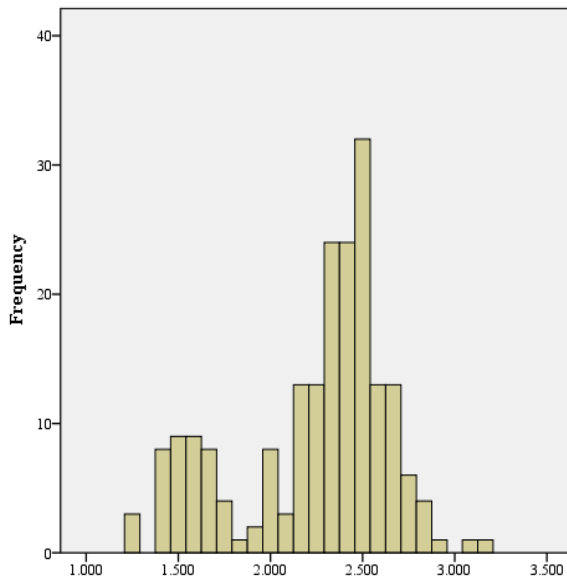*Figure 3.* Histogram for averages of OCB.

Figure 4. Histogram for averages of conformity.
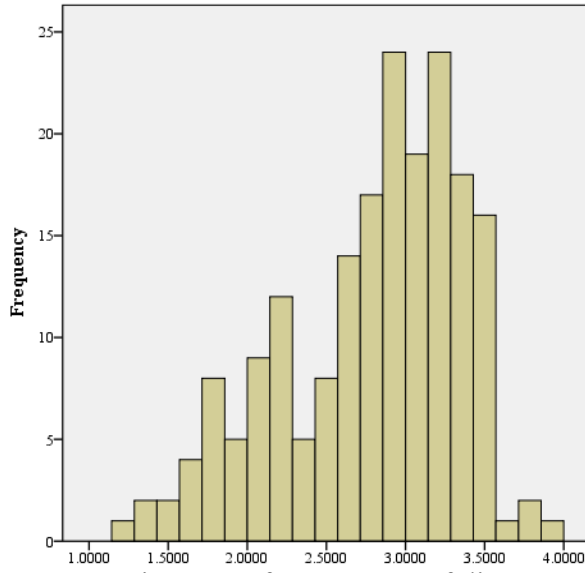
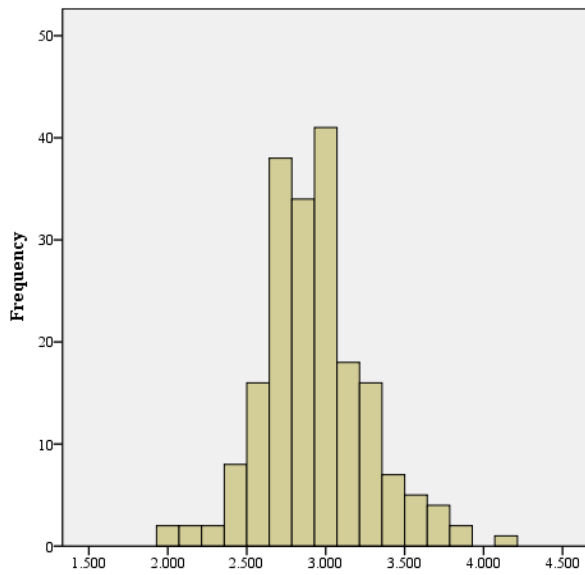*Figure 5.* Histogram for averages of dissonance.

Figure 6. Histogram for averages of immersion.
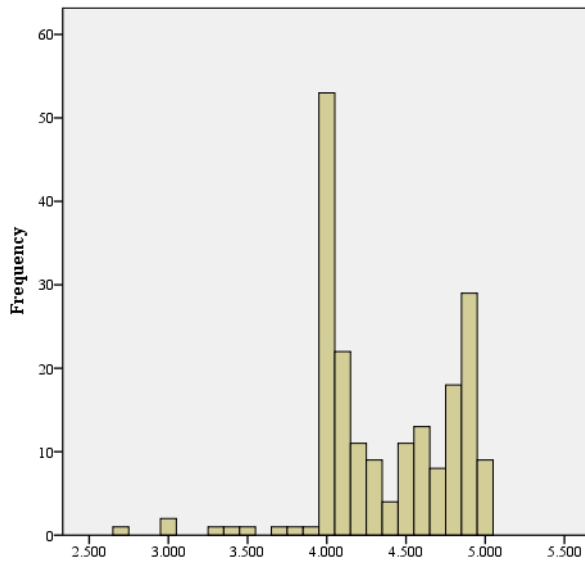
Figure 7. Histogram for averages of internalization.

Results of Data Analysis

I conducted a MANOVA and a multiple linear regression to address the overarching research question guiding this study. Prior to conducting the MANOVA, I conducted a correlational analysis as a preliminary assessment of the relationships of the variables. Missing data were omitted through SPSS software that listwise deleted any individual with missing data on any key variable. The results of the analysis are presented below.

I conducted a MANOVA to address RQ1. The independent variable for the analysis was generational status, operationalized as Generation Y, Generation X, and the Baby Boomer generation. The dependent variable for the analysis was racial attitude, which was comprised of the four subscales of the PRIAS (i.e., conformity, dissonance, immersion, and internalization).

I conducted Pearson *r* correlation analyses to assess the relationships among conformity, dissonance, immersion, and internalization. Table 5 presents results of the Pearson *r* correlation analyses. The correlation coefficients were evaluated using Cohen's standard, where correlation coefficients less than or equal to 0.29 indicate a weak association, less than or equal to 0.49 indicate a moderate association, and greater than or equal to 0.50 indicate a strong association (Cohen, 1988).

There was a strong positive association between conformity and dissonance ($r =$ .747, $p <$ .001). This finding suggested a strong relationship between the conformity and dissonance scales and that the two scales varied directly with each other. I assessed a weak positive association between conformity and immersion ($r =$ .183, $p =$ .011). This finding suggested a weak relationship between the conformity and immersion scales and that the two scales varied directly with each other. I also found a weak positive association between immersion and dissonance ($r =$ .258, $p <$ .001). This finding suggested a weak relationship between the immersion and dissonance scales and that the two scales varied directly with each other.

There was a moderate negative association between conformity and internalization ($r =$ -.300, $p <$ .001). This finding suggested a medium relationship between the conformity and internalization scales and that the two scales varied indirectly with each other. I assessed a moderate negative association between dissonance and internalization ($r =$ -.423, $p <$ .001). This finding suggested a medium relationship between the dissonance and internalization scales and that the two scales varied indirectly with each other. There was also a moderate negative association between immersion and

internalization ($r = -.357$, $p < .001$). This finding suggested a medium relationship between the immersion and internalization scales and that the two scales varied indirectly with each other.

Table 5

Results of the Pearson r Correlation Analysis for Conformity, Dissonance, Immersion, and Internalization

	Conformity	Dissonance	Immersion
Dissonance	.747**		
Immersion	.183*	.258**	
Internalization	-.300**	-.423**	-.357**

Note. ** indicates significance at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * indicates significance at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Prior to conducting the MANOVA, I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. The results of the Levene's test were not statistically significant for internalization, $F(2,166) = 2.85$, $p = .061$, indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met for internalization. The assumption was not met for conformity, dissonance, and immersion. Because the assumption was not met across all four dependent variables, caution should be taken in drawing inferences based upon the results of the statistical analysis.

The results of the one-way MANOVA for generation on racial attitudes, Wilk's λ = .843, $F(8,326) = 3.62$, $p < .001$, indicated statistical significance (Table 6). The null hypothesis was rejected in favor of the alternate. I assessed a partial eta squared of .082 and an observed power of .984. Because the MANOVA was statistically significant, I examined the results of the individual ANOVAs assessing differences in conformity, dissonance, immersion, and internalization by generation. To adjust for the multiple

ANOVAs being conducted, I adjusted the significance level (.05/4) and used a modified significance level of 0.013.

Table 6

MANOVA Results for Racial Attitudes by Generation

Variable	*Wilks'*	*F*	*df*	*Residual df*	*p*	η^2_p
Generation	0.84	3.62	8	326	.000	0.08

I assessed statistical significance for internalization; the results, $F(2,166) = 3.78$, $p = .025$, exceeded the adjusted significance level, indicating that internalization scores were similar across the three generations. I also assessed statistical significance for conformity ($F(2,166) = 4.76$, $p = .010$), dissonance ($F(2,166) = 9.88$, $p < .001$), and immersion ($F(2,166) = 6.59$, $p = .002$). Table 7 presents the individual ANOVA results.

Table 7

Results of the ANOVAs for Racial Attitude by Generation

Source	Dependent Variable	SS	df	Mean Square	F	p	Partial eta squared
Generation	Conformity	1.49	2	0.74	4.76	.010	.054
	Dissonance	5.54	2	2.77	9.88	.000	.106
	Immersion	1.45	2	0.72	6.59	.002	.074
	Internalization	1.15	2	0.58	3.78	.025	.044
Error	Conformity	25.94	166	0.16			
	Dissonance	46.54	166	0.28			
	Immersion	18.20	166	0.11			
	Internalization	25.33	166	0.15			
Total	Conformity	874.76	169				
	Dissonance	1350.06	169				
	Immersion	1427.96	169				
	Internalization	3282.50	169				

Table 8 presents the descriptive statistics for racial attitudes by generation using a

Likert scale. For the conformity scale, the Baby Boomer generation had the highest mean

($M = 2.50$, $SD = 0.21$), and Generation X had the lowest mean ($M = 2.18$, $SD = 0.43$). For

the dissonance scale, the Baby Boomer generation had the highest mean ($M = 3.22$, $SD =$

0.24), and Generation X had the lowest mean ($M = 2.63$, $SD = 0.60$). On the immersion

scale the Baby Boomer generation had the highest mean ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 0.42$), and

Generation X had the lowest mean ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 0.36$). Mean plots for the racial

attitudes are provided in Figures 8 through 11. These are the results as displayed in SPSS.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for Racial Attitudes by Generation

	Generation	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Conformity	Generation Y	2.25	0.38	65
	Generation X	2.18	0.43	87
	Baby Boomer	2.50	0.21	17
Dissonance	Generation Y	2.84	0.47	65
	Generation X	2.63	0.60	87
	Baby Boomer	3.22	0.24	17
Immersion	Generation Y	2.90	0.26	65
	Generation X	2.83	0.36	87
	Baby Boomer	3.15	0.42	17
Internalization	Generation Y	4.40	0.36	65
	Generation X	4.43	0.42	87
	Baby Boomer	4.15	0.34	17

Personal belief systems vary from person to person, and as such, sometimes the results as it relates to racial attitudes were more similar than dissimilar, as people probably shared similar expectations, beliefs, perceptions, or experiences related to race despite age (Aguorastos, Demiralay, & Huber, 2014). Some perceptions are generational and thus are carried on from generation to generation. Therefore, some results were more similar than not, regardless of age.
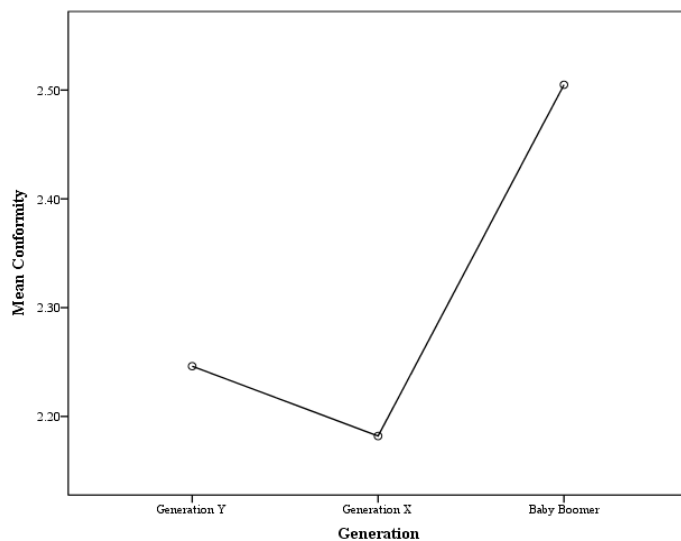

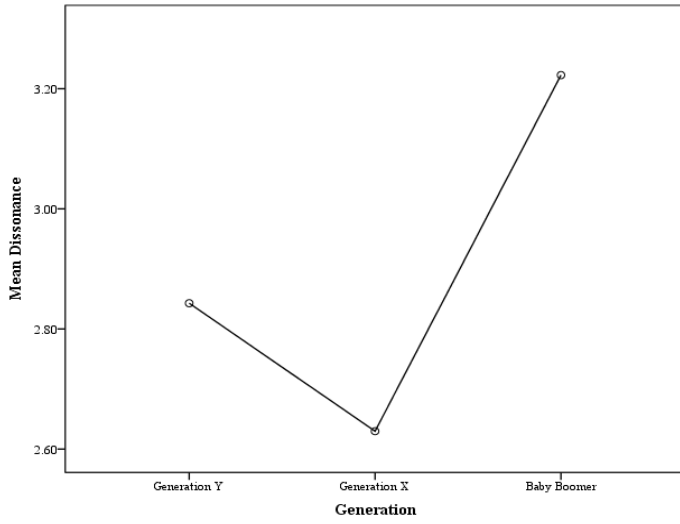*Figure 8*. Mean plot for conformity by generation.

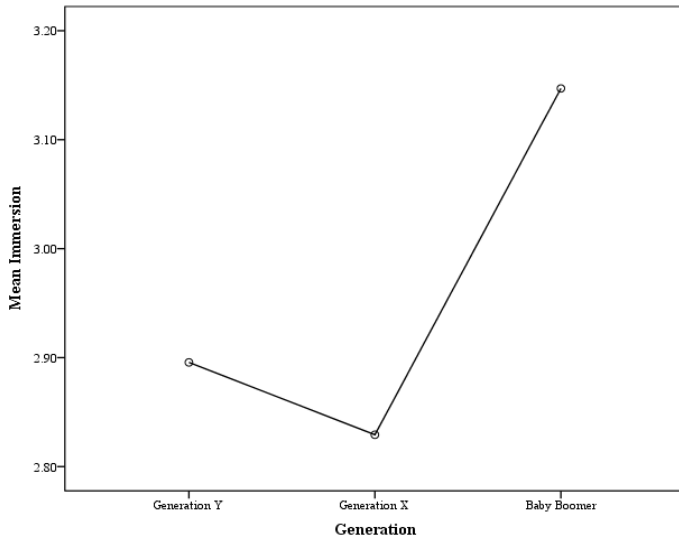*Figure 9*. Mean plot for dissonance by generation.

Figure 10. Mean plot for immersion by generation.
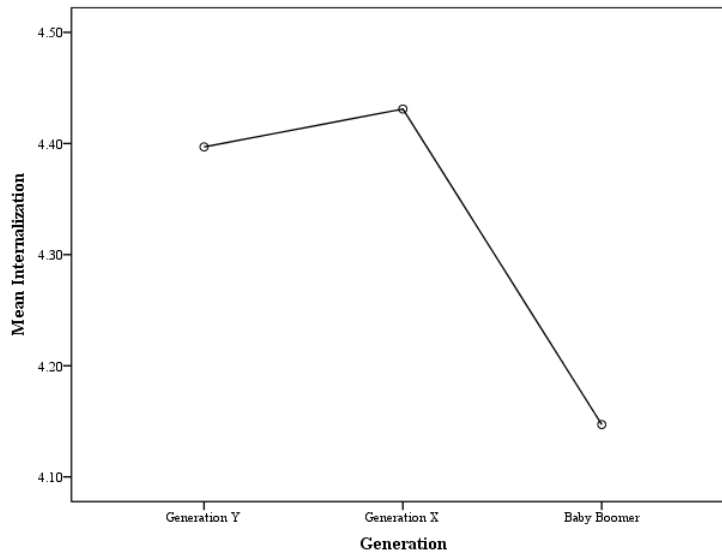
Figure 11. Mean plot for internalization by generation.

I conducted a multiple linear regression to address RQ2. The predictor variables for the analysis were conformity, dissonance, immersion, and internalization. The outcome variable was citizenship behavior.

Prior to conducting the multiple linear regression, I assessed the assumptions of the analysis and examined Q-Q scatterplots for each of the variables to assess the assumption of normality. Although there were slight deviations in the tails of the plots (Figures 12-16), the deviations were mild. I considered the assumption of normality met for each of the variables. Additionally, with a sufficiently large sample size, multiple linear regression analysis is considered robust to violations of the assumption of normality (Stevens, 2009). A residual scatterplot was examined to assess the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity. I considered the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity met considering the evidence presented in the scatterplot (Figure 17).

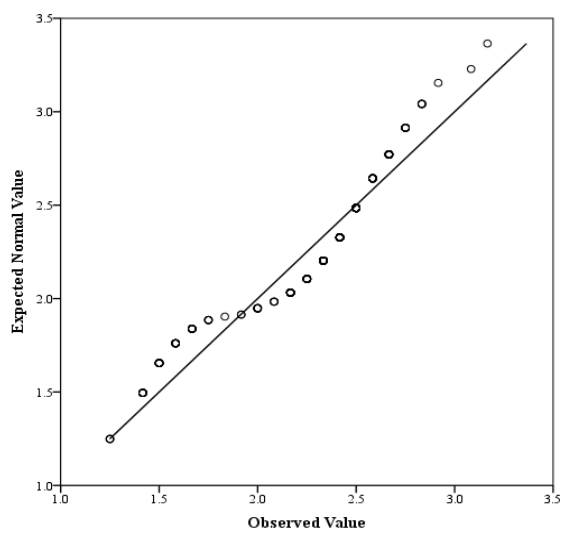*Figure 12*. Q-Q scatterplot for conformity.
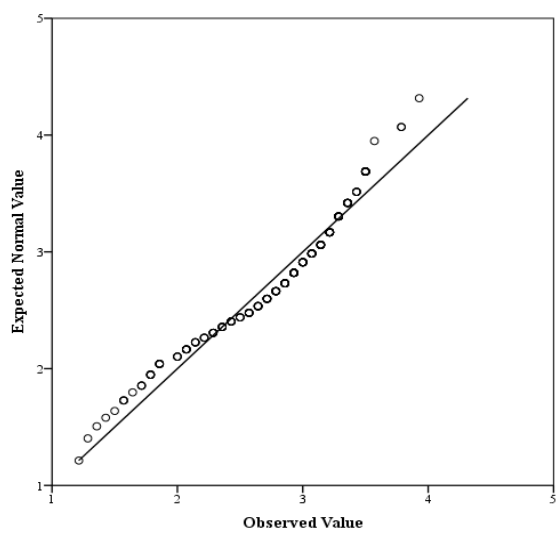

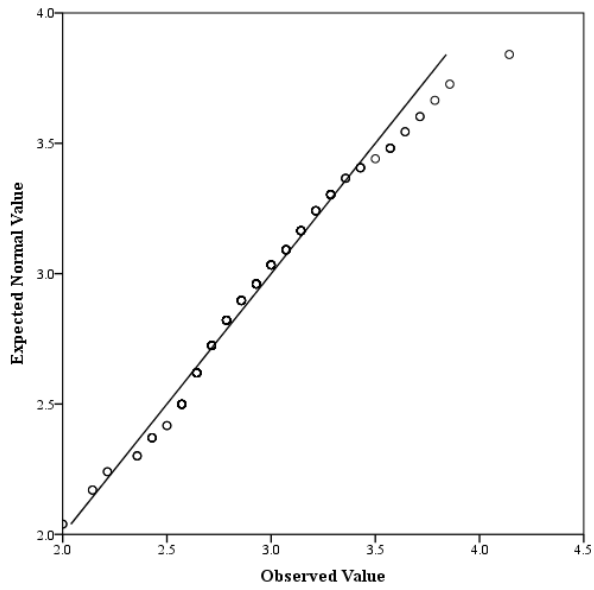*Figure 13*. Q-Q scatterplot for dissonance.

Figure 14. Q-Q scatterplot for immersion.
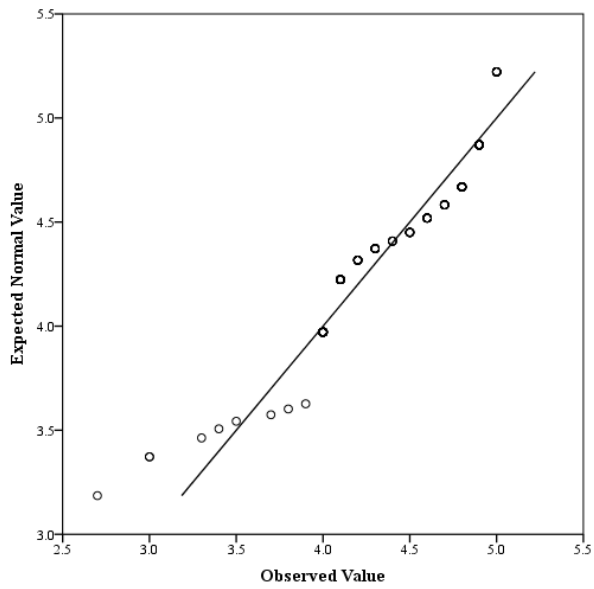
Figure 15. Q-Q scatterplot for internalization.
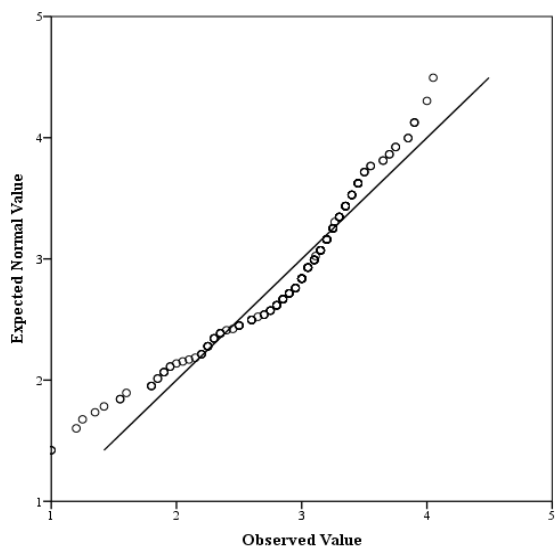
Figure 16. Q-Q scatterplot for OBC.
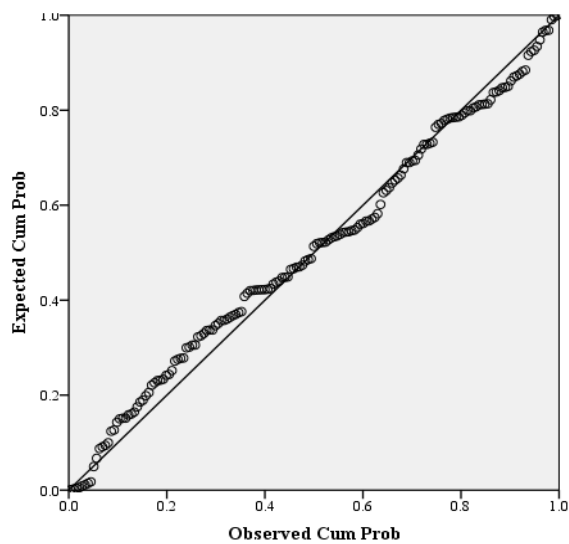
Figure 17. Residual scatterplot for OBC.

The results of the multiple linear regression were statistically significant, $F(4,164)$ = 17.92, R^2 = 0.29, $p < .001$. This finding indicates that the model consisting of conformity, dissonance, immersion, and internalization accounted for 29% of the variability in citizenship behavior. I rejected the null hypothesis in favor of the alternate. Because the model was statistically significant, I interpreted the contributions of the individual predictors on the outcome variable.

Conformity ($B = 0.35$, $p = .008$) and dissonance ($B = 0.35$, $p < .001$) were statistically significant predictors of citizenship behavior. The results indicate that for every one-unit increase in conformity, citizenship behavior increased by 0.35 units on average. The results also indicate that for every one-unit increase in dissonance, citizenship behavior increased by 0.35 units on average. The results of the multiple linear regression are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Results of the Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

	B	SE	β	t	p
Conformity	0.35	0.13	0.26	2.68	.008
Dissonance	0.35	0.10	0.36	3.61	.000
Immersion	-0.21	0.11	-0.13	-1.81	.072
Internalization	0.02	0.12	0.02	0.22	.824

Note. $F(4,164) = 17.92$, $R^2 = 0.29$, $p < .001$.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of generation on racial attitudes and OCB in a sample of African American women. Participants completed the

PRIAS and the OCB-C. I conducted MANOVA and multiple linear regression to address the overarching research question.

The results of the MANOVA indicated that there were statistically significant differences in racial attitudes by generation. Specifically, I found statistically significant differences in the conformity, dissonance, and immersion scales, with Baby Boomers demonstrating the highest scores on each subscale and Generation X demonstrating the lowest scores on each subscale. The results of the regression analysis indicated that although the model consisting of conformity, dissonance, immersion, and internalization accounted for 29% of the variability in citizenship behavior, conformity and dissonance were the only statistically significant predictors in the model. For each of the predictors, for a one-unit increase in the predictor; citizenship behavior increased by 0.35 units.

The data collection and preliminary data management were detailed in this chapter, descriptive statistics were presented, and the results of the MANOVA and multiple linear regression were provided. Chapter 5 will provide a discussion of the findings, limitations, and conclusions for the study, as well as recommendations for future research and practice.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate the influence of generational status on racial attitudes and OCB in the workplace among various age groups of African American women. The overarching research question provided direction for this study and was broken down into two subquestions that were answered separately.

Discussion of Findings

I used MANOVA to test the four racial attitudes of conformity, dissonance, immersion, and internalization as a group. I found that the p-value was less than .01. Therefore, I rejected the null hypothesis. I found that there was a difference in conformity, dissonance, immersion, and internalization, as assessed on the PRIAS, by generational status (Generation Y, Generation X, or Baby Boomer) among African American women in the workplace. In follow-up tests, I concluded that the MANOVA found differences; however, the MANOVA did not show which variables showed the most difference.

To look at how the individual dependent variables of conformity, dissonance, immersion, and internalization differed by the independent variable of generational status (Generation Y, Generation X, or Baby Boomer), individual ANOVAs were run. The ANOVAs showed which DVs differed and whether the differences were from Generation Y, Generation X, or Baby Boomers. ANOVA results indicated that there was no statistical significance in the dependent variable of internalization: the internalization

scores were similar across the three generations. Individual ANOVAs did show

significant differences among the three generations for conformity, dissonance, and

immersion. Posthoc analyses of the ANOVA were not mentioned in Chapter 3.

Finally, I used regression analysis to address the second research subquestion.

The results indicated that the group of predictors known as the four subscales

(conformity, dissonance, immersion, and internalization) contributed to the prediction of

OCB.

Scholars have found that effective leadership and consistent motivation increase

self-efficacy among minorities in the workplace (Peters & Templin, 2010). The results of

this study were in line with previous researchers who indicated that a relationship exists

between racial attitudes and citizenship behavior. Triana et al. (2011) mentioned that

OCB towards minorities in the workplace can be obtained through the understanding that

workplace modifications do influence an individual's perception of self-value and his or

her overall perception and acceptance of diversity in the workplace. There is a difference

in racial attitudes by generational status in African American women in the workplace.

Feather and Boeckmann (2007) relayed that understanding the overall group analysis

concerning racial attitudes in the workplace can play a role in understanding the impact

of age, identity issues, and self-perception on workplace acceptance and productivity.

Lara (2012) affirmed that it is important to address factors that include a holistic

picture of racial attitudes among minorities in the workplace. This facet of

multiculturalism is realized through the inclusion of narratives and surveys that address

self-efficacy and how identity issues among varying age groups of minority women

challenge the overall image of women of color (Rodriguez, 2006). Failure to understand

the pressure of discrimination and injustice on many African American women

perpetuates a workplace culture that minimizes the importance of cultural synergy,

awareness, and acceptance. Sanchez-Hucles (1997) noted that inclusion of minorities in

the community, society, and the workplace reduces the power of psychological and

historical myths that often stigmatize African American women. Addressing factors that

impact self-efficacy and identity issues of African American women can minimize the

oppressive thoughts that are passed down from generation to generation in the education

of African American women and their daughters (Evans-Winters & Esposito, 2010).

Bates (2007) added that African American women who have reached higher levels of

education still experience discrimination, and that the more education an African

American woman has, the more susceptible she is to racism and social injustice. Many of

the African American women in this study obtained a bachelor's degree or higher.

Gasman (2007) further confirmed that African American women who attend historically

black colleges and universities (HBCUs) are not exempt from social discrimination.

Limitations

The *p*-value indicates if the variables in the study are related. Levene's test for

equality of variances checks the assumption of equal variances. All of the MANOVA and

ANOVA tests are generally strong in their violations. However, the variables are overall

significant, and a normally distributed MANOVA is considerably robust in nature

(Cohen, 1988), which addresses minor violations of the quality of variances assumption.

The adjusted *p*-value also allows for adjustments in significance levels that account for

inflation in TYPE I error. The more times that the test is run, the more errors may occur. In some instances, *p*-values were rounded; however, the *p*-values were such that whether they were rounded or not, the significant values would still be significant and the not significant values would still not be significant.

Understanding the relationship between generational status and racial attitudes as a predictor of OCB in African American women is essential in understanding cultural synergy and modifications to address discrimination and other disparities concerning racial attitudes in the workplace. Evans and Cokley (2008) stated that career coaching and mentoring can increase the number of African American women in occupations that traditionally employed few of them. Including African American women of varying age groups in the workplace community assists in decreasing social injustice and discrimination in the workplace (Schulz & Lempert, 2004).

The findings from this study have implications for several audiences. They could become a resource for understanding how racial attitudes impact the way African American women interact with nonminority employees. The results of the study may also provide information on the motivational factors that support African American women in the workplace so that they feel accepted and valued.

Understanding that there is a relationship between generational status and racial attitudes among varying age groups of African American women in the workplace helps in increasing OCB. Throughout history, African American women have not been socially welcomed or accepted in progressively mobile managerial or administrative careers (Gaetane, 2006). The results from the study affirmed other scholars' findings that racial

attitudes among the Baby Boomers varied from those of Generation X and Generation Y. Gooley (1990) suggested that this could be because perceptions of African American women throughout history have not been explored; many narratives and academic publications have not explored the social and emotional implications of preconceived notions and stereotypes that affect race relations and racial attitudes in the workplace.

Social Implications

Workforce leaders should consider the implications of these findings when looking for ways to increase entrepreneurship and career advancement opportunities for minority women. More opportunity can be achieved through social change, awareness, and historical insight into political, educational, and social modifications that are needed (Nieves, 2005). The results of this study provide insight into racial attitudes among varying age groups of African American women and how this may impact workplace culture and the social dynamic.

Historically, the opinions of minorities have been either unexplored or silenced to decrease racial assimilation among minorities (Lykes, 1983). Hunter (2002) confirmed that backlashes against cultural and workplace assimilation among African American women have been prevalent throughout history. Managers, leaders, and advocates should recognize that the presence and the importance of African American women have been largely erased from history and research. This has led to stereotypes about who and what the African American woman is capable of becoming and achieving (Bomberger, 1998). McAndrew (2010) added that the emergence of what is perceived beauty and what is acceptable behavior among African American women as opposed to their European

American counterparts is further alienated through the images of African American women portrayed through social media, television, and music. Media influence strengthens the stereotypical view of African American women that often hinders workplace race relations. Gibson and Abrams (2003) suggested that when racial differences are understood, stereotypes can be conquered and racial equality can be achieved.

Continued research will assist in obtaining positive social change in that there will be an increased awareness of the impact of age upon the racial attitudes of women of color in the workplace. This increases workplace synergy and brings awareness to those who are unaware of the many stereotypes that impact African American women in the workplace. Many of these stereotypes negatively impact the socioeconomic status, self-esteem, racial attitudes, and overall outlooks of African American women in the workplace and society. This study provided awareness of how racial attitudes about African American women affect these women's psychological, emotional, and physical well-being.

Implications for Future Research and Practice

One recommendation for future research is to include a study of minority women who attended HBCUs. The participants in this study were comprised mostly of non-HBCU graduates; future researchers could implement this study using a sample of HBCU graduates only. Additional research can further address the gap in the literature and create strides toward social change as it relates to stress, race, generational status, and self-perception. Future scholars can conduct studies on graduates of HBCUs in order to assist

in the overall advocacy of understanding racial attitudes in the workplace. HBCU graduates can be studied to address perceptions, practices, mindsets, and stereotypes that may impact their perception of racial attitudes and how it differs from that of minorities who did not attend HBCUs. Ross (2003) promoted the importance of education at HBCUs in obtaining success, self-identity, and economic success. Ross noted that the obstacles and challenges faced by African American women are often addressed and understood at HBCUs more readily than at non-HBCU schools.

Another suggestion for future research would be to include the racial attitudes of African American men. It is important to include African American men in a future study because workplace barriers and discrimination impact not just a part of society, but society as a whole. If the male population is excluded, it may threaten the motivation and acceptance of African American men in the workforce. McAtee and Benshoff (2006) stated that it is important for researchers to address the social pressure and anxiety that impact African Americans and the impact that failure to understand or incorporate historical research can have on the community, workplace, and family dynamic. Singh et al. (1995) affirmed the importance of the African American male perspective, noting that there is a difference in workplace morale and satisfaction among African American men and women and their nonminority counterparts. Future research could use the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory and the Ambivalence towards Men Inventory (Daily & Humphreys, 2011) to study attitudes of hostility and benevolence towards minorities and how that benevolence influences gender opinion, differences, and workplace discrimination.

Conclusion

The insight gained from this study addresses an existing gap in literature related to organizational psychology as it relates to self-efficacy and racial attitudes. This study provided organizational development practitioners with insight into the psyches of African American women employees. Awareness of the emotional, physical, and psychological mindsets of African American women can improve workplace relations and may help to maximize organizational satisfaction and productivity. The results of this study can be used to increase cultural synergy and promote the inclusion of African American women in organizational culture through the implementation of ethnic-focused interventions in the workplace.

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Appendix A: Permission/Receipt to Use PRIAS and OCB-C Instruments

Huentity Psychological Consulting LLC

huentityllc@gmail.com

INVOICE

BILL TO
LaDonna Cooper
PO Box 2053
Roanoke Rapids, NC 27870

INVOICE # 1040
DATE 12/28/2017
DUE DATE 12/28/2017
TERMS Due on receipt

ACTIVITY	QTY	RATE	AMOUNT
PRIAS-D People of Color Racial Identity Attitude Scale (Dissertation Discount) - PDF w. permission to administer electronically up to 208 times	1	208.00	208.00
PRIAS-S People of Color Racial Identity Attitude Scale Scoring Key	1	0.00	0.00
Shipping Handling	1	10.00	10.00

PAID

You might also like "A Race is A Nice Thing to Have: A Guide to Being A White Person or Understanding the White Persons in Your Life" by Dr. Janet E. Helms	PAYMENT	218.00
	BALANCE DUE	**$0.00**

Professor Spector,

Thank you so much for your prompt response. I will certainly keep you updated when my research is complete. Again thank you!

On Mon, Jun 2, 2014 at 7:24 PM, Spector, Paul wrote:

Dear LaDonna:

You have my permission to use in your research any of my instruments I have provided on my website, including the OCB-C. You can find details about them in the Scales section of my website http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector. I allow free use for noncommercial research and teaching purposes in return for sharing of results. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student and nonstudent research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included as indicated on the website. Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a dissertation). You also have permission to translate any of my scales into another language under the same conditions in addition to sharing a copy of the translation with me. Be sure to include the copyright statement, as well as credit the person who did the translation with the year.

Thank you for your interest in my scales, and good luck with your research.

Appendix B: Demographic Survey

1. What is your gender?

   1. Male

   2. Female

2. What is your age category?

   1. 21-34

   2. 35-49

   3. 50-64

3. What is your ethnicity?

   1. African American

   2. Asian

   3. Caucasian

   4. Hispanic

   5. Other

4. What is your race? For purposes of this question, persons of Hispanic/Latino origin may be of any race.

   1. White

2. Black or African American

3. American Indian and Alaska Native

4. Asian

5. Native Hawaiian

6. Other

5. What is your education level?

 1. Less than high school

 2. High school graduate (includes equivalency)

    3. Completed some college, no degree

    4. Associate's degree

    5. Bachelor's degree

    6, Completed some postgraduate

    7. Master's degree

    8. Ph.D., law or medical degree

    9. Other advanced degree beyond a Master's degree

 6.   What is your marital or partner status?

    1.   Single (never married)

    2.   Married

    3.   Separated

    4.   Widowed

5. Divorced

7. How many hours per week do you USUALLY work at your job?

    1. 35 hours a week or more

    2. Less than 35 hours a week

    3. I am not currently employed

8. What best describes the type of organization you work for?

    1. For profit

    2. Non-profit (religious, arts, social assistance, etc.)

    3. Government

    4. Health Care

    5. Education

    6. Other

9. Which of the following most closely matches your job title?

    1. Intern

    2. Entry Level

    3. Analyst / Associate

    4. Manager

5. Senior Manager

6. Director

7. Vice President

8. Senior Vice President

9. C level executive (CIO, CTO, COO, CMO, Etc)

10. President or CEO

11. Self-Employed

10. Did you attend a Historically Black University?

1. Yes

2. No

Appendix C: Power Analysis

Analysis:	A priori: Compute required sample size		
Input:	Effect size f²	=	0.15
	α err prob	=	0.05
	Power (1-β err prob)	=	0.80
	Number of predictors	=	4
Output:	Noncentrality parameter λ	=	12.7500000
	Critical F	=	2.4858849
	Numerator df	=	4
	Denominator df	=	80
	Total sample size	=	85
	Actual power	=	0.8030923

1] --
F tests - MANOVA: Global effects
Options: Pillai V, O'Brien-Shieh Algorithm
Analysis: A priori: Compute required sample size
Input: Effect size f²(V)   = 0.0625
               α err prob   = 0.05
               Power (1-β err prob)   = 0.80
               Number of groups   = 3
               Response variables   = 4
Output: Noncentrality parameter λ   = 15.7500000
               Critical F   = 1.9767891
               Numerator df   = 8.0000000
               Denominator df   = 242
               Total sample size   = 126
               Actual power   = 0.8073977
               Pillai V   = 0.1176471

[2] --
F tests - MANOVA: Global effects
Options: Pillai V, O'Brien-Shieh Algorithm
Analysis: A priori: Compute required sample size
Input: Effect size f²(V)   = 0.2500000
               α err prob   = 0.05
               Power (1-β err prob)   = 0.80
               Number of groups   = 3
               Response variables   = 4
Output: Noncentrality parameter λ   = 18.0000000
               Critical F   = 2.0916931
               Numerator df   = 8.0000000
               Denominator df   = 62.0000000
               Total sample size   = 36
               Actual power   = 0.8276525
               Pillai V   = 0.4000000

[3] --
F tests - Linear multiple regression: Fixed model, R² increase
Analysis: A priori: Compute required sample size
Input: Effect size f²   = 0.15
               α err prob   = 0.05
               Power (1-β err prob)   = 0.8
               Number of tested predictors   = 4
               Total number of predictors   = 4
Output: Noncentrality parameter λ   = 12.7500000
               Critical F   = 2.4858849
               Numerator df   = 4
               Denominator df   = 80
               Total sample size   = 85
               Actual power   = 0.8030923

Correlations

		Conformity	Dissonance	Immersion
Dissonance	Pearson Correlation	.747**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		
	N	187		
Immersion	Pearson Correlation	.183*	.258**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.000	
	N	191	183	
Internalizatio n	Pearson Correlation	-.300**	-.423**	-.357
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	188	181	185

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

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

GLM Conformity Dissonance Immersion Internalization BY Generation

/METHOD=SSTYPE(3)

/INTERCEPT=INCLUDE

/PLOT=PROFILE(Generation)

/PRINT=DESCRIPTIVE ETASQ OPOWER HOMOGENEITY

/CRITERIA=ALPHA(.05)

/DESIGN= Generat

General Linear Model

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Generation	1.00	Generation Y	65
	2.00	Generation X	87
	3.00	Baby Boomer	17

Descriptive Statistics

	Generation	Mean	SD	N
Conformity	Generation Y	2.2462	.37915	65
	Generation X	2.1820	.43199	87
	Baby Boomer	2.5049	.20723	17
Dissonance	Generation Y	2.8429	.47164	65
	Generation X	2.6297	.60428	87
	Baby Boomer	3.2227	.23674	17
Immersion	Generation Y	2.8956	.25849	65
	Generation X	2.8292	.35985	87
	Baby Boomer	3.1471	.41762	17
Internalization	Generation Y	4.3969	.36485	65
	Generation X	4.4310	.41689	87
	Baby Boomer	4.1471	.34117	17

Multivariate Tests[1]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.996	11162.608[2]	4.000	163.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.004	11162.608[2]	4.000	163.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	273.929	11162.608[2]	4.000	163.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	273.929	11162.608[2]	4.000	163.000	.000
Generation	Pillai's Trace	.159	3.533	8.000	328.000	.001
	Wilks' Lambda	.843	3.620[2]	8.000	326.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.183	3.705	8.000	324.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.168	6.870[3]	4.000	164.000	.000

Multivariate Tests[1]

Effect		Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power[4]
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.996	44650.431	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.996	44650.431	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.996	44650.431	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.996	44650.431	1.000
Generation	Pillai's Trace	.079	28.266	.982
	Wilks' Lambda	.082	28.957	.984
	Hotelling's Trace	.084	29.639	.986
	Roy's Largest Root	.144	27.480	.993

1. Design: Intercept + Generation

2. Exact statistic

3. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

4. Computed using alpha = .05

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[1]

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Conformity	5.918	2	166	.003
Dissonance	8.107	2	166	.000
Immersion	4.740	2	166	.010
Internalizatio n	2.847	2	166	.061

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.[1]

1. Design: Intercept + Generation

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Intercept	Conformity	560.861	1	560.861	3589.647
	Dissonance	882.212	1	882.212	3146.908
	Immersion	918.416	1	918.416	8375.335
	Internalization	1964.368	1	1964.368	12874.519
Generation	Conformity	1.488	2	.744	4.762
	Dissonance	5.540	2	2.770	9.882
	Immersion	1.445	2	.722	6.588
	Internalization	1.153	2	.576	3.778
Error	Conformity	25.937	166	.156	
	Dissonance	46.537	166	.280	

	Immersion	18.203	166	.110
	Internalization	25.328	166	.153
Total	Conformity	874.757	169	
	Dissonance	1350.056	169	
	Immersion	1427.959	169	
	Internalization	3282.500	169	

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter
Intercept	Conformity	.000	.956	3589.647
	Dissonance	.000	.950	3146.908
	Immersion	.000	.981	8375.335
	Internalization	.000	.987	12874.519
Generation	Conformity	.010	.054	9.524
	Dissonance	.000	.106	19.763
	Immersion	.002	.074	13.176
	Internalization	.025	.044	7.556
Error	Conformity			
	Dissonance			
	Immersion			
	Internalization			
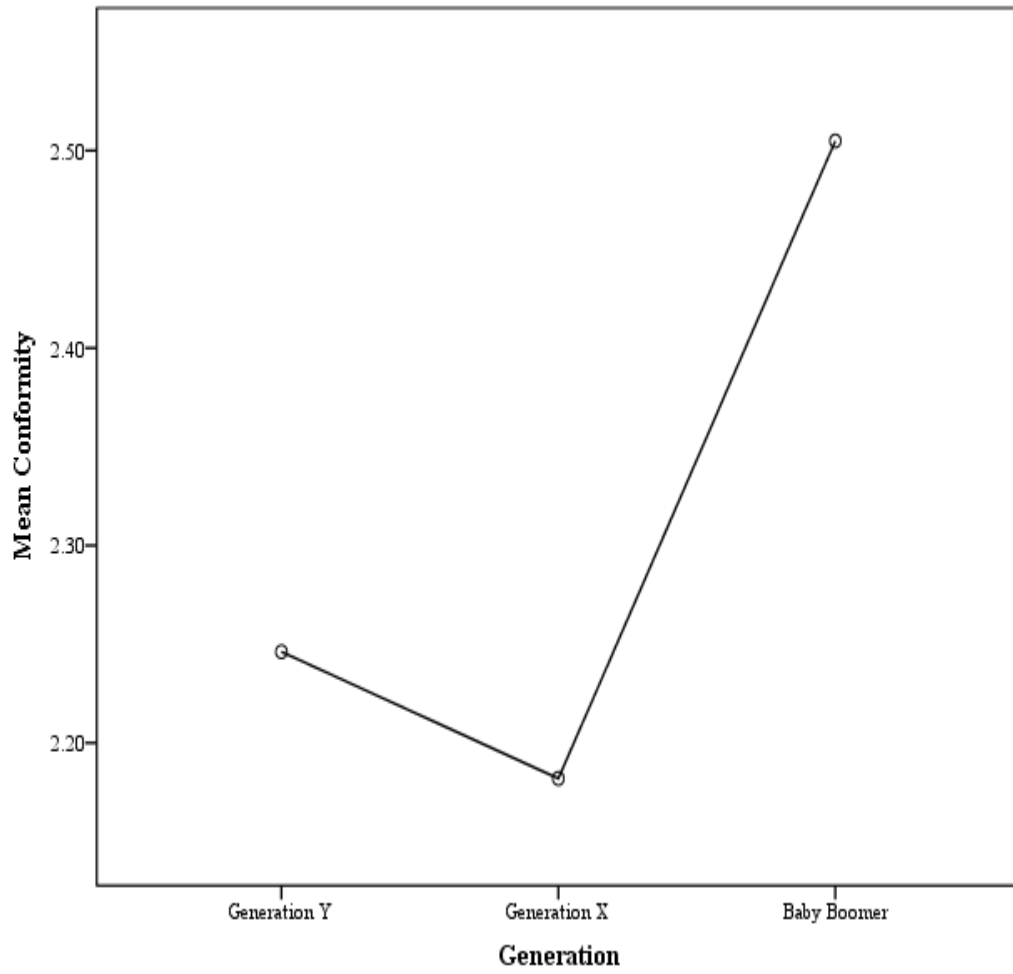
Conformity
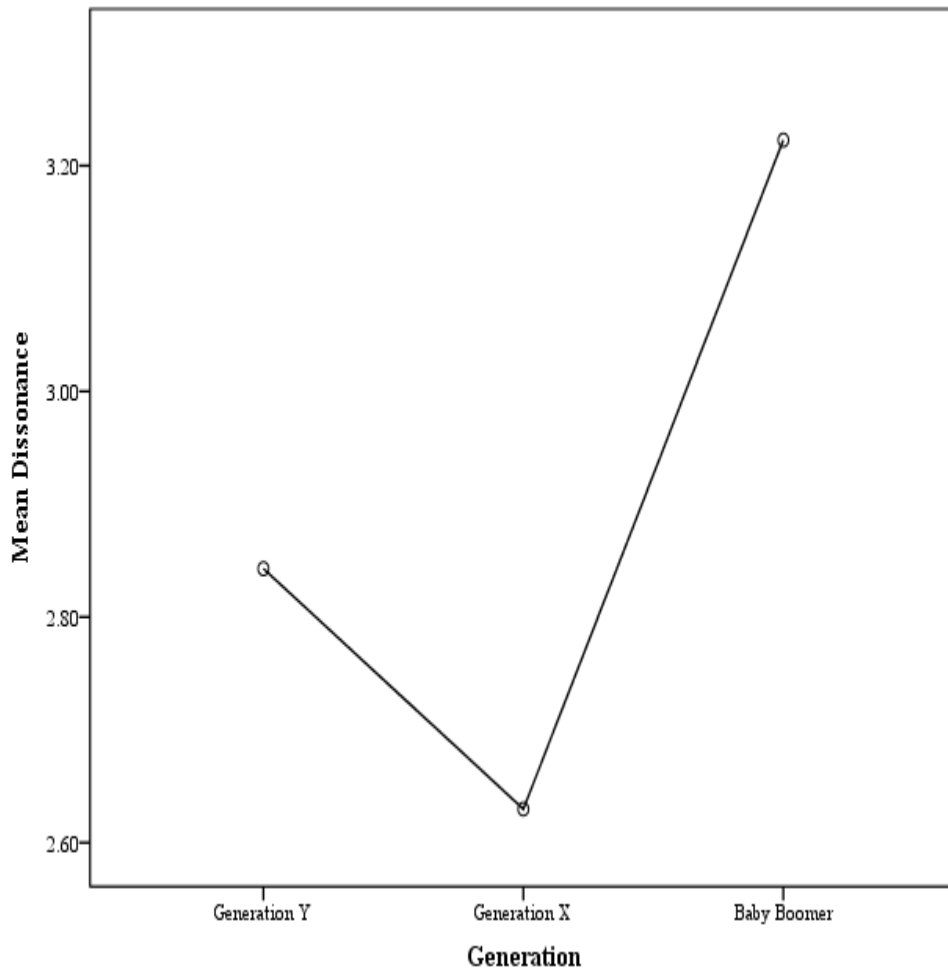
Dissonance
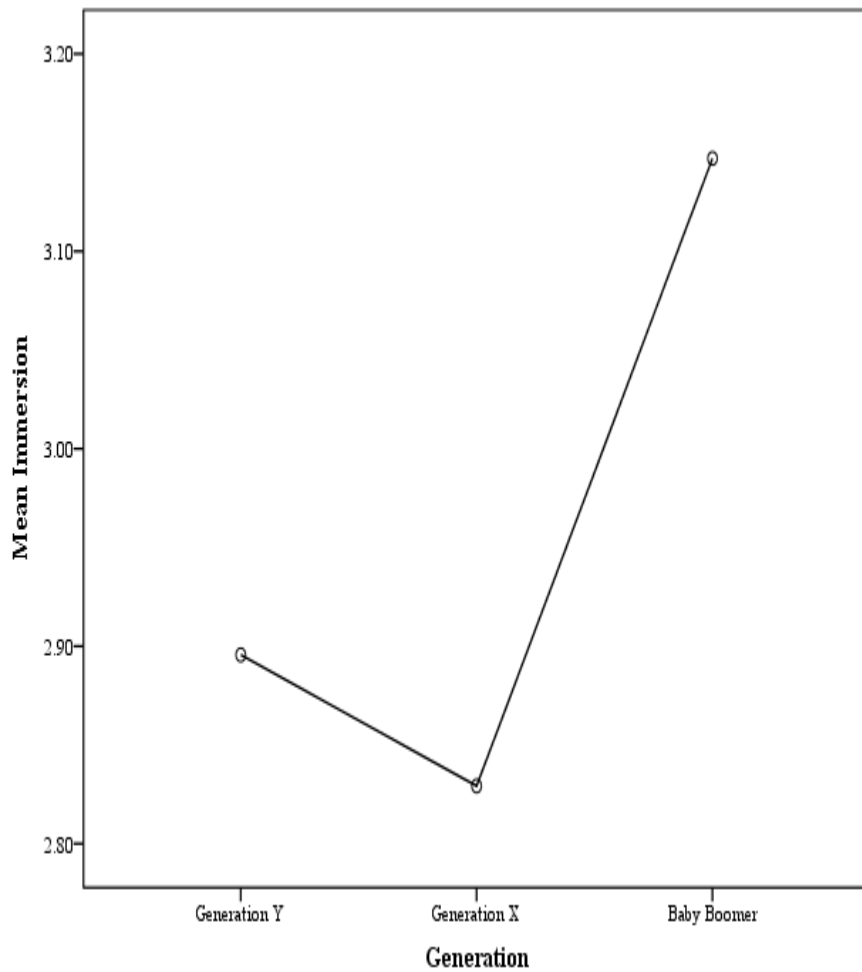
Immersion
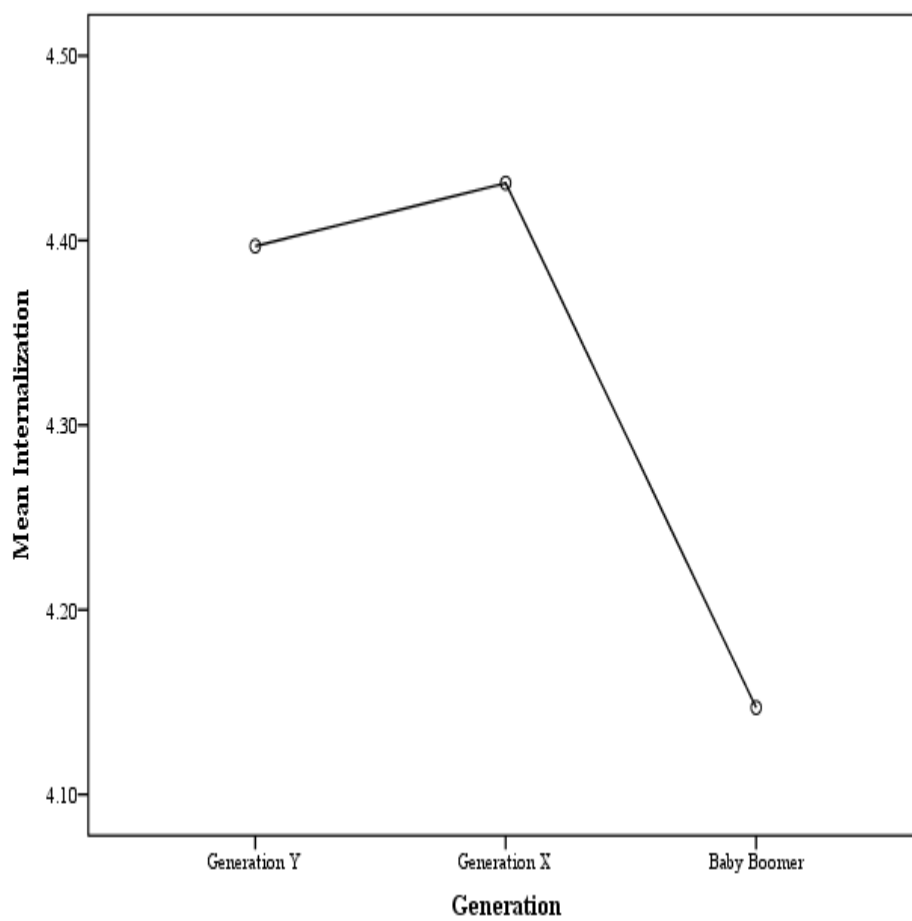
Internalization

RQ2: Regression

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=Conformity Dissonance Immersion Internalization OBC

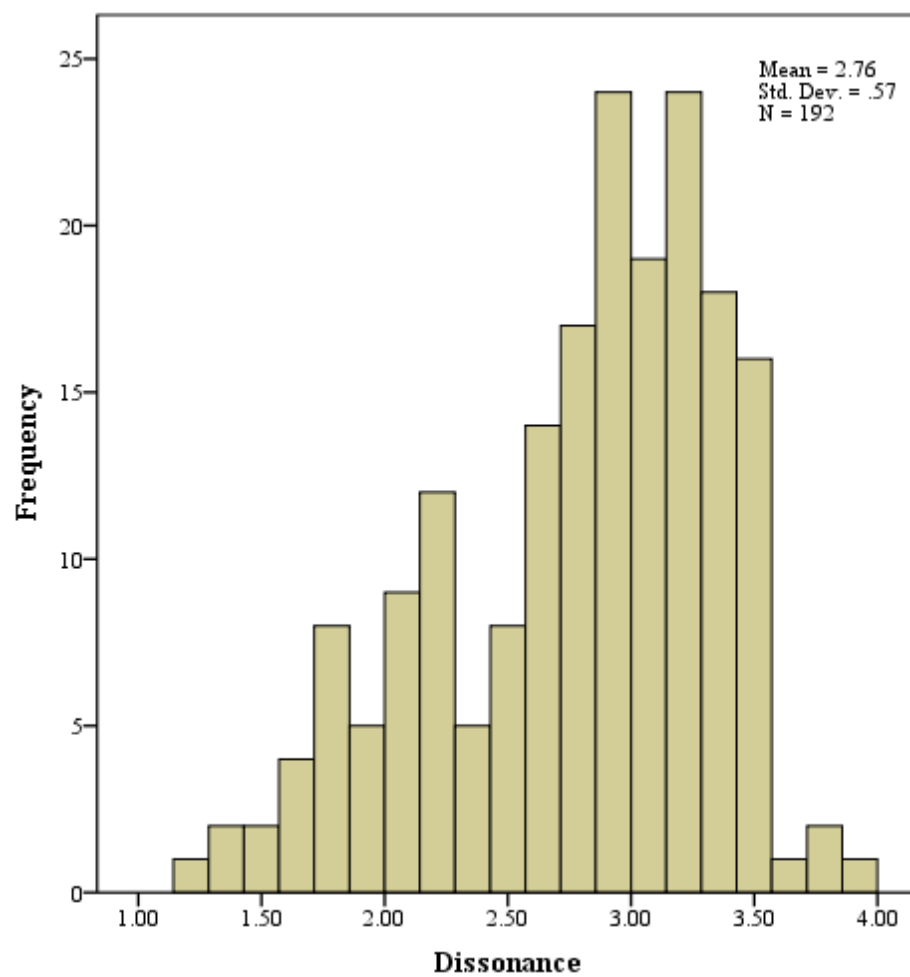 /FORMAT=NOTABLE

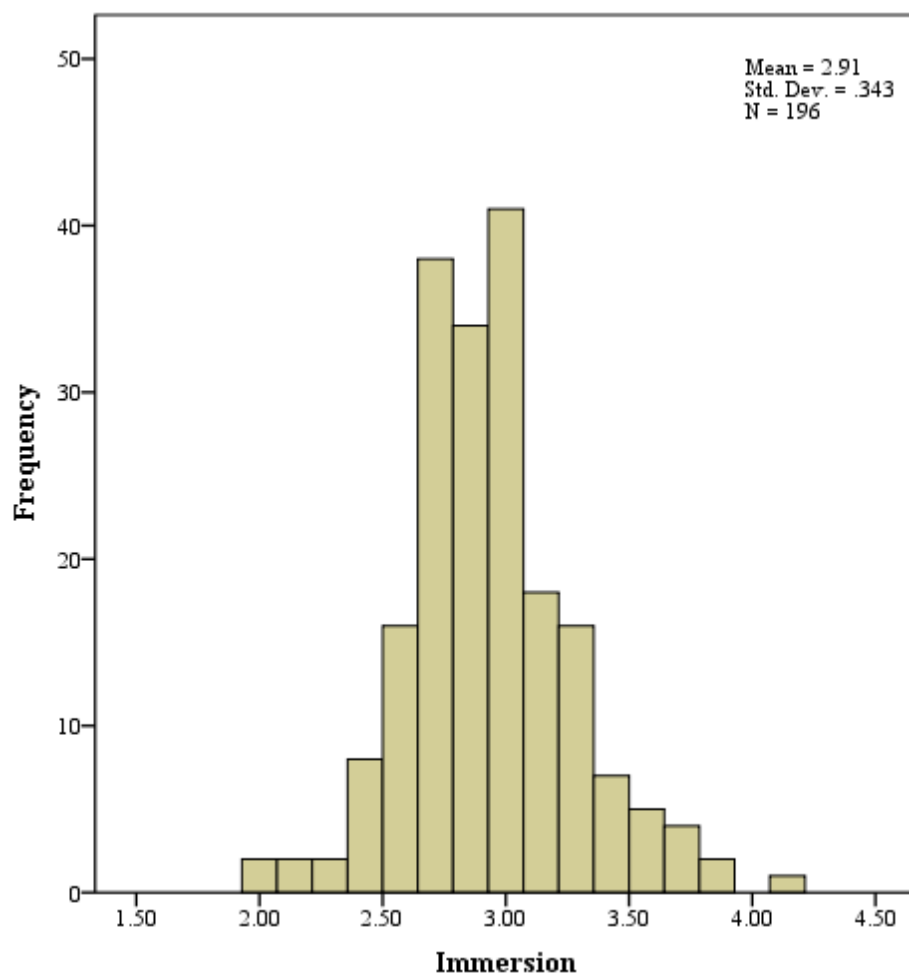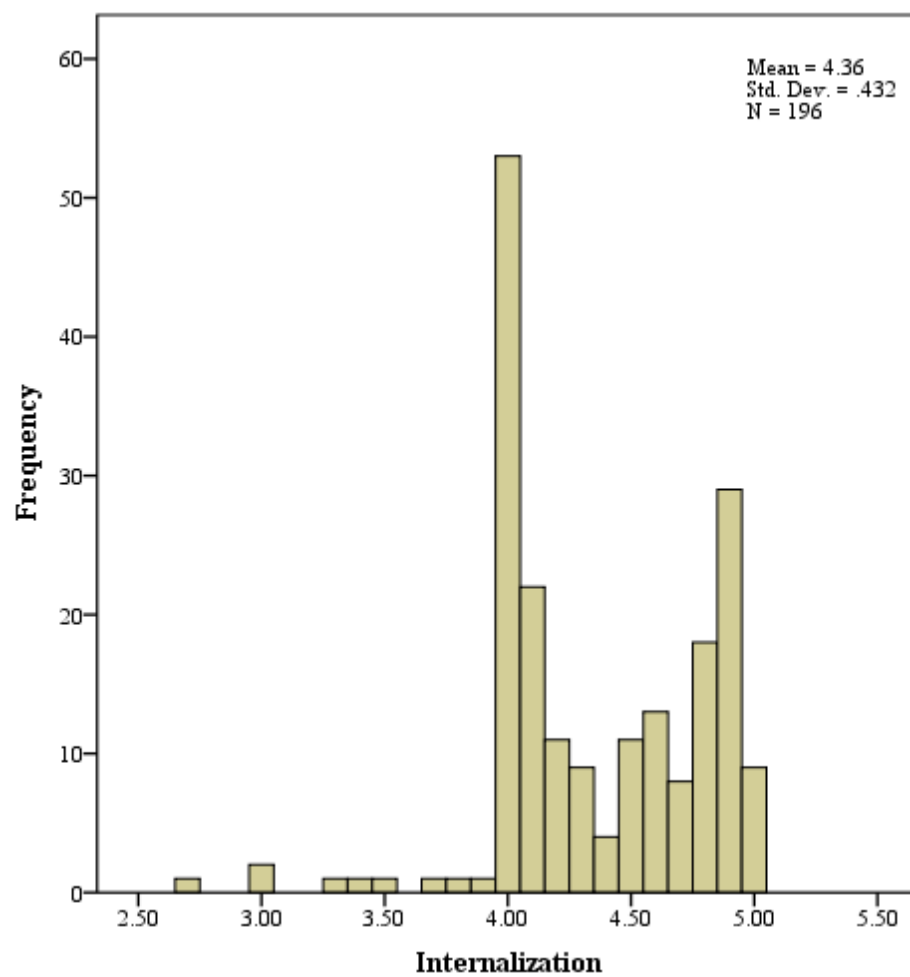 /STATISTICS=SKEWNESS SESKEW KURTOSIS SEKURT

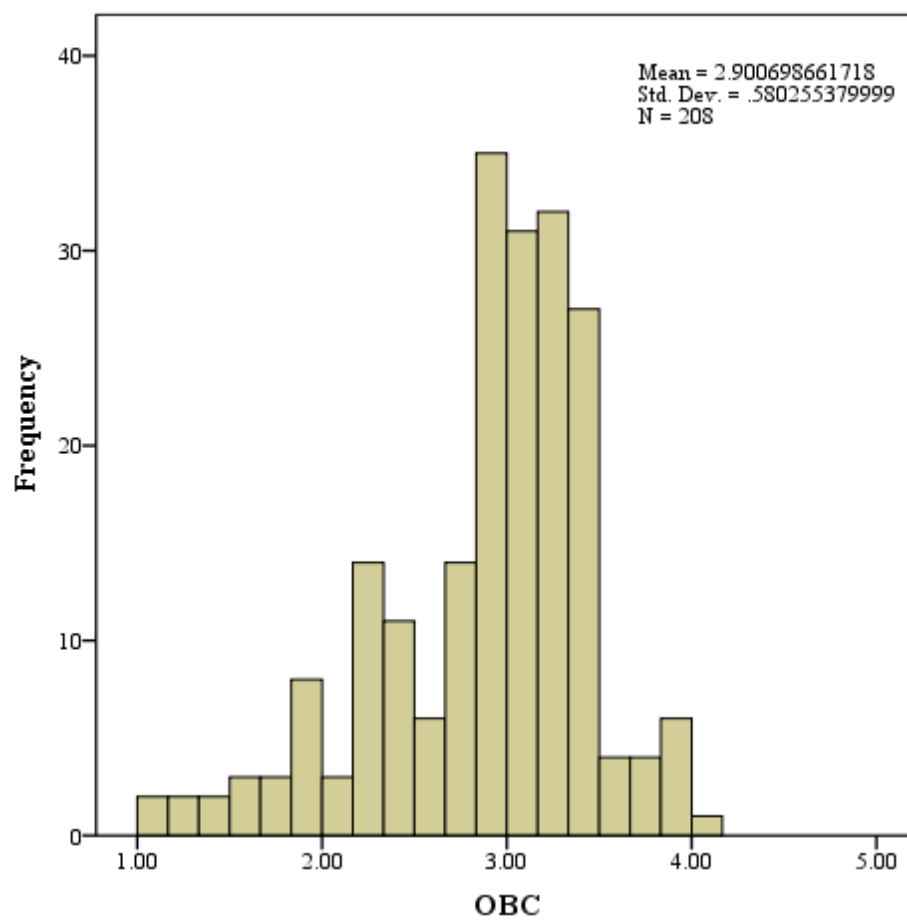 /HISTOGRAM

 /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

Frequencies

Statistics

		Conformity	Dissonance	Immersion	Internalization	OBC
N	Valid	200	192	196	196	208
	Missing	8	16	12	12	0
Skewness		-.734	-.654	.426	-.467	-.982
Std. Error of Skewness		.172	.175	.174	.174	.169
Kurtosis		-.312	-.252	.876	.499	.976
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.342	.349	.346	.346	.336

Mean = 2.24
Std. Dev. = .412
N = 200

Mean = 4.36
Std. Dev. = .432
N = 196

Mean = 2.900698661718
Std. Dev. = .580255379999
N = 208
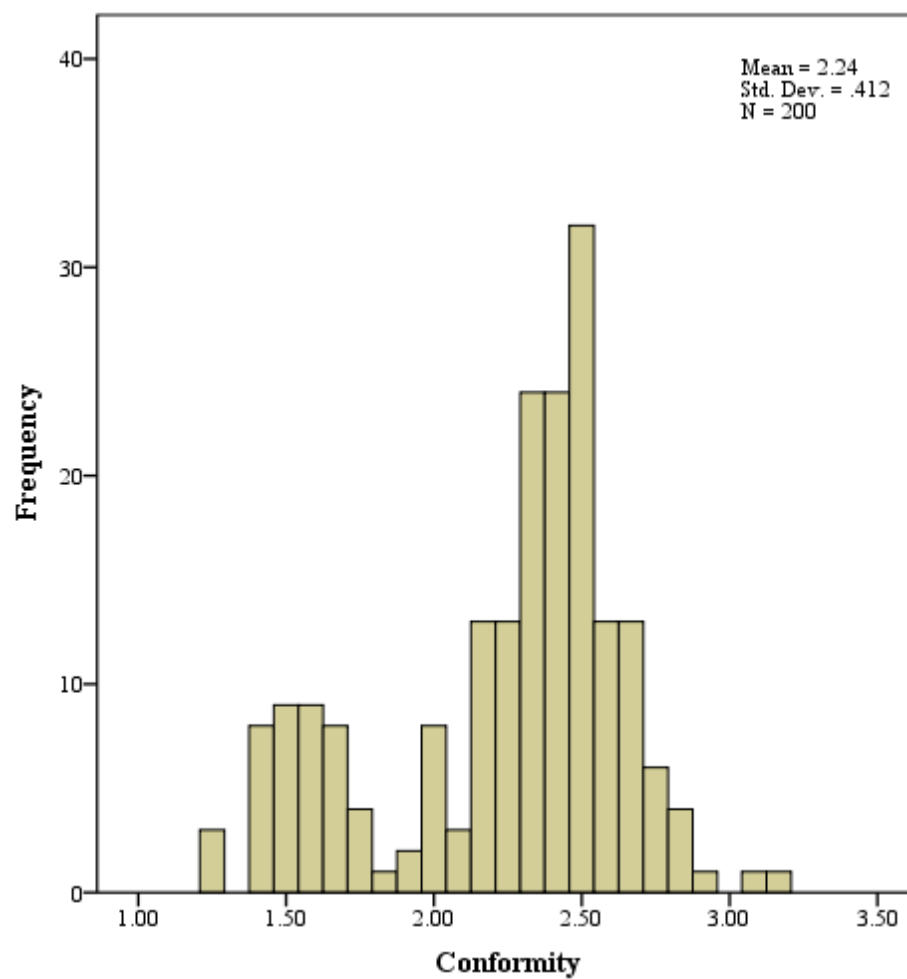
PPLOT

/VARIABLES=Conformity Dissonance Immersion Internalization OBC
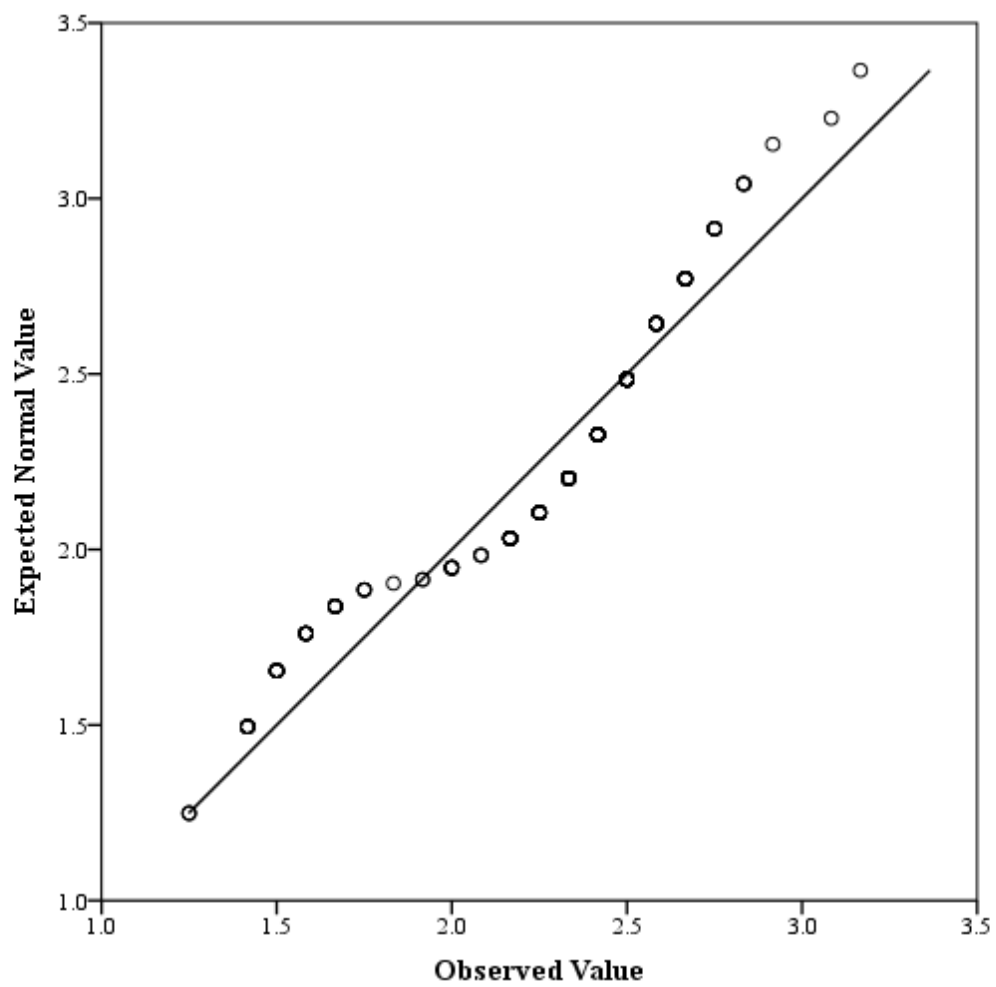
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/TYPE=Q-Q

/FRACTION=BLOM

/TIES=MEAN

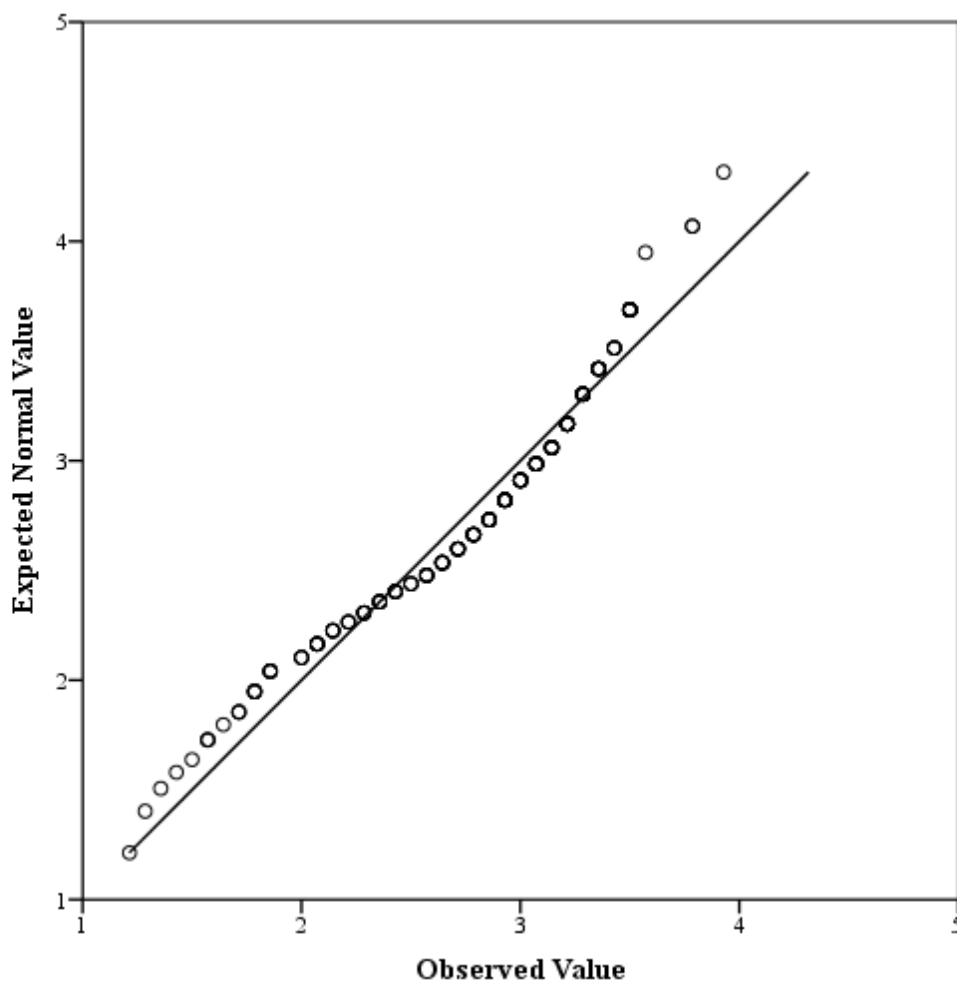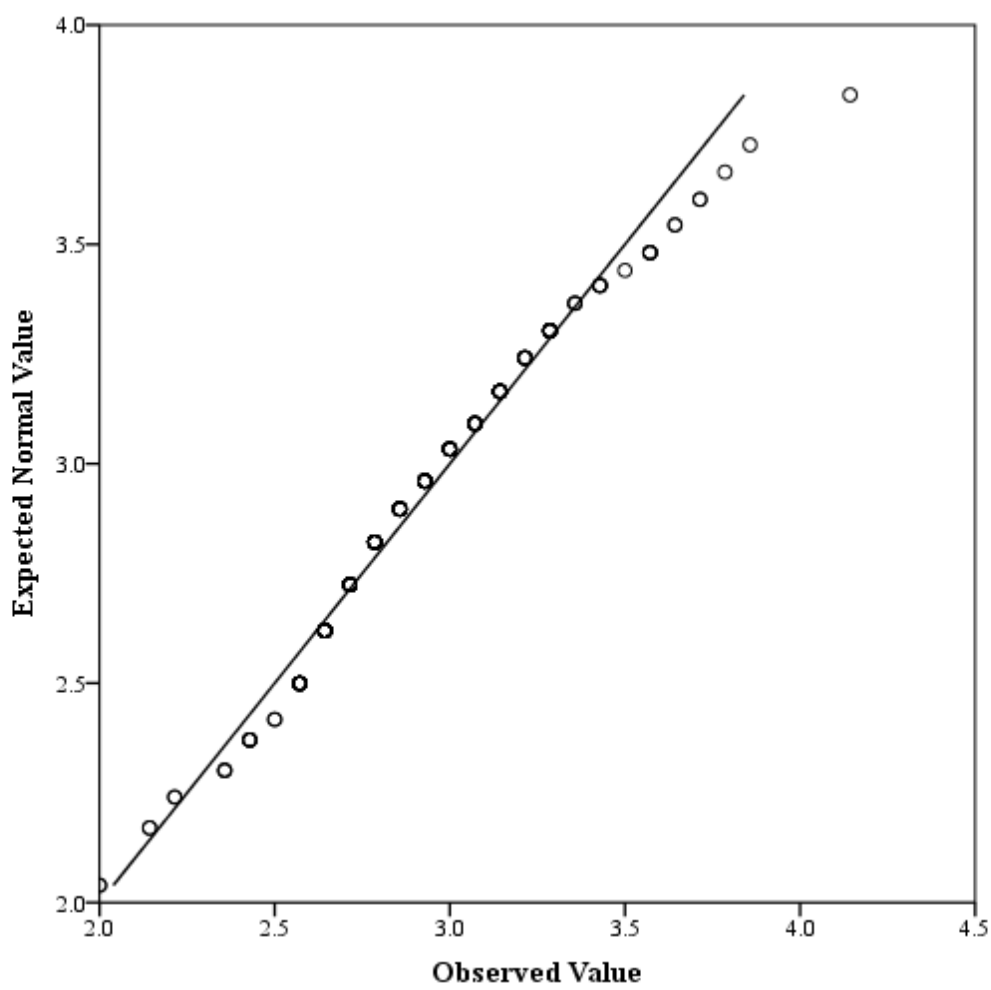/DIST=NORMAL.
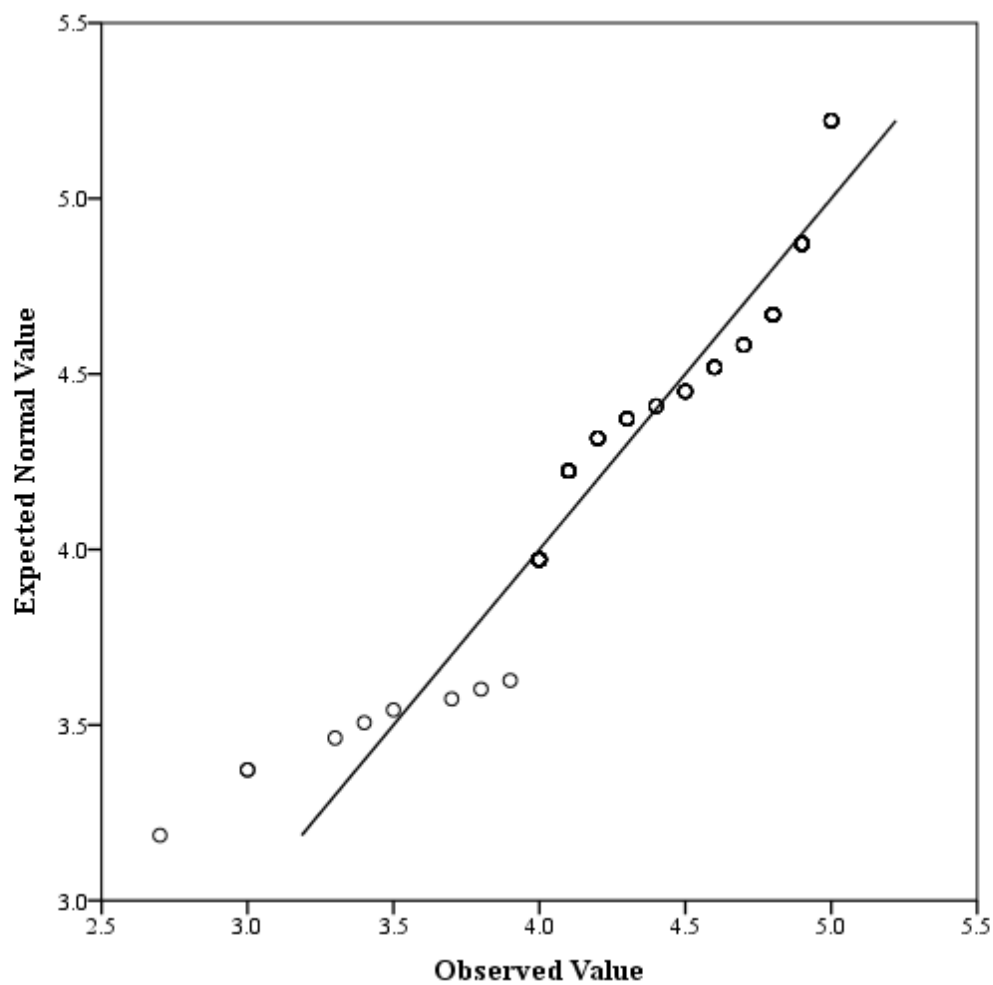
Q-Q Plot

Conformity
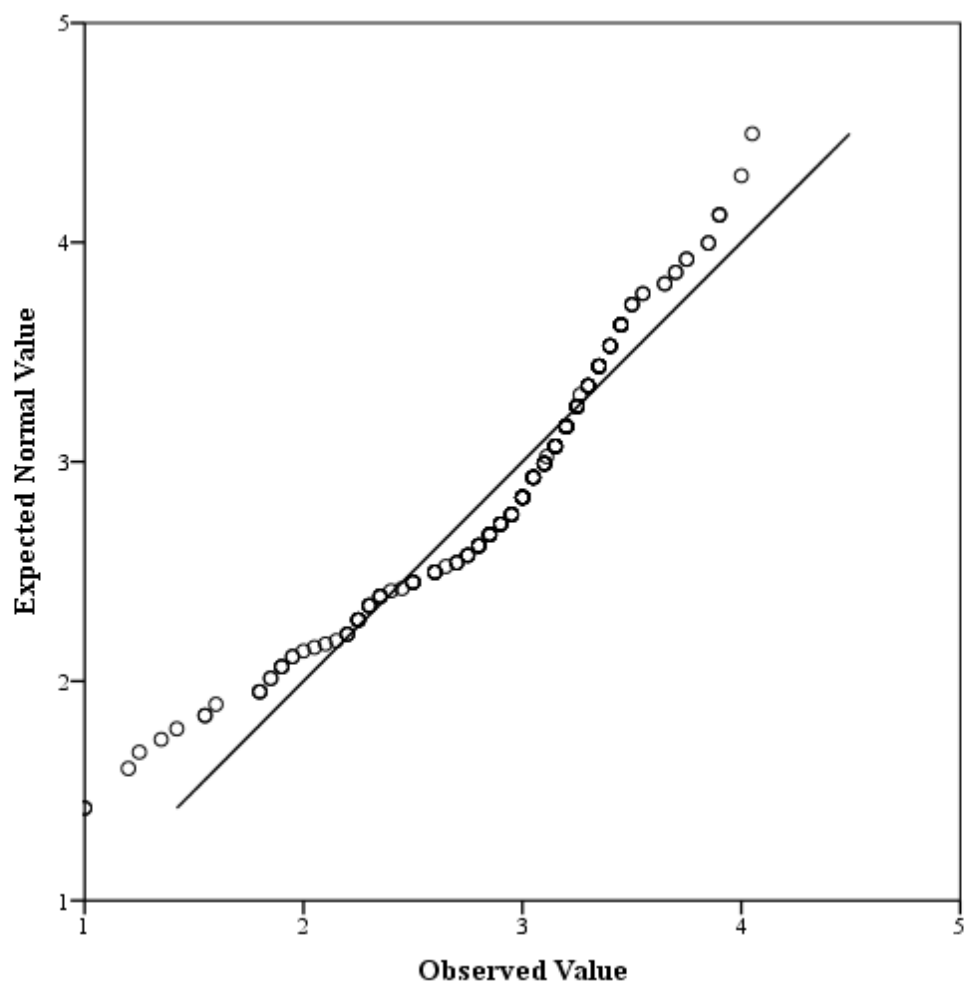
Dissonance

Immersion

Internalization

OBC

REGRESSION

 /MISSING LISTWISE

/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS R ANOVA CHANGE

/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)

/NOORIGIN

/DEPENDENT OBC

/METHOD=ENTER Conformity Dissonance Immersion Internalization

/RESIDUALS HISTOGRAM(ZRESID) NORMPROB(ZRESID).

Variables Entered/Removed[1]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Internalization, Conformity, Immersion, Dissonance[2]	.	Enter

1. Dependent Variable: OBC

2. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary[2]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics R Square Change
1	.552[1]	.304	.287	.462269880000000	.304

1. Predictors: (Constant), Internalization, Conformity, Immersion, Dissonance

2. Dependent Variable: OBC

ANOVA[1]

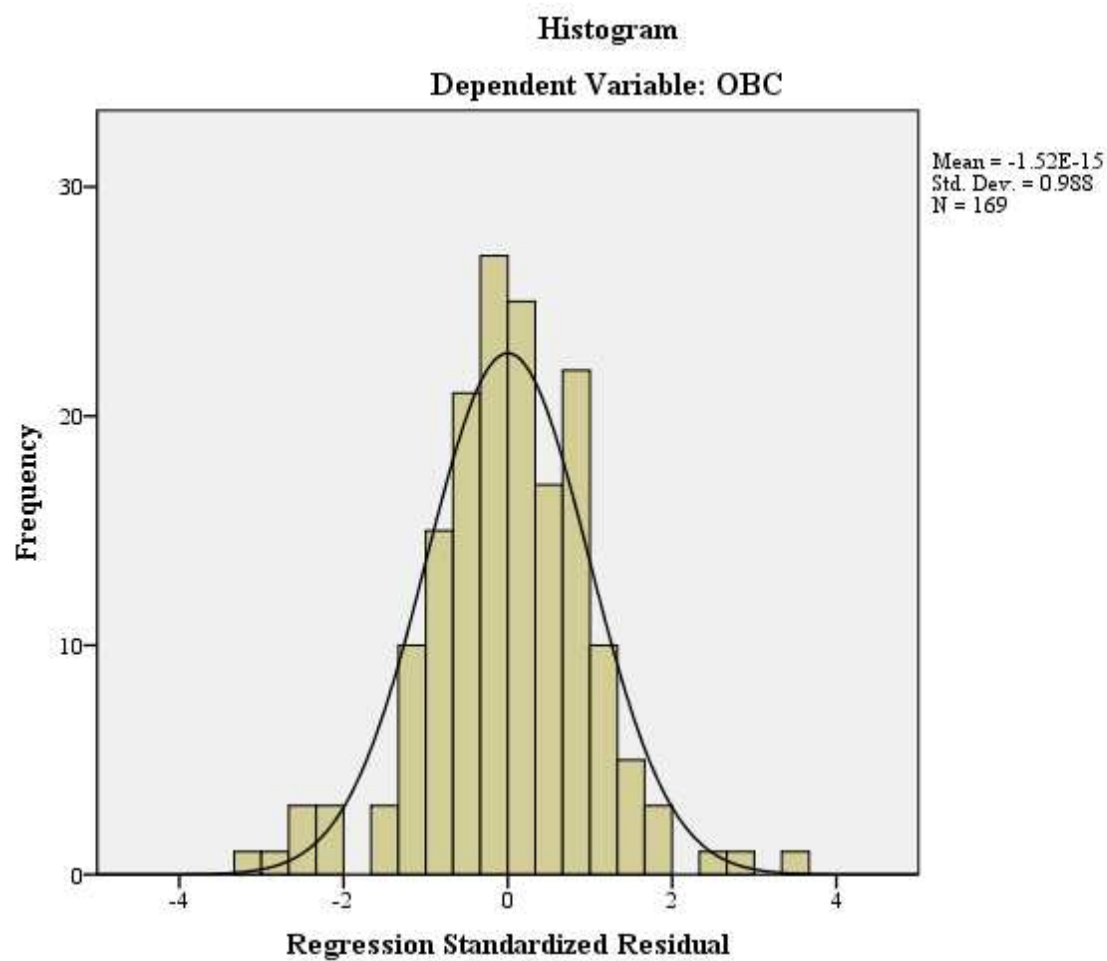| Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	15.321	4	3.830	17.924	.000[2]
Residual	35.046	164	.214		
Total	50.367	168			

1. Dependent Variable: OBC

2. Predictors: (Constant), Internalization, Conformity, Immersion, Dissonance

Coefficients[1]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	1.688	.735		2.298	.023
Conformity	.347	.130	.256	2.677	.008
Dissonance	.351	.097	.356	3.606	.000
Immersion	-.206	.114	-.129	-1.811	.072
Internalization	.023	.105	.017	.223	.824

1. Dependent Variable: OBC

Charts

Histogram

Dependent Variable: OBC

Mean = -1.52E-15
Std. Dev. = 0.988
N = 169

Frequency

Regression Standardized Residual

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: OBC