Walden University

College of Management and Technology

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Saundra Carr

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Walden University
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Abstract

Racial Microaggressions, Faculty Motivation, and Job Satisfaction

in Southeastern Universities

by

Saundra E. Carr

MA, Webster University, 2008

BSc, Voorhees College, 2005

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

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Abstract

For racial minority faculty, racism is associated with adverse outcomes, including poor job satisfaction and less motivation, which may lead faculty to leave the teaching profession. It is unknown what relationships, if any, exist among perceived racial microaggression, job satisfaction, and employee motivation among African American (AA) faculty and other faculty of color in colleges and universities in the southeastern United States. Critical race theory provided a framework to investigate the relationship of perceived racial microaggressions toward AA faculty and other faculty of color with motivation and job satisfaction. This study involved a correlational design using multiple linear regressions to determine the relationships between the variables in a sample of 42 AA faculty and other faculty of color. In the multiple linear regression analysis, the predictor variables were 6 microaggression subscales (assumptions of inferiority, second-class citizen and assumption of criminality, microinvalidations, exoticization/assumptions of similarity, environmental microaggressions, and workplace and school micro-aggressions). The outcome variables were employee motivation and job satisfaction. The results of the analysis indicated no significant relationships between perceived level of microaggressions and job satisfaction or between perceived level of microaggressions and employee motivation. To determine possible bivariate relationships, Pearson's correlations were performed. Assumptions of inferiority and microinvalidations were negatively correlated with job satisfaction, which suggests that when examined in isolation, higher assumptions of inferiority and microinvalidations were associated with lower levels of job satisfaction. Implications for positive social change pertain to ways that oppression and racism can be eliminated in colleges and universities.

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Dedication

To my deceased sister, Geraldine Denise Blocker, for her love and support, and for having the foresight to see my potential as a lifelong learner and recognizing my success through hard work and fortitude.

To my son, Arthur Christopher Carr, and my siblings, Jacqueline Yvonne, Jesse Christopher, and Reginald Baron, whose love, support, and appreciation made it possible to accomplish this.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to understand the relationship, if any, between perceived racial microaggressions and job motivation and job satisfaction for African American (AA) faculty and other faculty of color in southeastern colleges and universities. Several scholars noted that AA faculty must address challenging climates at predominantly White institutions (Levin, Jackson-Boothby, Haberler, & Walker, 2015). In particular, encounters with racism can be frustrating and hurtful, deterring AA scholars from entering academia and leading to early departure from an institution or, more significantly, from academia. Numerous studies have demonstrated negative effects that racism, racial oppression, and educational inequities have on individuals' motivation and job satisfaction (Levin et al., 2015).

In the 21st century, global issues, such as economic uncertainties, political uprisings, changing climate conditions, poverty, health care, and education are consistently at the forefront of societal concerns. Despite the importance of having faculty members in higher education reflect the proportions of representation in the general population, the goals of integration and inclusion have not been realized (Garrison-Wade, Diggs, Estrada, & Galindo, 2012). In the United States, people are living with the consequences of voluntary segregation (Motyl, Iyer, Oishi, Trawalter, & Nosek, 2014). Continued polarization of worldviews, values, mental models, education, and belief systems did not happen precipitously. The United States is becoming more diverse, and the places where people choose to live are becoming crowded with people who have similar lifestyles and beliefs (Motyl et al., 2014).

In some cases, policies have reduced government support for many state schools, steadily gutting programs during the last few decades, especially in the last few years. Observing continued polarization in the United States, researchers have hypothesized that the situation is likely to worsen (Stiglitz, 2013). These trends are happening while a college education is increasingly important to obtain a good job. Without substantial policy changes, one's self-image and the image one projects to the world will diminish, which may contribute to economic weakness, as Krueger, a Princeton economist and chair of the White House Council of Economic Advisors, has emphasized (as cited in Stiglitz, 2013).

Chapter 1 contains the background, problem statement, purpose, research question, and hypotheses of the study. The study's theoretical framework, nature, definitions of key terms, assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, and significance follow the research question and hypotheses. The chapter closes with a summary.

Background of the Study

When reviewing the literature regarding subtle and contemporary forms of racism, the term *racial microaggressions* best describes the phenomenon in its everyday occurrence. Racial microaggressions are brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral, and environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial slights and insults to the target person or group (Nadal, Griffin, Wong, Hamit, & Rasmus, 2014). Equally important is understanding and preventing racial discrimination to promote an ethical mindset in educational environments where past practices have systematically created pervasive patterns of

inequality. A literature gap exists regarding issues that are unique or specific to various racial or ethnic groups and to faculty women of color. Specifically, few researchers have measured AA faculty members' perceptions of racial microaggressions in university settings. The specific problem is that challenging microaggressions may impede the progress of potential and current AA faculty and other faculty of color. Consequently, interest has increased in understanding racial microaggressions and the patterns of their use in the business sector and local communities.

Increasingly, many inequities in education are because of lower expectations, stereotypes, and a hostile, invalidating climate for people of color, women, and those who are lesbian, gay, bisexual, or transgender (LGBT; Sue, 2010). Many scholars have extended the term racial microaggressions to explore and measure the effects of microaggressions on other races and ethnicities (Nadal, 2013; Nadal et al., 2012; Torres-Harding, Andrade, & Romero Diaz, 2012) and other social identities, such as those related to gender (Basford, Offermann, & Behrend, 2013; Lewis, Mendenhall, Harwood, & Huntt, 2013; Nadal, 2013) and sexual identity (Shelton & Delgado-Romero, 2013). However, the low representation of minority faculty may also be the result of these functions of aversive forms of racism. Furthermore, such forces may operate in subtle ways in an educational institution, affecting how schools hire teachers, staff, and administrators (Sue, 2010).

If racial, gender, and sexual-orientation microaggressions present a hostile and invalidating learning climate, affected groups are likely to suffer in any number of ways (Sue, 2010). Women, for example, may experience stereotyping because of gender microaggressions; women may underperform in mathematics and sciences despite having

high abilities, or they may become segregated in their career paths or vocational selections by well-intentioned educators (Evans, 2015; Roth, 2015). Such factors speak to educational inequities that may pervade the classroom environment (Sue, 2010). Even those minority and female students who do maintain an interest in science and engineering and related fields throughout high school often face discouragement from teachers and employers at some point in their career. For example, one study of 1,226 female, AA, Hispanic, and American Indian chemists and chemical engineers found 40% of women and underrepresented minority chemists reported being discouraged from pursuing science and engineering-related fields at some point during their career (Bayer Corporation, 2010).

These interpersonal interactions are microinvalidations because of the treatment of AAs as experts on their "foreign" culture. Moreover, allegiance ultimately depends on one's treatment in one's own country (Shevin, 2014). Many ethnic groups experience race as a major issue and a social fault line in many parts of the world, including the United States. Some wounds of past wrongs are still healing; some remain open (Shevin, 2014). Activist and comedian Dick Gregory was shot in the leg during the Los Angeles' Watts Riots in 1965. Almost 50 years later, Gregory says the anger and frustration felt by the Watts rioters then are the same sentiments felt by the community in Ferguson, Missouri in the 21st century. However, Gregory stated, individuals have the ability to show the images across the world instantaneously, as opposed to in 1965. "All over America, they're saying this situation is happening 'in St. Louis,' but people that don't live in America say, 'did you see what's going on in America?'" (as cited in Koroma, 2014, para. 3). For many AA faculty members, the educational setting presents numerous

barriers that impede their ability to engage fully in an environment that fails to meet their emotional, social, intellectual, and cultural needs (Nadal et al., 2014). In this research, I investigated the relationship between perceived racial microaggressions toward AA and other faculty of color and their employee motivation and job satisfaction.

Racial microaggressions closely relate to the constructs of racism, privilege, and oppression. Because the dynamics of privilege, oppression, and racism exist widely and pervasively across individuals, institutions, and U.S. culture, they operate and manifest in supervisory relationships as well (Sue & Sue, 2012). *Racism* is a system of unearned advantages (privilege) and unearned disadvantages (oppression) based on the social construct of race (Chang, Gnilka, & O'Hara, 2014). In many cases, racism can be intentional or unintentional, overt or covert, hostile or passive, and individual or systemic (Chang et al., 2014). However, *privileges* are unearned advantages afforded certain groups in a society based on perceived group membership (Chang et al., 2014). In addition, *oppression* includes the unearned disadvantages that exist because of racism and is the result of the restriction of societal equity, access to resources, participation in community and political processes, and public harmony that respects the common good (Ceballos & Sheely-Moore, 2015). According to Chang et al. (2014), both privilege and oppression are symptoms of social injustice.

Privilege, oppression, and racism do not always involve obvious negative treatment, but rather differential treatment that is often viewed by perpetrators of these behaviors to be relatively harmless or negligible (Huynh, 2012). Still, faculty of color have to address both how they view themselves and how the institution and its constituents view them. This personal reflection affects self-definitions and

understandings of personal and professional identities and the silence of voices of faculty of color in characterizing and defining their work, suggesting that present understanding of faculty work is limited (Levin, Walker, Haberler, & Jackson-Boothby, 2013). Researchers studying AAs have found that racism is highly correlated with mental health issues (e.g., depression and stress) and self-reported physical health issues, such as cardiovascular disease (CVD) and obesity (Davis, Gebreab, Quarells, & Gibbons, 2013; Nadal et al., 2014).

A number of researchers have documented the harmful effects of racism on the physical and mental health of specific racial groups. According to Huynh (2012), investigating the potential deleterious effects of seemingly innocuous situations on discrete emotions adds to this literature by specifying, in the long run, the effect of racial discrimination on health (Sims et al., 2015; Williams et al., 2012). Researchers' findings have suggested that Asian Americans, a group not often expected to experience racism, may also be at increased risk for CVD. As the populations of Asian Americans and other racial minority groups steadily increase in the United States, understanding the specific negative emotional effects of discrimination will be important in reducing health disparities (Huynh, 2012).

Nadal et al. (2014) examined the relationship between racial microaggressions (subtle and unintentional forms of racial discrimination) and mental health using a large sample (n = 506). The researchers found higher frequencies significantly correlated with the negative effect of depressive symptoms. Nadal et al. stated that although qualitative research is valuable in illuminating the lived experiences of people of color, quantitative

studies can be useful in empirically supporting the relationship between microaggressions and mental health problems.

Many researchers have documented the relationship between stress, including experiences of racism and discrimination, and cardiovascular health. Empirical evidence from population-based studies (Viruell-Fuentes, Miranda, & Abdulrahim, 2012), large community studies (Harris et al., 2012), cross-sectional samples (Turner & Smith, 2015; Xu, Farver, & Pauker, 2015), and longitudinal follow-up studies (Wigfield et al., 2015) of Asian Americans indicated discrimination is associated with increased risk for psychological morbidity and physical illness. A recent review of 62 empirical studies provided support for the hypothesis that discrimination aligns with diminished health quality among Asian Americans (Williams et al., 2012). An analysis of 37 of the 40 studies revealed a robust link between discrimination and mental health problems. Taken together, the data present a challenge to the stereotype that Asian Americans represent a model minority protected from the effects of discrimination (Wong, 2013).

Quarells and Gibbons (2014) stated social determinants have proven to be an important factor in the development of CVD and related risk factors. Numerous researchers have established an inverse association of socioeconomic status with various CVD risk factors, including hypertension, diabetes, and obesity. In addition, a growing body of research has shown strong association between psychosocial factors and CVD risk factors.

Furthermore, researchers have documented racial and geographic differences and the effects of social determinants on CVD (Quarells & Gibbons, 2014). For example, CVD risk factors are higher among AA women than among Caucasian women. Social

determinants of health are a major source of health disparities, including racial and geographic disparities (Quarells & Gibbons, 2014). Quarells and Gibbons (2014) posited social determinants of health refer to social conditions in which people are born, grow, work, and live. These social conditions include race and ethnicity, geographic location, socioeconomic status, and psychosocial factors.

Microaggressions are subtle indignities and insults that minority-group members may experience in their daily lives (Sue, 2010). Because of the subtlety of microaggressions, victims are often uncertain about how to respond because they have difficulty determining the intentionality of the offense (Wong, Derthick, David, Saw, & Okazaki, 2014). Though various ethnic-minority groups experience microaggressions, the focus of the present study was on perceived racial microaggressions toward AA and other faculty of color.

African Americans experience three typologies of microaggressions (Wong et al., 2014). The first typology is *microassaults*, which include overt racist interactions, such as when a racial slur is used. A microassault can be an action or remark that demeans an individual's racial heritage, such as a statement reflecting an assumption that a well-developed vocabulary is atypical for AA individuals. Second, *microinsults* are verbal and nonverbal communications that subtly convey rudeness and insensitivity and demean a person's racial heritage or identity. Heather, an AA faculty member, recounted a microinsult in an interaction in which a Caucasian graduate student asked her to make copies for her, assuming that she was a work-study student. This incident was a microinsult because the Caucasian student did not perceive Heather as a faculty member because she was an African American (Pittman, 2012). Finally, *microinvalidations* are

interactions in which an AA person's experiences or realities are invalidated. Microinvalidations subtly exclude, negate, or nullify the thoughts, feelings, or experiential reality of a person of color.

African American faculty have experienced racial microaggressions from Caucasian colleagues (Pittman, 2012). These racial microaggressions are microinvalidations; that is, they are interactions that communicate to AA faculty members that their Caucasian peers invalidate AA persons' racial experiences and sense of belonging (Pittman, 2012). These microinvalidations may take the form of expressing insensitivity about an individual's appearance, highlighting differences, and making sweeping misconceptions about what an AA should and should not know. African American faculty members' narratives revealed racial microinvalidations in their interpersonal interactions with Caucasian colleagues.

Researchers, including Sue (2010), have provided several definitions of microaggression. According to Sue, a microaggression is an act that is just beneath visibility or consciousness and that is a slight, deprecation, insult, or invalidation that the perpetrator is unaware of having committed. Sue maintained a perpetrator could be anyone: a colleague, friend, neighbor, boss, peer, doctor, patient, and so on. In the book *Microaggressions in Everyday Life: Race, Gender, and Sexual Orientation*, Sue described a microinsult and microinvalidation incident that occurred in the 2007 to 2008 Democratic primaries when Senators Biden and Obama announced their candidacies. A reporter asked Senator Biden about the public's wild enthusiasm for an AA candidate, Senator Obama. Senator Biden responded, "I mean, you got the first mainstream AA who

is articulate, and bright and clean, and a nice-looking guy, I mean, that's a storybook, man" (Sue, 2010).

Sue (2010) described an immediate uproar from many in the AA community who considered the statement insulting and offensive. To AAs, Senator Biden's statement represented a racial microaggression. It is important for people to understand that messages oftentimes contain multiple meanings. Although, on the surface, the comment by Senator Biden appears to be praise, the metacommunication (hidden message) communicated to AAs was that Senator Obama was an exception in that most AAs are unintelligent, inarticulate, dirty, and unattractive. Such a racial microaggression allows the perpetrator to acknowledge and praise people of color, but also allows him or her to express group stereotypes. In other words, although praising Senator Obama may have been Senator Biden's best intent, the comment was a microaggression to AAs because it seemed to indicate that Biden supported this AA because this person was an exception and had the ability to articulate the message to become the President of the United States (Sue, 2010).

Furthermore, many sociodemographic groups in the United States that are defined by sexual orientation (e.g., LGBT), disability, class (e.g., poverty), and religion (e.g., Islam and Judaism) are confined to the edges of the system (cultural, social, political, and economic), and may experience exclusion, inequality, and social injustice (Nadal, 2013; Sue, 2010). Moreover, Sue (2010) and Nadal (2013) provided examples of the microaggressions these groups experience and explained many of these racial and gender microaggressions are common and continuing experiences in their lives.

The literature on AA education has not included significant analysis of life at universities and the experience of racism among AA faculty, specifically in higher education (Allen, 2012). Kane and Orsini (2003) stated, “Independent schools must begin to foster productive dialogue on what schools might do to increase faculty of color and to enhance the experience of those teachers who constitute it” (p. 3). Nevertheless, little progress has emerged through the years in authentic dialogue about moving universities forward. No significant increase in the number of AA faculty nationally has emerged (Southern Regional Education Board [SREB], 2012).

Despite a plethora of reports in recent years regarding the importance of employing a racially and ethnically diverse faculty, as well as efforts to do so on many campuses, national data have suggested little change in the proportion of underrepresented minority faculty on college campuses (Smith, 2015). According to the National Science Foundation (2013), the American system of doctoral education is widely considered to be among the world’s best. Between 1993 and 2003, for example, the percentage of underrepresented faculty at 4-year institutions grew only 2% nationally, from approximately 6% to 8% (Smith, 2015). Doctorate recipients begin careers in large and small organizations, teach in universities, and start new businesses. In doing so, doctorate recipients contribute to a nation’s economic growth, cultural development, and rising standard of living. However, women and underrepresented minorities in academic employment differ from their male and White counterparts in rank, tenure, and other characteristics. The share of full-time, full professorships held by women has risen, but women continue to represent less than one-fourth of all full-time and full professors. Additionally, data pertaining to science and engineering degrees earned by

underrepresented minorities from 1991–2010 show doctorates in these fields remaining well below 10% after 2000 (National Science Foundation, 2013).

In 2007, eight AA, one Native American, and 13 Hispanic women faculty taught at the top 100 chemistry departments in the United States. If the focus is on advancement through the academic ranks, the numbers tell an even bleaker story. In 2007, no AA and no Native American women were working as full professors in the top 100 institutions (Towns, 2010).

In the fall of 2009, 7% of college and university faculty were AA, based on a faculty count that excluded persons whose race or ethnicity was unknown (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2011). In addition, 6% were Asian/Pacific Islander, 4% were Hispanic, and 1% were American Indian/Alaska Native. About 79% of faculty were White; 42% were White men and 37% were White women. Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, AA, and American Indian/Alaskan Native staff comprised about 19% of executive, administrative, and managerial positions and about 33% of nonprofessional staff. The proportions of total staff comprised of AAs, Hispanics, Asians/Pacific Islanders, and American Indians/Alaskan Natives were similar at public 4-year colleges (23%), private 4-year colleges (22%), and public 2-year colleges (23%); however, the proportion in private 2-year colleges (31%) was slightly higher (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2011).

Based on the aforementioned statistics, bringing together a strong and talented pool of AA faculty and administrators, even with initiatives in place to address retention of faculty, does not address the underlying issues of institutionalized racism, nor will it foster dialogue unless intentional strategic planning for diversity exists (Kane & Orsini,

2003). The results of my research may lead to social change by helping to bring increased awareness and understanding regarding how racial microaggressions operate, their numerous manifestations in society, and the effect they have on AA and other faculty of color. In addition, the results exhibit the dynamic interaction between perpetrator and target, and the educational strategies needed to eliminate them. Moreover, in higher education, one illustration of racial oppression is the underrepresentation and distribution of AA and Hispanic faculty. Hispanics and AAs make up only 12% of faculty in public southeastern colleges and universities (SREB, 2012). Southeastern states include Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia. The percentages of college and university faculty who are members of racial or ethnic minority groups are only small fractions of the total. Nationwide, about 5% of faculty are AA (SREB, 2012).

I located only one study that explicitly focused on racial microaggressions for AA faculty (Constantine, Smith, Redington, & Owens, 2008). Constantine et al. (2008) identified seven themes of racial microaggressions in the campus lives of AA faculty. These themes included the perceptions by AA faculty that they were invisible, that their colleagues challenged their credentials, that they received inadequate mentoring, and that they received race-based service assignments. In addition, the researchers expressed ambiguity about whether microaggressions were because of race or gender, and the participants felt self-consciousness about personal presentation (e.g., hair, attire, and speech; Constantine et al., 2008). In a final theme, faculty described a wide range of coping strategies for dealing with racial microaggressions. Although this was the only

researcher to explicitly describe racial microaggressions, research on interpersonal racial oppression in AA lives suggested patterns similar to racial microaggressions (Pittman, 2012).

Given the assertions of Constantine et al. (2008), it is important to continue highlighting the harm that racial microaggressions can inflict, no matter how a person of color decides to handle a given encounter. Sue (2010) hoped to make the invisible visible, contending that microaggressions hold their power because they are invisible. As Sue explained, microaggressions do not allow those who commit them to see that their actions and attitudes may be discriminatory. Additionally, some colleges and universities are confronting these inequities and are finding that faculty, regardless of race, ethnicity, gender, income, or background, can achieve at high levels when provided the right opportunities (SREB, 2012).

In this study, I focused primarily on AA faculty and other faculty of color and their perceptions of racial microaggressions in southeastern colleges and universities. I used a quantitative methodology to determine the relationship between faculty perceptions of racial microaggressions and their employee motivation and job satisfaction in southeastern colleges and universities. The research design was correlational, and I used correlations and multiple linear regression to determine the nature of the relationship between the predictor variable, which included three different forms of racial microaggression (i.e., microassault, microinsult, and microinvalidation) and the outcome variables (i.e., employee motivation and job satisfaction).

Critical race theory (CRT) guided this research because race is central to the historical and present experiences of AA faculty in higher education. In many cases,

scholars, such as Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995), Solórzano (1997), and Sue (2010), have outlined the core constructs of CRT and their application to education. Understanding that AA faculty may have varying levels of identification with their perceptions of campus experiences, I inquired how racial microaggressions shaped the participants' perceptions, employee motivation, and job satisfaction.

Additional information is necessary to expand the understanding of racial microaggressions and work-related factors. Unlike Constantine et al.'s (2008) study, which was qualitative and explicitly focused on racial microaggression for AA faculty, in this study I aimed to validate and rely on the knowledge of AA faculty members and other faculty of color. This research contributes additional knowledge regarding the negative effects of racial microaggressions for AA and other faculty of color in terms of employee motivation and job satisfaction, providing new insights about relationships for AA and other faculty of color.

Problem Statement

One of the biggest obstacles encountered by faculty of color in higher education in the United States is racism. Racism has been associated with adverse outcomes, including poor job satisfaction and less motivation, which may result in racial minority faculty leaving the teaching profession (Hasson, Rowley, Blackmore Prince, Jones, & Jenkins, 2014). Only 12% of faculty in public southeastern colleges and universities are AA or Hispanic (SREB, 2012). The general organizational problem is the lack of job satisfaction for faculty of color. The specific organizational problem is that it is unknown what relationships, if any, exist among perceived racial microaggression, job satisfaction, and employee motivation among AA and other faculty of color in colleges and

universities in the southeastern part of the United States. Whereas evidence of the problem is ample, a gap in the literature remains regarding the reasons that these microaggressions are associated with lower job satisfaction.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative methodology study was to understand the relationship between perceived racial microaggressions and job motivation and job satisfaction for AA and other faculty of color in southeastern universities. A significant gap exists regarding racial microaggressions toward faculty in higher education. Racial microaggressions, the predictor variable, are subtle indignities and insults that minority-group members may experience in their daily lives and at work. The outcome variables were two-fold. Job motivation refers to individuals putting forth their best effort, believing that the effort will lead to good performance and that good performance will lead to preferred outcomes. Job satisfaction is an employee's interest in work, pay, and the opportunity to gain achievement, recognition, responsibility, or advancement. The target sample was approximately 38 AA faculty and other faculty of color working in mid- to large-sized southeastern colleges and universities who self-identified as AA or persons of color. The focus of this study was examining their perceptions of racial microaggressions. The data from this study contributes new knowledge, insights, and possible financial savings for leaders within the higher education industry. This study may influence positive social change, in that insights derived from it may be applied to improve the quality of work life for AA faculty and other faculty of color. Further, the study may bring more widespread awareness and understanding of how racial

microaggressions operate, their numerous manifestations associated with lower job satisfaction, and the type of effect they have on faculty.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The central research question driving the study was, What are the relationships, if any, among perceived racial microaggressions, job satisfaction, and employee motivation among AA faculty and other faculty of color? The hypotheses were the following.

$H1_0$: There is no significant relationship between perceived level of microaggression and job satisfaction among AA faculty and other faculty of color.

$H1_a$: There is a significant relationship between perceived level of microaggression and job satisfaction among AA faculty and other faculty of color.

$H2_0$: There is no significant relationship between perceived levels of microaggression and employee motivation among AA faculty and other faculty of color.

$H2_a$: There is a significant relationship between perceived levels of microaggression and employee motivation among AA faculty and other faculty of color.

To assess the relationship between the variables, I assessed the correlation among racial or ethnic microaggression, job satisfaction, and employee motivation using the Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale–Initial framework and the Job Diagnostic Survey. I used IBM's SPSS statistical software to compute the correlation. The index ranges in value from -1 to +1. This coefficient indicates the degree to which low or high

scores on one variable correlate with low or high scores on another variable. A score on a variable is a low or high score to the extent that it falls below or above the mean score on that variable. To formulate a response to the research question, I conducted descriptive and correlational analyses. I also performed multiple linear regression analysis to determine the relationship between the predictor variables and the outcome variables.

Theoretical Framework of CRT in Education

Although I expanded on the theoretical framework in the literature review, key aspects of the framework included CRT. Critical race theory provided a theoretical framework to explore the professional lived experiences of AA faculty and other faculty of color and their perceptions of racial microaggressions, challenges, and supports for motivation and job satisfaction at southeastern colleges and universities. The theory offers the field of education a new paradigm to investigate the root causes of education and career disparities for AA faculty and other faculty of color. As a dynamic framework in education, CRT challenges one to name racist injuries and identify their origins (Pérez Huber & Solórzano, 2015b). Pérez Huber and Solórzano (2015b) found that naming the types of racial microaggressions that Latina/o undergraduates confronted, outlining their effects, and highlighting ways in which they responded provided survivors of such hostile campus racial climates a vehicle to find their voice and a way to name their pain.

Based on race equity and social justice principles, CRT encourages the development of solutions that bridge gaps in education, health, housing, employment, and other factors that condition living race consciousness (Hasson et al., 2014). Despite increases in numerical diversity and research highlighting the benefits of diversity, members of historically underrepresented groups tend to perceive the general college

atmosphere differently from their majority-group peers. In general, racial minority faculty perceive the college culture as unwelcoming and unsupportive. That perception, in turn, has been associated with adverse outcomes, including poor job satisfaction and less motivation, and racial minority faculty may decide to leave the teaching profession (Hasson et al., 2014).

Pérez Huber and Solórzano (2015b) identified at least five tenets shared by CRT scholarship: (a) intercentricity of race and racism, (b) challenge to dominant ideology, (c) commitment to social justice, (d) centrality of experiential knowledge, and (e) an interdisciplinary perspective. Taken together, these tenets provide a unique approach to existing modes of scholarship in higher education. The tenets explicitly focus on how the social construct of race shapes university structures, practices, and discourses from the perspectives of those injured by and fighting against institutional racism (Pérez Huber & Solórzano, 2015b).

Pierce, a professor of psychiatry and education at Harvard, first introduced the concept of microaggressions in 1970, referencing offensive mechanisms aimed at AAs on a daily basis. Pierce characterized microaggressions as words or actions designed to reduce, dilute, atomize, and encase hapless minority-group members into a lower stratified place. Pierce (1995) concluded the most grievous of offensive mechanisms spewed at victims of racism and sexism are microaggressions. Borrowing from the collective work of Pierce can help researchers define and understand racial microaggressions not just for AAs, but also for all people of color.

The concept of racial microaggressions overlaps with similar constructs of ambiguous or covert racism, such as everyday discrimination (Nadal et al., 2014;

Pittman, 2012; Sue, 2010), perceived discrimination (Torres, Driscoll, & Voell, 2012), racial battle fatigue (Allen, 2012), and race-related traumatic stress (Goodman et al., 2015). Recent findings have suggested that for AAs, the effect of racism-related stress on psychological distress is higher than that of life stress (Marks, Ejesi, McCullough, & Coll, 2015).

Consequently, researchers have developed several scales to measure everyday types of perceived racism, including the Everyday Discrimination Scale (Earnshaw et al., 2015; Nadal, 2013), the Perceived Racism Scale (Priest et al., 2013), and the Index of Race-Related Stress (Marks et al., 2015). Developing a quantitative scale to measure these experiences allows researchers to assess whether common themes exist across racial groups and to test the assertion that racial microaggressions, like other forms of perceived racism, have a significant effect on the psychological and physical well-being of people of color (Goodman et al., 2015; Hammond, 2012; Hughes, Kiecolt, Keith, & Demo, 2015; Sue, 2010).

Although any group can potentially be guilty of delivering racial microaggressions, the most painful and harmful ones are likely to occur between those who hold power and those most disempowered (Sue et al., 2008b). Some scholars believe racial microaggressions are reflections of an unconscious worldview of Caucasian supremacy as well as superiority-inferiority and inclusion-exclusion paradigms imposed on racial and ethnic minorities (Evans, 2015; Sue et al., 2008b). Furthermore, people of color have reported near-constant incidents of racial microaggressions, indicating their well-intentioned Caucasian brothers and sisters are generally unaware of committing offensive racial acts (Kenworthy et al., 2015; Sue et al., 2008b).

For this reason, CRT can be an effective lens for examining and challenging the normative paradigms that define mainstream policy discourse and determine appropriate concerns for education research. Many educators assume that to be successful in higher education, one must conform to the system rather than have the system adopt additional strategies and conditions to meet the needs of people with different cultural contexts (Ransom, 2013). In most cases, adjusting the system and structures to include appropriate values regarding faculty of color would neither diminish academic culture nor relinquish the rigorous nature of scientific inquiry.

Shealey, McHatton, McCray, and Thomas (2014) presented a review and synthesis of the current body of literature in an attempt to inform scholars and practitioners of the current state of faculty of color in academe. The researchers' analysis provided critical information on the departmental, institutional, and national processes for creating, attracting, and sustaining a diverse professoriate. The researchers posited that the literature identified major barriers to the tenure and promotion of faculty of color, such as negative student evaluations, undervaluation of research, and unwritten rules and policies regarding the tenure process. Shealey et al. (2014) stated departments need to diversify the process for how they judge faculty before and after achieving tenure. Thus, as the faculty diversifies and brings to the academy different ways of knowing, it is important that faculty members have the opportunity for individual expression—authentic and spiritual.

The literature in this area is growing and indicates the need for departments to recognize the underlying messages conveyed to faculty of color that devalue their research and writing in an oppressive fashion. For example, Louis (2007) urged scholars

to accept, as legitimate ways of knowing, knowledge systems that do not necessarily conform to Western academic standards. Additionally, departments should recognize that some scholars believe that “the spiritual aspect of life is as important to the search for knowledge as is the physical” (Louis, 2007, p. 134).

In and of itself, a single microaggression may seem harmless, but the cumulative burden of a lifetime of microaggressions can theoretically contribute to increased mortality, augmented morbidity, and flattened confidence (Pierce, 1970). Pittman (2012) posited that for AA faculty, race was a prominent facet of campus life. Although race may have been a positive aspect of the campus climate, it was not. Instead, AA faculty described their campus climate as one where race was negative and microaggression was common. In fact, AA faculty described a range of incidents of racial microaggression. Educators and administrators continue to fail to take full advantage of this opportunity for cultural change and structural reform. I drew on CRT research to investigate a possible relationship of perceived racial microaggression toward AA faculty and other faculty of color with motivation and job satisfaction. In Chapters 2 and 3, I consider the influence of the theoretical framework and applied methodologies.

Nature of the Study

The focus of this study was on AA faculty and other faculty of color in southeastern colleges and universities as targets of microaggressions. I chose a quantitative approach for this study to provide additional insight into potential correlation of perceived racial microaggressions for college and university AA faculty and other faculty of color. I used the Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (REMS-14; see Appendix A) framework (Nadal, 2011) and the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS; see

Appendix B) in this study as survey instruments for research participants. The REMS-14 and JDS provide a better understanding of factors that influence intergroup relations. Educational leaders' and managers' ability to be effective in supporting faculty of color is dependent on leadership development. Through this study, I investigated the relationship between perceived racial microaggressions toward AA and other faculty of color and their employee motivation and job satisfaction using a quantitative methodology.

Faculty members who self-identified as AA or as a person of color were eligible to participate in the study. I recruited participants through online listservs and community websites. I used the College Results Online (2013) database developed by the Education Trust to identify mid- to large-sized southeastern colleges and universities. The College Results Online database relies on information collected and reported in the Graduation Rate Survey by the U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics. Individual postsecondary education institutions submit data for the Graduation Rate Survey.

I used the REMS-14 framework as a survey instrument for research participants (Nadal, 2011). The REMS provides a better understanding of factors that influence intergroup relations. Specifically, the survey uses 45 scales to measure the level of existence of racial and ethnic microaggressions. I summarized each survey item using frequency tables and descriptive statistics. I assessed the correlation between racial or ethnic microaggressions, job satisfaction, and employee motivation using a correlation coefficient.

In addition, I used the JDS, an instrument with a Likert-type scale ranking, to measure employee perceptions of satisfaction and motivation. The JDS measures core job

dimensions, psychological state, and personal and work outcomes (satisfaction, motivation, performance, and attendance). Hackman and Oldham (1974, 1975) assessed the JDS for validity, reliability, and usability. The researchers claimed the JDS is one of the most valid and reliable measures of internal motivation and job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). The JDS was appropriate for the purpose of this study.

The sample included 42 AA faculty and other faculty of color working in mid- to large-sized southeastern colleges and universities. I conducted a G*Power analysis to determine the minimum sample size necessary for the study to produce statically meaningful results. The power level for all analyses was set at .80, which is Cohen's (1992) recommended level for several reasons. Cohen's reasons include smaller values carry a higher risk for committing a Type II error, and larger values may lead to difficulties in achieving the required sample size. The originally proposed parameters for the power analysis were for a multiple regression with six predictors, a medium effect size, significance level of .05, and a power level of .80. This power analysis yielded a required sample size of 98. However, after extensive difficulties in participant recruitment, the power analysis was recalculated with the following parameters: a large effect size, significance level of .10, and a power level of .80. This new power analysis yielded a required sample size of 38. The final sample included 42 participants. According to the results of a post-hoc power analysis, the power achieved based on the original parameters was .36, and the power achieved based on the revised parameters was .85.

I recruited a community sample by sending mass e-mails to various community listservs, including nonprofit community centers, racial-minority professional

organizations, and historically AA sororities and fraternities. Using a snowball sampling methodology, I asked participants to advertise the study to their social-media networks. After receiving approval from the Walden University Institutional Review Board, I made available all measures through the Survey Monkey website, on listservs, and through e-mails.

Economy, opportunity for rapid data collection, data availability, and convenience were factors that helped determine my choice of survey design. Identifying attributes of a large population from a small group of individuals brought validity to the study. The purpose of this quantitative methodology, using a correlational design, was to evaluate the relationship between perceived racial microaggressions and job motivation and job satisfaction for AA and other faculty of color in southeastern colleges and universities. It is equally important to understand the correlation between racial microaggressions and conflict management for AA and other faculty of color in southeastern colleges and universities.

This study contributes to the body of knowledge needed to provide insight into patterns of racial microaggressions affecting college and university faculty. In addition, the research exposes gaps in opportunities that lead directly to gaps in motivation and job satisfaction for AA and other faculty of color. Successful school improvement is highly dependent on leadership development programs that provide training and ongoing development for current and future leaders (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014).

Definitions of Terms

The following definitions enhance the reader's comprehension of information presented in this study. Definitions without citations reflect my choices concerning how meaning should apply to specific terms in this dissertation.

Microaggressions are subtle indignities and insults that minority-group members may experience in their daily lives. Because of the subtlety of microaggressions, victims are often uncertain about how to respond because they have difficulty determining the intentionality of the offense (Wong et al., 2014).

Microassaults are intentional verbal and nonverbal acts used by perpetrators to deliberately hurt and demean recipients (Nadal et al., 2014).

Microinsults are communications that convey rudeness and insensitivity, and that demean a person's racial heritage or identity. Microinsults represent rebuffs that are subtle (and frequently unrecognized by the perpetrators) but clearly convey a hidden insulting message to recipients of color (Sue et al., 2007).

Microinvalidations are communications that exclude, negate, or nullify the thoughts, feelings, or experiential reality of a person (Sue, 2010).

Motivation is an individual putting forth a significant effort, believing that the effort will lead to good performance and that good performance will lead to preferred outcomes (Weiner, 2013).

Multiracial refers to minority faculty and individuals who come from social groups historically subjected to and targeted by racism toward people of African, Asian, Latin American, American Indian, mixed-race, or transracial descent or from international adoptions (Sue et al., 2007).

People of color have variations in skin color that, historically, have been linked to human racial categories that have consequently facilitated victim-group discrimination. Scholars differ as to the number and implications of skin colors for the various race categories that represent every ethnic and national variety of human, but included are Negroid, Caucasoid, and Mongoloid (Keith & Monroe, 2015).

Racial microaggressions are brief and commonplace verbal, behavioral, and environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial slights and insults to the target person or group (Nadal et al., 2014).

Assumptions

This study operated under the assumption that members of the population of AA faculty or multiracial faculty targeted for this study worked at a southeastern college or university and participated in online listservs or community websites. I assumed a sufficient sample would emerge to draw conclusions regarding inherent racial microaggressions that could theoretically apply to other states. I assumed participants gave responses that were honest representations of their experiences. I assumed AA faculty and other faculty of color work at colleges and universities that negotiate sociocultural contexts and social practices (e.g., learning, language, literacy, and culture) among all participants. Finally, I assumed the historically Black colleges and universities population is similar to that of other colleges and universities.

Scope and Delimitations

In confining the study to institutions in southeastern colleges, it is possible to have overlooked potential variations in the hypothesized set of integrated beliefs and attitudes

comprising inherent racial microaggressions. In addition, results may or may not necessarily generalize to other populations because the study delimits faculty teaching in the southeastern United States rather than faculty across the entire United States. The scope was only AA faculty and other faculty of color. I developed an informed-consent form for participants to e-sign before they engaged in the study.

Limitations

Despite the potential new insights that the findings from this study may present, this study had certain limitations. The study was limited to AA faculty and other faculty of color who worked in southeastern universities and colleges and who took the online survey. Participants from other regions would afford a broader sampling. In addition, a limited amount of time was available to collect the data, was a major factor in determining the number of respondents. In confining a study to one specific region of the United States, it is possible to overlook potential variations in the hypothesized set of perceptions regarding inherent racial microaggressions. This is, in essence, a broader version of the first limitation. To ensure quality, trustworthiness, and credibility, I provided a range of interventions and guides related to specific involvement in data collection. Furthermore, I made sure that there were no errors on the survey before I made it available to survey participants. Another limitation was that I was not able to infer causation, which limited internal validity. Researchers can only make causal inferences when conducting true experimental studies, which involve random assignment of participants to conditions. Because this was a correlational study that did not involve random assignment or the manipulation of variables, I could not infer causation.

Significance of the Study

In the United States, only 5% of all college and university faculty are AA, whereas 3% are Hispanic, and 1% are Native American. The overall goal of increasing the number of faculty of color has had marginal effects (SREB, 2012). Faculty representation should be consistent with demographic trends. This study is the only known quantitative study on AA faculty that may foster the type of educational excellence studied in teacher-education courses to enhance understanding of theory through concrete, practical quantitative data, and to establish and analyze power relations involved in faculty situations. In addition, the study results may explain interactions, complexities, and contradictions related to racial microaggressions that affect AA faculty and other faculty of color, with the goal of transforming conditions.

Social Change

This quantitative study has sociological and psychological implications and offers valuable insight into the implementation of strategies and policies to formally advance and influence policy, and in turn, to build diverse and inclusive higher education communities. The findings may help educational leaders understand the detrimental effects of racial microaggressions on current AA faculty and other faculty of color. Deans, department heads, and campus administrators can use the information from the literature review in their management and policymaking.

A deeper understanding of the influences of racial microaggressions for AA and other faculty of color may allow policy makers to improve their ethics of care and concern and the importance of building relationships with diverse populations. Following Walden University's mission and vision of positive social change, this study aimed to

bring positive social change in education, technology, commerce, and communication. The knowledge gained from this study may sustain the initiative of educational global-development efforts and other innovations and modernization of technologies in promoting social change. Citizens of communities, regardless of gender, age, religion, education, economic status, and ethnicity, may be encouraged to use these findings to improve diversity and equity. Understanding racial microaggressions may help in discerning their connection, if any, with job motivation and job satisfaction for AA faculty and other faculty of color.

Summary

Chang et al. (2014) and Nadal (2013) demonstrated the unique, harmful, and cumulative effect of racial microaggressions in the lives of people of color. Racial microaggressions are potentially present whenever human interactions, such as teaching, supervising, training, administering, and evaluating, involve participants who differ by race and culture. I chose to conduct this study because of the importance of the experiences of AA and other faculty of color in determining future motivation and job satisfaction. Constantine et al. (2008) was the only study (and it was qualitative) that explicitly focused on racial microaggressions for AA faculty, as well as the ways that leaders cope with such instances.

The purpose of this quantitative study was to understand the relationship between perceived racial microaggressions and the motivation and job satisfaction of AA and other faculty of color in southeastern colleges and universities. Critical race theory provides a framework to identify potentialities for the transformation of oppressive conditions that perpetuate the disproportionately low representation of AA faculty.

Understanding the effect of racial microaggressions on motivation and job satisfaction for AA and other faculty of color may serve to change practices and provide information for educational leaders. This research may help fill the gap in the literature regarding racial microaggressions toward AA and other faculty of color who experience these occurrences in the unique organizational climate of institutions of higher learning.

In this chapter, I presented the background of the study, the nature of the study, the problem statement, the theoretical framework, the research question and hypotheses, the purpose of the study, definitions of terms, assumptions, limitations, delimitations and scope, the significance of the study, social change implications, and a summary. In Chapter 2, I review existing literature on the potential effect of racial microaggressions; implications of the phenomenon for AA and other faculty of color; and the effect that these microaggressions have on diversity and equality. In Chapter 3, I describe the research design and the methodology used to collect and analyze the data from this study.

Chapter 2: Review of Related Literature

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine bivariate relationships between the variables and to conduct a multiple linear regression to test the hypotheses and investigate the relationship of racial microaggression with motivation and job satisfaction for AA faculty and other faculty of color. Researchers have reported people express contemporary racism, sexism, and homophobia/heterosexism through microaggressions and have described how specific environmental spaces can oppress people through—or liberate people from—microaggressions. Researchers have acknowledged the effect of microaggressions on the experiences of individuals who are in the midst of radical changes in society and in organizations.

However, the literature has not indicated a clear explication of microaggressions in the workplace and their effect on AA faculty and other faculty of color. Researchers have also failed to explicate whether recent implementation of strategies to illuminate hidden forms of microaggressions in the structure and climate of communities of higher learning has influenced changes in usage. A gap in the literature regarding the relationship between racial microaggressions and AA and other faculty of color perceptions of such experiences in higher education communities reflects the need for further study in this area. This chapter includes a comprehensive review of the collected literature germane to employee motivation, job satisfaction, and AA and other faculty of color.

This study encompassed current knowledge relevant to microaggression, AA and other faculty of color, job satisfaction, and motivation. I organized the literature review by specific section headings for structure. This study drew on CRT research, including

the following components, (a) an overview of racial microaggressions, (b) an overview of the perspectives of AA faculty, (c) Maslow's paradigm and Herzberg's hygiene theory as they relate to employee motivation and job satisfaction, and (d) an overview of sustainability (triple bottom line). The REMS construction, reliability, and validity model (Nadal, 2011) guided this study.

Without fully examining assumptions for bias, progress toward diversity planning or initiatives is impossible. The general technique employed in this literature review consisted of providing insight from historical and current perspectives. These perspectives help in demonstrating the contextual evolution and foundational significance of the topics of this study.

Literature-Search Strategy

I researched relevant articles, dissertations, scholarly writings, books written by experts in the field, and peer-reviewed articles on the topic of the present study through Walden University Library databases and course readings. Using the Walden system allowed me to search sources from multiple databases. Other research-subject-area databases included Management and APA PsychTHERAPY, ProQuest, EBSCO*host*, and other Internet sources. Key words used for search strategies included racial microaggressions definitions and theory, AA faculty statistics, percentages, disciplines, job satisfaction and motivation theory, transformational leadership, adaptive performance, climate for innovation, multilevel analysis, governance, crisis, relationship, trust, and staff morale. I obtained additional sources by searching and examining relevant research articles, current peer-reviewed literature and seminal literature, and books by

experts in the field. In cases where there was little research, I searched and reviewed dissertations, conference proceedings, and scholarly writing.

The literature review contained material from 169 peer-reviewed journal articles, 36 books, and 3 Web pages. Of the literature, 90% were published within the past 5 years (from 2012 to 2016). Table 1 shows the literature reviewed by year of publication.

Table 1

Details of Literature Reviewed by Year of Publication

Type of literature	Older than 5 years	Current	Total
Peer-reviewed articles	29	140	169
Non-peer-reviewed articles		4	4
Books		36	36
Webpages		3	3

Racial Microaggressions

Little scholarly quantitative research exists regarding AA faculty and faculty of color in higher education institutions, and even less pertains to their perceptions of racial microaggressions and receptivity to employee motivation, job satisfaction, and racial factors. In this section, I discuss the effect of racial microaggressions and the way in which they permeate institutions of learning and higher education.

Psychiatrist Pierce (1970) first proposed racial microaggressions to identify subtle-yet-offensive behaviors that degrade and humiliate those targeted. Pierce postulated these microaggressions transpire from a sense of superiority that members of one group feel in relation to another. Pierce (1995) focused on interpersonal relationships between AAs and Caucasian Americans, acknowledging these offensive mechanisms could arise in many other interpersonal interactions. Scholars continue to borrow from

the collective work of Pierce as society continues to define and understand racial microaggressions for not just AAs, but for all people of color (Kohli & Solórzano, 2012).

Researchers posited contemporary manifestations of racism have various names: symbolic racism (Smith, 2014), implicit racism (Ditonto, Lau, & Sears, 2013), and aversive racism (Kenworthy et al., 2015). A close link exists between aversive racism and the concept of racial microaggressions. It is difficult for anyone born and raised in the United States to be immune from inheriting racial biases (Kenworthy et al., 2015). In fact, many Caucasians who may be well-educated liberals appear to be aversive racists (Sue, 2010). Aversive racists truly believe they are not prejudiced, espouse egalitarian values, and would not consciously discriminate. However, aversive racists nevertheless harbor unconscious biased attitudes that may result in discriminatory actions (Kenworthy et al., 2015).

Young, Anderson, and Stewart (2015) explored the types of microaggressions that affect employees at universities. Young et al. coined the term *hierarchical microaggression* to represent the everyday slights found in higher education that communicate systemic valuing (or devaluing) of a person because of the institutional role held by that person in the institution. Young et al. explored hierarchical microaggressions by examining qualitative data from multiple cultural competence trainings devoted to learning about microaggressions on college campuses.

Young et al. (2015) stated although there has been substantial research examining the effects of microaggressions in the public sphere, little research exists on microaggressions in the workplace. Microaggressions on university campuses have received attention in the literature and in popular media recently (Vega, 2014). According

to Young et al., the literature indicates reducing microaggressions will lead to improvements in campus climate that, in turn, may lead to improved social and academic outcomes for students (Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pedersen, & Allen, 1999) and to an increased sense of belonging (Hurtado & Carter, 1997) to the campus community. Employees, much like students, experience varying degrees of power and privilege on college campuses, which are related to their professional role on the campus (Young et al., 2015).

Young et al. (2015) stated the ranking system(s) within higher education is more complex than that in a traditional business model and directly relates to campus climate. The researchers explained *roles* often become the defining identities of employees at a university because these employees are in two main groups: faculty and staff. Slights in the university context provide a new lens to understand microaggressions experienced by employees in that context. According to Young et al., examining role hierarchy in higher education-based microaggressions is important because of the salience of the roles that people hold at universities in their day-to-day workplace interactions and in the overall climate of the university. The researchers asked what types of microaggressions employees experienced in higher education. Young et al. provided data relevant to the frequency and type of microaggressions that occur in higher education as a workplace. The data also provide examples of subtle forms of microaggressions in higher education related to hierarchy (Young et al., 2015).

Young et al. (2015) explained to maintain a high-quality education for students and a positive working climate for those who work at the university, Great Western University implemented a Campus Climate Survey in 2010 to establish a baseline

appraisal of the campus climate. The survey solicited opinions related to attitudes toward diversity, satisfaction with the institution, feeling of comfort and belonging, treatment by various groups, and inclusiveness of the workforce with regard to multiple identity groups (age, race, gender, ethnicity, national origin, disability, sexual orientation, religion, and intellectual differences). The Chief Diversity Officer at Great Western University collaborated with Kathryn Young, a multicultural education specialist in the teacher education department, to develop a 90-minute interactive workshop on cultural competence. The cultural competence workshop provided attendees with a fundamental understanding of microaggressions.

Young et al. (2015) postulated findings of this study may add a new layer of interpretation to the current research on microaggressions, one that relates directly to the hierarchical status of workplace identities. Hierarchical microaggressions exist in all workplaces but are of a unique type in a university because of the rhetoric related to equality and upward mobility associated with college going. According to Young et al., the findings indicate these forms of microaggressions are more than insensitive comments; they affect people because people take on an identity associated with their status at the university. This identity is related to the amount of higher education they attain. The reinforcement of microaggressions occurs because of the privilege achieved by those with a doctoral degree in this setting and the lack of privilege associated with those with lesser degrees or no degree. Given the findings, a need exists for future research on the intersection of hierarchical and identity-based microaggressions (Young et al., 2015).

In conclusion, Young et al. (2015) contended examining the confluence of race (or gender, sexuality, and disability status) within hierarchical roles and positions in an institution would make a considerable contribution to the literature as well as inform the development of constructive working environments in which employees and supervisors can learn to be cultural interpreters, be open to critique, and develop self-awareness. Young et al. stated their study adds to the knowledge base regarding microaggressions by introducing a new dimension of interpretation, a new category entitled hierarchical microaggressions. Their study provided university stakeholders with language and tools to reduce microaggressions from their respective environments, thus potentially leading to the improvement of overall campus climate and the well-being of the most important capital that any university has: human capital. The researchers postulated hierarchical microaggressions affect campus climate for those who work at a university as well as those who attend it. Young et al. posited these microaggressions are problematic because perpetrators may not acknowledge comments or actions as microaggressions. Perpetrators may view them as "innocent and harmless slight(s)" (Sue, 2010, p. 19).

Torres and Taknint (2015) conducted a quantitative study to examine a moderated mediational model that aimed to explain the inimical mental health effects of experiencing ethnic microaggressions for Latino adults. The participants in this study were 113 Latino/a adults (42 male, 67 female, four who did not report gender) living in a moderately sized Midwestern city. The researchers stated the model implicates the role of emotional stress responses as an underlying mechanism by which these ethnic slights contribute to Latino depression. Further, they highlighted situations in which these relationships may be exacerbated. Torres and Taknint postulated the majority of research

examining ethnic discrimination among Latinos/as has focused on academic self-efficacy, rather than general self-efficacy, with the bulk of findings reporting a negative relationship (Gonzalez, Stein, Kiang, & Cupito, 2014). Thus, a major gap in the empirical literature involves the role of general self-efficacy within the context of ethnic microaggressions among Latino/a adults (Torres & Taknint, 2015).

Torres and Taknint (2015) postulated the Latino population living in the United States continues to grow at an exponential rate. Latinos constitute roughly 16% of the total U.S. population and accounted for approximately 56% of the nation's growth from 2000 to 2010. The mental health disparities evident within this group are not well understood (Torres & Taknint, 2015). The findings provide insight into the underlying mechanisms that help to explain why ethnic microaggressions, and ethnic discrimination more broadly, have such a significant and negative psychological effect on the lives of Latino/a individuals. The researchers provided rich description using graphs and illustrations to enhance the reader's understanding of this study.

According to Torres and Taknint (2015), support of the study hypotheses occurred given the main findings showing that ethnic microaggressions were associated with heightened traumatic stress symptoms that, in turn, were predictive of increased depression. Both ethnic identity and general self-efficacy served to moderate the indirect effect at the ethnic microaggression and traumatic stress link. In other words, the magnitude of traumatic stress connecting ethnic microaggressions to depression was dependent on an individual's level of ethnic identity or general self-efficacy. These results were consistent with past research implicating the negative mental health consequences associated with ethnic microaggressions (Torres & Taknint, 2015).

Torres and Taknint (2015) stated that to their knowledge, they were the first researchers to test ethnic microaggressions and Latino mental health within a moderated mediational model. The results advance the empirical research by illustrating the markedly important role stress responses have on this relationship, along with the cultural and individual resources that contribute to this process. The researchers recommended future research be conducted to examine the various aspects of the stress response in relation to the experience of different types of ethnic microaggressions. As for practical implications, intervention strategies that focus on building one's sense of ethnic identity and general self-efficacy can serve as important buffers in the face of unfair treatment. According to Torres and Taknint, the conceptualization of traumatic stress as an indicator of an emotional stress response lends further credence to the type of psychological injury associated with covert forms of discrimination.

Defining Racial Microaggressions

Researchers on microaggression have primarily described the dynamic interplay between perpetrator and recipient. Racial microaggressions are most similar to aversive racism, in that they generally occur below the level of awareness of well-intentioned people (Donovan, Galban, Grace, Bennett, & Felicié, 2013; Kohli & Solórzano, 2012; Nadal, 2013). Furthermore, microinsults and microinvalidations are subtle rebuffs, and most perpetrators are unaware that they have said or done anything wrong. Microinsults are insensitive communications that demean a person's racial identity or heritage. Additionally, microinsults, both verbal and nonverbal, include hidden messages that could insult the recipient—messages steeped in stereotypes about people of color (Nadal, 2011). Microinvalidations are "communications that exclude, negate, or nullify" the

thoughts, feelings, and realities of people of color. Perpetrators of this form of racial microaggression say or do things to discredit the cultural experiences of the recipient (Nadal et al., 2014). Researchers have suggested that racial microaggressions can cause psychological turmoil for recipients. Such microaggressions require the recipient to question the intention and message of the perpetrator's behavior. Although the person may feel insulted, the person may not be sure exactly why this is the case, and the perpetrator does not acknowledge that anything has happened because he or she is not aware of having been offensive (Sue et al., 2008b). Researchers have postulated that the result is confusion, anger, and an overall eroding of energy for the recipient. Thus, people must develop a better way to classify and define racial microaggressions to gain a better awareness of how to address them as they arise in the everyday lives of minorities (Nadal, 2011).

In an article for *The Chronicle of Higher Education,* Painter (2000) provided a reassessment of the field of AA studies. Painter discussed the stereotypes, prejudice, and harassment persistently experienced by college-level teachers of AA studies. Painter stressed the similarity of experiences over time and across cases to provide a notion of what it feels like to encounter issues, such as the silent, even unconscious assumption that AA studies and AA faculty members suit each other because the field is simple, and the people are not smart. Painter explained the phenomena of invisible scholarship, career advancement, and harassment as an intellectual paragon.

In light of American intellectual history, Painter (2000) contended these experiences of AA faculty members manifest conventional assumptions. These assumptions lead to false, even harmful conclusions. As noted by Painter, AA faculty

members with appropriate training can teach anything. Anyone with appropriate training can teach AA studies. Nevertheless, in the context of American race relations, the conclusions are understandable and merit investigation by researchers interested in the health of AA studies or the survival of AA faculty members.

African American studies and AA faculty members are different but related. According to Painter (2000), the relationship lies in the assumption of research scholars that AA people and intellectual activity do not go together. The reluctance to accept that being AA and being intelligent are not mutually exclusive has deleterious effects on AA faculty members. Regarding AA studies, AA professions, and struggles of perception, Painter postulated AA studies and AA faculty members still face familiar frustrations regarding the widespread American assumption that AAs are not intellectual.

Jones and Galliher (2015) designed a quantitative study to augment current knowledge of the prevalence of daily racial microaggressions experienced by Native American young adults and to explore links between microaggressions and ethnic identification. Participants were 114 Native American young adults, with representation from nearly 70 distinct indigenous groups from the contiguous United States, Alaska, Canada, and Mexico. Ethnicity reports showed 47.4% Native only, 36.8% Native and White, and the remainder identifying as Native and one or more other ethnicity. Jones and Galliher stated correlational findings demonstrated that a higher percentage Native identification was strongly associated with more microaggression experiences, especially among males. In addition, regression analyses showed several identity correlates of microaggression experiences. *Assumption of criminality* and *assumed superiority of White values* were most frequently associated with identity scales. The discussion of

results occurs within the context of identity development theory (Jones & Galliher, 2015).

Jones and Galliher (2015) stated a number of researchers and theorists posit a strong, coherent sense of ethnic identification as a positive developmental asset, serving as a buffer against the stressors and challenges faced by ethnic minority youth. The researchers posited a lack of understanding exists regarding the links among discrimination experiences and ethnic identity development among Native American youth. Furthermore, other researchers have consistently found that higher levels of microaggressive experiences link with increased stress, depression, alcohol use, and other negative outcomes. In addition, fewer researchers have assessed the relationships between ethnic identification and discrimination experiences directly (Jones & Galliher, 2015).

Jones and Galliher (2015) provided a rich description of their study through graphs and illustrations to enhance the readers' understanding of the results. The researchers acknowledged limitations and explained that although the descriptive data presented is a small sample of diverse Native American young adults (representing nearly 70 distinct cultural groups), the results only scratch the surface of the microaggression experiences of Native youth. However, the researchers stated this study was an important piece of the foundation of a growing literature. Jones and Galliher recognizedthe diversity in terms of cultural background, as well as acculturation and enculturation levels, raises questions regarding the population to whom the findings are generalizable. Further, recruitment through listservs, Facebook sites, word-of-mouth, and snowball sampling may have resulted in nonrepresentativeness—only 12% of the sample resided

on their home reservation at the time of participation, and the large majority of the sample were college students.

According to Jones and Galliher (2015), however, the participants existed evenly across income and education levels. Given the breadth in the sample, the researchers viewed the medium to large effect sizes observed in the analysis to be even more profound. Ultimately, the findings with this Native sample illustrate the necessity for increased awareness and open dialogue concerning the frequency of microaggressive interactions. It also demonstrates the importance of how to reduce the perpetration of microaggressions in the workplace, at school, and in the community (Jones & Galliher, 2015). Jones and Galliher believed this dialogue would continue to bring improvements in awareness of microaggressions, increased acknowledgment of them, and increased efforts to reduce individual and systemic discrimination, not only among Native Americans, but also among all marginalized groups.

Taxonomy of Racial Microaggressions

Sue et al. (2007) identified several forms of racial microaggression. The researchers provided examples of racial microaggressions based on the following themes, alien in one's own land, ascription of intelligence, color blindness, criminality/assumption of criminal status, denial of individual racism, myth of meritocracy, pathologizing cultural values/communication styles, and second-class citizenship. Table 2 provides examples of each theme identified, and its corresponding assumptions.

Furthermore, Sue et al. (2008b) conducted a qualitative study on the types of racial microaggressions experienced by AAs. Because of the novelty of this area, Sue et

al. chose to use focus groups to develop a deeper understanding of the experiences reported by participants. The researchers collected demographic information and followed an eight-question interview protocol to collect data for the study. Participants reported incidents categorized in themes developed earlier (e.g., second-class citizenship, assumption of criminality, etc.). However, Sue and Sue (2012) identified three new themes specific to AAs: assumption of intellectual inferiority, assumption of inferior status, and assumed universality of the AA experience. Table 3 provides examples and assumptions related to each of these three themes. Further, the researchers noted an additional theme used to categorize miscellaneous incidents reported by participants did not fit into other categories.

Forrest-Bank and Jenson (2015) used a quantitative methodology to examine differences in microaggressions experienced by Asian, Latinos/Hispanic, Black, and White young adults. Participants were 409 undergraduate students enrolled at an urban public college in the western United States. In addition, Forrest-Bank and Jenson postulated racial and ethnic microaggression is the specific acts of microaggression experienced by people based on stereotypes and prejudice unique to each particular racial or ethnic group, pointing to the need to examine the differences regarding the types of microaggressions and their effects separately for each group. The researchers used the Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (Nadal, 2011) to measure respondents' experiences of racial and ethnic microaggression. According to Forrest-Bank and Jenson, the results revealed young adults in all of the nonWhite groups reported significantly higher rates of microaggressive experiences than did respondents in the White group. Additionally, Black participants experienced the highest levels of microaggression,

followed by Latinos/Hispanics and Asians. Exploratory post-hoc comparisons yielded significant differences in the nature and type of racial and ethnic microaggressions experienced by members of different racial or ethnic groups (Forrest-Bank & Jenson, 2015).

Forrest-Bank and Jenson (2015) stated complex historical and current racial and ethnic issues highlight the importance of conducting research aimed at better understanding the experiences of microaggression among members of different racial and ethnic groups. The differences in the experiences of microaggression among nonWhite people are seldom studied. Understanding the prevalence and types of microaggression experienced by different racial and ethnic groups is an important next step in preventing and reducing microaggressive behavior.

Forrest-Bank and Jenson (2015) found racial discrimination continues to be a vexing problem in the United States. On the one hand, tolerance for discrimination, both legally and socially, is decreasing. This change in attitude coincides with the growing diversity of the U.S. population in which Caucasian Whites are no longer the majority in many parts of the country and other ethnic groups will outnumber Caucasian Whites nationally within a few decades (Craig & Richeson, 2014). In addition, Craig and Richeson (2014) stated from both a policy and public health perspective, racial and ethnic discrimination is a significant risk factor for many health and mental health problems experienced by people of color. Furthermore, discrimination adversely affects access to and quality of health and mental health services for people of color (Samson & Bobo, 2014). Forrest-Bank and Jenson (2015) posited evidence indicates an insidious form of discriminatory behavior, referred to as microaggression, has increased. The researchers

reiterated the importance of understanding the specific perpetration mechanisms and examining the effect of such acts is critical to developing preventive interventions and policies necessary to reduce discrimination and service barriers for nonWhite people.

According to Forrest-Bank and Jenson (2015), the results of the analyses assessing group differences in types of perceived racial and ethnic discrimination indicated race and ethnicity affects the experiences and frequency of different types of racial and ethnic microaggression. The researchers stated these findings confirm the importance of examining differences in microaggressive experiences across racial and ethnic groups. Forrest-Bank and Jenson noted no difference existed in total REMS scores among the nonWhite groups. Therefore, obscurity of the significant differences found for different types of microaggression would occur if subscales had not been examined separately (Forrest-Bank & Jenson, 2015).

Additionally, Forrest-Bank and Jenson (2015) stated the study results have several important implications for practice and policy. Commonalities in microaggression incidents among groups suggest a need for universal interventions in school, community, and family settings to prevent discrimination among all young people. Prevention programs should include education and interactive curricula that expose students to microaggression examples; recognition and skills training may be effective in this regard (Forrest-Bank & Jenson, 2015). The researchers posited important differences in microaggression experiences among racial and ethnic groups found in the current study suggest interventions need to be adapted to meet the needs of young people from different backgrounds. In this regard, high schools, colleges, and universities may be appropriate venues for educating students about the common and unique forms of

microaggression across racial and ethnic groups. In addition, medical and clinical agencies are ideal to integrate knowledge about common microaggressions through strategies like cultural competency training. Last, Forrest-Bank and Jenson suggested broad-based community and education campaigns that use media strategies to convey messages about the adverse effects of microaggression may be an effective policy-level response.

Through a quantitative study, Torres-Harding and Turner (2015) sought to validate six new subscales of the Racial Microaggression Scale (RMAS; Torres-Harding et al., 2012) that assess the distress elicited by racial microaggression events. These distress subscales correspond to Huynh's (2012) concept of *stated stressfulness*, as well as mirror the scale structure of other scales that separately measure the frequency and the appraisal of stress evoked by such experiences, such as the Schedule of Racist Events and the General Ethnic Discrimination Scale (GEDS). The researchers emphasized measuring the distress elicited by seemingly mild or innocuous microaggression experiences is important for researchers and health professionals to determine whether microaggressions are harmful.

Torres-Harding and Turner (2015) explained two studies tested the reliability and validity of the RMAS distress subscales. In the first study, the reliability of these microaggression distress subscales was assessed to determine whether these subscales were internally consistent, as evidenced by a Cronbach's a of .70 or higher (DeVellis, 2003). The researchers postulated to establish convergent validity, a second study was conducted to examine the associations between the six RMAS distress subscales and three measures of either racial microaggressions or subtle, everyday experiences with

racism: the GEDS (Landrine et al., 2006), the Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (EMS; Huynh, 2012), and the EDS (Williams et al., 1997).

According to Torres-Harding and Turner (2015), in the first study reliability of the RMAS Distress Scales, the data consisted of information from 374 research participants. These participants completed only the RMAS. All of the data collected were through an online anonymous survey, which allowed the researchers to examin the effect of microaggressions on health and well-being (Torres-Harding & Turner, 2015). In the second study, the researchers posited in order to test the convergent validity of the four scales, data from a second group of 84 research participants was necessary. Participants completed an anonymous online survey. The researchers explained all of the participants completed the RMAS. Additionally, participants responded to the GEDS (Landrine et al., 2006) and the EMA (Huynh, 2012).

Torres-Harding and Turner (2015) stated these studies provide preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of the RMAS distress subscales. The internal consistency of the RMAS distress scales appeared to be very good. Regarding the convergent validity, all six subscales were found to correlate well with the appraised discrimination subscale from the GEDS, a general measure of how much racism-related experiences are upsetting or troublesome to an individual. Additionally, the distress subscales were significantly associated with their corresponding original RMAS subscale measuring the frequency of microaggression experiences. The researchers believed these subscales exhibited acceptable to good internal consistency.

Torres-Harding and Turner (2015) postulated the distress subscales also evidenced good convergent validity; the distress subscales positively correlated with

additional measures of stressfulness becuase of experiencing microaggressions or everyday discrimination. When controlling for the frequency of one's exposure to microaggression incidents, some racial or ethnic group differences arose. Asian Americans reported comparatively lower distress and Latinos reported comparatively higher distress in response to foreigner, low-achieving, invisibility, and environmental microaggressions. In addition, AAs reported higher distress than the other groups in response to environmental microaggressions. According to Torres-Harding and Turner, the results suggest the Racial Microaggressions Scale distress subscales may aid health professionals in assessing the distress elicited by different types of microaggression.

According to Torres-Harding and Turner (2015), assessment of microaggression experience and the resulting distress fits well with the most recent *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual,* Fifth edition (DSM-5; American Psychiatric Association, 2013) cultural formulation interview. In the current DSM-5 system, the researchers posited the focus has shifted away from cultural bound syndromes toward using a more flexible assessment approach to understand the differential effect of culturally important variables such as discrimination experiences on the development of psychopathology. The cultural formulation interview generally assesses the client's perceptions of stressors, such as discrimination. However, this interview does not specifically assess microaggression-related distress. Torres-Harding and Turner stated using the RMAS scale to assess microaggression distress in conjunction with the DSM-5 cultural formulation interview may help clinicians to integrate racism-related stressors in their conceptualization of the client's difficulties. In addition, the RMAS may help the clinician to avoid inappropriately attributing distress to intrapsychic or personality factors.

According to Torres-Harding and Turner (2015), individuals do report immediate distress in response to these experiences. However, the significance and long-term effect of this stressful response in racially diverse individuals requires attention in future research. The researchers suggested development of the distress scales may aid investigations into the stress appraisal process, the emotional reactions of people of color, and the short-term and long-term effects on physical and psychological health because of these microaggression experiences. Finally, the researchers emphasized health professionals need to become aware of the effects of microaggressions on the health and well-being of their clients, so that they do not inadvertently marginalize their patients and instead provide the highest possible quality of care.

Effects of Racial Microaggressions on African Americans

Researchers identified ways AAs perceive, interpret, and react to instances of racial microaggressions to determine the immediate and cumulative results of these acts (Hoggard, Byrd, & Sellers, 2015). For this reason, researchers used focus-group interviews to allow participants to talk in-depth about their experiences and to allow for rich interactions between group members (Nadal, 2011). The following five domains identified by the researchers represented the ways participants discussed racial microaggressions: incident, perception, reaction, interpretation, and consequence.

The incident domain pertained to the specific situations that may have had negative racial undertones, and included verbal, nonverbal/behavioral, and environmental situations (Nadal, 2011). Specific comments provided the basis for verbal incidents directed to the participants, whereas nonverbal and behavioral situations focused more on the body language of the perpetrator. Environmental situations were instances when one’s

physical surroundings reflected some forms of subtle racism. For example, a person may view his or her work environment negatively if all upper management and executives are Caucasians, whereas the majority of the administrative support staff and custodial staff are AA (Nadal, 2011).

Table 2

Examples of Racial Microaggressions and Assumptions

Theme	Examples and assumptions
Alien in own land	Example: Where did you learn to speak such good English? Assumption: You were not born in the United States.
Ascription of intelligence	Example: A teacher always calls on the Asian student for answers to the mathematics questions. Assumption: Asians and Asian Americans are superior in mathematics.
Color blindness	Example: "I do not see color. We're all the same." Assumption: Your race or cultural background is not an important part of your life.
Criminality/assumption of criminal status	Example: A woman pulling her purse closer to her body as she walks past an African American male. Assumption: African American males are criminals.
Denial of individual racism	Example: "I am not racist. I played on a baseball team with a lot of Latinos." Assumption: A person is not racist if they have friends of color.
Myth of meritocracy	Example: "African Americans just need to work hard to be successful." Assumption: Race has nothing to do with an individual's success.
Pathologizing cultural values and communication styles	Example: A student blogs, "African American people are so loud in the cafeteria. Why can't they just be quiet?" Assumption: African Americans should assimilate to more European styles of communication.

Note. Adapted from "Racial Microaggressions in Everyday Life: Implications for Clinical Practice," by D. W. Sue, C. M. Capodilupo, G. C. Torino, J. M. Bucceri, A. M. Holder, K. L. Nadal, and M. Esquilin, 2007, *American Psychologist, 2,* 271–286. doi:10.1037/003Ki066X.62.4.271

Table 3

Racial Microaggressions Reported by African Americans

Theme	Examples and assumptions
Assumption of intellectual inferiority	Example: A student saying to a peer "I do not want to work with you in my group because you are Black." Assumption: African Americans have inferior intelligence to Caucasians.
Assumption of inferior status	Example: A teacher always calls on the Asian student for answers to mathematics questions. Assumption: Asians and Asian Americans are superior in mathematics.
Universality of African American experiences	Example: "I do not see color. We are all the same." Assumption: Your race or cultural background is not an important part of your life.

Note. Adapted from "Racial Microaggressions Against Black Americans: Implications for Counseling," by D. W. Sue, K. L. Nadal, C. M. Capodilupo, A. I. Lin, G. C. Torino, and D. P. Rivera, 2008, *Journal of Counseling and Development, 86,* 333–338. doi:10.1002/j.1556-6678.2008.tb00517.x

The perception domain refers to instances when participants had to determine whether an incident was racially motivated (Nadal, 2011). Nadal explained this may happen when a coworker makes a joke or comment that may be racially insensitive, such as after an individual patronizing a restaurant changes tables because the seat is next to a group of minorities. After determining whether an incident was racially motivated, participants went through a reactionary period. These strong reactions could be cognitive, behavioral, or emotional.

Nadal (2011) posited four core ideas evolved from participants' responses in the reaction domain: healthy paranoia, sanity check, empowering and validating oneself, and rescuing offenders. Further, prior to or immediately following an event, participants reported feeling paranoid about the situation, perhaps as a result of previous instances of racism in their lives. In addition to being paranoid, participants reported checking with

other AA individuals to validate their perception of the incident as a racist act. Participants reported receiving validation from others and mentioned the empowering nature of the validation. Participants reported using the microaggressive event for self-validation, recognizing their experiences were not their fault but those of the aggressor. Finally, some participants reported feeling the need to rescue the offender, thereby putting the offender's feelings ahead of their own feelings (Nadal, 2011).

Sue et al. (2008b) postulated that after experiencing, perceiving, and reacting to the microaggressive act, participants reported they had to go back to the incident to decide if the event was a meaningful act. Participants' responses comprised five themes, similar to themes identified earlier by Sue et al. (2007), such as *you do not belong, you are abnormal, you are intellectually inferior, you are not trustworthy*, and *you are all the same*. Furthermore, participants spoke about the psychological consequences of experiencing racial microaggressions that included a sense of powerlessness and invisibility. The respondents also felt forced to comply or conform to Caucasian standards while at work. This caused them to feel a loss of integrity. Last, some respondents noted they felt the need to act in ways inauthentic to their true selves to avoid confirming any stereotypical beliefs about AA people (Nadal, 2011).

Burrow, Torres, and Driscoll (2010) conducted a study using a mixed-methods approach to identify the types of racial microaggressions experienced by high-achieving AAs. The researchers also sought to understand how these experiences affected the mental health of participants. In the first part of their study, Burrow et al. used a qualitative methodology to identify the perceptions of racial microaggressions by 97 participants. Each of the 97 participants were either doctoral graduates or current doctoral

candidates. Participants answered open-ended questions about their experiences in graduate school, including their successes and their challenges. Based on participants' responses, three themes emerged from the study. Two of the themes—assumptions of criminality/second-class citizenship, and underestimation of personal ability—were similar to themes identified by Sue et al. (2007) and Sue et al. (2008b). Participants reported feeling like criminals on their campus and sensing that faculty members had concerns about their level of ability. The third theme, cultural or racial isolation, reflected participants' sense of feeling singled out, whether real or perceived, because of their racial background. Participants reported feeling isolated, as though others did not understand what they were experiencing, and worried about how others perceived their academic performance (Burrow et al., 2010).

For the second part of the study, Burrow et al. (2010) used quantitative methods to determine the effect of these racial microaggressions and found the underestimation of personal ability had the most salient effect on the mental health of participants. Those who perceived more racial microaggressions related to personal ability reported higher levels of stress and higher numbers of depressive symptoms at the 1-year follow-up. Burrow et al. concluded the underestimation of personal ability might be a greater threat to an individual's mental health because of the underlying message or stereotype that threatens the personal goals of high-achieving AAs (Nadal, 2011).

Overall, Sue, Capodilupo, and Holder (2008a) and Sue et al. (2008b) provided a foundation for scholars who seek to address issues related to racism and, more specifically, the effect of racial microaggressions on the lives of minorities, especially AAs. Their findings sparked interest in examining the phenomenon in the field of

counseling. According to Nadal (2011), racial microaggressions occur not only in counseling and counseling-supervision relationships, but also in the work environment of counseling and counseling-psychology programs. Specifically, AA members in counseling and counseling-psychology programs have reported instances of racial microaggressions from their Caucasian colleagues (Constantine et al., 2008).

Moreover, Constantine et al. (2008) designed a qualitative study to identify some ways racial microaggressions toward AA faculty manifest in counseling and counseling-psychology programs. Researchers used purposive sampling to identify a sample appropriate for the study. Participation criteria were self-identification as AA, tenure-track or tenured faculty member in a doctoral-level counseling and counseling-psychology program, acknowledgement that subtle racism exists in the United States, and personal experiences of subtle racism in academia. The researchers contacted 15 individuals; however, only seven women and five men agreed to participate in the study (Constantine et al., 2008).

The incorporation of revisions based on participants' feedback occurred after the pilot interview conducted with one AA male and one AA female faculty member in doctoral-level counseling programs (Constantine et al., 2008). The final protocol used for the study included a semistructured audiotaped interview that was nonprescriptive and allowed for additional probing for any areas of focus for the study. One AA counseling psychologist—the first researcher of the study—and one biracial Asian and White female doctoral candidate in counseling psychology conducted the interviews with the 12 participants. Before commencing the interviews, researchers defined racial microaggression. In addition, interviewers confirmed the intention of the interviews was

to focus on instances of subtle racism experienced as faculty members in participants' respective programs. Interviews lasted for 45 to 70 minutes (Constantine et al., 2008). Constantine et al. (2008) identified seven themes that permeated the experiences of the AA faculty. The researchers noted that, to a degree, some themes were interconnected. The seven themes include the following.

1. Alternating feelings of invisibility, marginalization, and hypervisibility.
2. Questioning or challenging by other faculty or staff members of the qualifications or credentials of AA faculty members.
3. Receiving inadequate mentoring in the workplace.
4. Encountering organizational expectations to serve in service-oriented roles with low perceived value by administrators or other faculty colleagues.
5. Having difficulties determining whether subtle discrimination was race or gender based.
6. Being self-consciousness regarding choice of clothing, hairstyle, or manner of speech.
7. Using coping strategies to address microaggressions.

First, participants reported feeling invisible in their departments, except when their expertise, typically related to race or ethnic topics, was needed (Constantine et al., 2008). For example, participants reported feeling highly visible when recruiting an applicant of color for an employment position. They also reported these feelings in relation to the research conducted by participants, especially when the research related to racial, ethnic, or gender issues. Participants indicated their research was not valued. However, some participants noted their research in these areas was highly valued during

times of accreditation by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs or the American Psychological Association.

Second, credentials of AA faculty members appeared to be in question by other faculty and staff members (Constantine et al., 2008). Eight of the participants in the study reported they experienced this phenomenon and provided examples. These examples included the use of their first name without invitation, or as “Miss” or “Mister” instead of “Doctor” and also faculty and staff questioning them directly regarding their academic credentials. One faculty member described an experience in the school’s cafeteria when a Caucasian person assumed the AA faculty member was working in the cafeteria and proceeded to give an order for a meal.

Some Black faculty members (n = 7) reported a lack of adequate mentoring in their workplace (Constantine et al., 2008). One participant indicated deciding to do without mentoring after one failed attempt at seeking out mentoring from another faculty member of color. Six AA faculty members acknowledged they believed there was an expectation for them to serve in other service roles on campus, such as faculty advisor to a cultural-based student organization and roles that had little perceived value by their colleagues. Several female respondents had difficulties determining whether the treatment they received pertained to their race or their gender (Constantine et al., 2008).

The first five themes appear closely related, pertaining to the actions of participants’ colleagues and centering on job responsibilities (Constantine et al., 2008). The sixth theme was more personal. Three respondents indicated they felt self-conscious about the perceptions of others concerning their hairstyles, clothing, and manner of speech (Constantine et al., 2008). One AA male faculty member acknowledged he was

conscious of colleagues perceiving him as intimidating. To combat this perception, he dressed and spoke in a manner that failed to perpetuate stereotypes of AAs. Another participant, an AA female, spoke of being conscious about her style of dress, tone of voice, and bilingualist ability to speak "Ebonics." The participant stated she wore her African clothes less frequently because of the pressure of not appearing "too Black" (Constantine et al., 2008, p. 353).

Constantine et al. (2008) identified coping strategies respondents used to address the subtle racism they experienced while at work. Participants sought support from colleagues, friends, partners, or family (n = 10). Respondents focused on choosing wisely regarding when and how they would address racial microaggressions (n = 7). They participated in prayer and other forms of spirituality (n = 6). Another coping strategy was withdrawing, interpersonally or emotionally, from faculty they perceived as perpetrators of racial microaggressions (n = 3). Finally, participants resigned themselves to the concept that there would always be some form of racist treatment in the academic environment (n = 3; Constantine et al., 2008).

Based on the experiences of AA faculty members, Constantine et al. (2008) concluded counseling and counseling-psychology faculty need to engage in more development that is professional, provide more training, and dialogue about subtle forms of racism experienced by AA faculty. The researchers believed engaging in these activities would improve the health of the programs and the clients (Constantine et al., 2008). The following section provides a detailed overview of recent studies pertaining to the effect of racial microaggressions on motivation and job satisfaction.

Lechuga (2012) studied emotional management and motivation, which offered a perspective of faculty work that examined the role emotions play in the academic life of 15 underrepresented faculty members in science and engineering at a predominantly Caucasian institution. Many participants spoke about incidents regarding racism, ethnocentrism, homophobia, and their perceived inability to speak out because of the institution's display rules. At least four participants commented on how difficult the climate was for women of color in science and engineering. A full professor described a conversation he overheard between a Caucasian individual and a Hispanic female engineering professor. The Caucasian person failed to realize that the "compliments" made to the Hispanic professor were actually degrading:

> You need to talk to Hispanic women in science and you will see an amazing world. … These women have experienced certain things, you know. People telling them things like "Oh my God" after they finished their talk. "Oh you're so bright." You know I only thought about Hispanic people as lazy and ignorant, but you have changed the way I see them now. (Lechuga, 2012, p. 92)

According to Lechuga (2012), the manner in which individuals manage emotions in the context of the professoriate links to the feeling rules of higher education. In this case, the rules govern the norms that specify how and to what degree emotions are publicly experienced and displayed by faculty members, as well as the implicit rules with which faculty must comply to be promoted or tenured. Emotion management in higher education differs from that in other professional contexts partially because of the tenure and promotion system. Lechuga stated the gamble is significant for faculty who do not comply with the display rules of the professoriate; that is, their careers are in jeopardy. In

relative terms, emotional labor may impose a significant load on faculty and may require a higher level of emotional work.

In conclusion, Lechuga's (2012) findings implied institutional culture may play a role in the degree to which faculty members engage in emotional labor. Given that the university studied was comprised predominantly of Caucasian faculty and students, and has a reputation for being unfriendly to underrepresented minorities, underrepresented faculty may need to engage in a high level of emotional labor. Lechuga acknowledged the need to offer ways to manage emotional stress for minority faculty. The researcher emphasized that, in the long run, such efforts may contribute to increased motivation, satisfaction, retention, and productivity of minority faculty members.

In a recent article, Reich (2013) asked an 80-year-old mentor if the mentor thought the United States would ever achieve true equality of opportunity. Reich's mentor responded, not without a fight. Those who have wealth and power and privilege do not want equal opportunity. It is too threatening to them. They will pretend equal opportunity already exists and that anyone who does not make it in the United States must be lazy, stupid, or otherwise undeserving. Furthermore, the mentor stated the 400 richest Americans are now wealthier than the bottom 150 million Americans put together and have more political influence than ever (Reich, 2013).

In a 2013 interview by Reece with Henderson, co-director of the Business and Environment Initiative at Harvard University, they discussed the link between innovation, culture, and social responsibility. According to Henderson, the tried-and-true assumptions of past scholars, such as Kotter, are helpful in understanding organizational change. Henderson postulated a lack of appreciation exists for the relationship between culture

and innovation because people have tended to focus on innovation in one paradigm and organizational culture in another.

Henderson (as cited in Reece, 2013) stated Kotter talked about organizational change, but did not address the microlevel effects of having a clear purpose and living one's own beliefs. Henderson also stated Kotter acknowledged the microlevel effect organizational change could have on people's innovative capabilities, on their strategic and innovative imagination, and on the ability to follow through. Henderson believed this concept was new for organizational change. Further, Henderson stated another new component to organizational change concerned values and purpose; experts value aspects of their organizations beyond simply shareholder monetary-value maximization (Reece, 2013). Purpose-driven executives have understood this intuitively. Henderson postulated organizations could do well and make money simultaneously. Leaders are beginning to develop a richer sense of why they should initiate a fundamental conversation about what maximizing shareholder value means. Organizational leaders understand why having a broader purpose changes people's actions and increases their creativity, helping them sustain hard work. Humans wish to be part of cooperative groups and feel part of a team (Henderson, as cited in Reece, 2013).

According to Henderson (as cited in Reece, 2013), researchers are beginning to understand why feeling part of a team improves innovation. Reece asked what would inspire businesses to stop the vicious cycle of managing to the numbers every quarter when they know fundamentally that doing so is wrong (para 18). Henderson provided three sources of potential change: (a) situations will worsen quickly, requiring change;

(b) business people will understand profits will follow organizational change; (c) and global corporate governance will encourage dialog (Henderson, as cited in Reece, 2013).

Sohi and Singh (2015) explored how Northeasterners in Delhi respond to microaggression experiences and what implication this has for their social well-being. Not just in Delhi, but also all across the country, Northeasterners face prejudice because of their looks and different lifestyle. However, the concerns of this group have not been the focus of academic research (Sohi & Singh, 2015). Northeasterners in the study reported experiencing high levels of microaggression. In addition, participants reported very high levels of anger, group efficacy, and collective action. However, Northeasterners reported only moderate levels of social well-being. Sohi and Singh addressed an important gap in the literature by extending the integrative theoretical model of coping with collective disadvantage. The researchers explored how collective action taking brought about anger or group efficacy feelings in attenuating the adverse effect of perceived discrimination on social well-being of a disadvantaged group.

Despite the rising public discourse on equal rights and opportunities for all, characterization of relations between different social groups around the world continue because of instances of discrimination against minority community members at the hands of the majority community. However, in recent years, a decline has occurred in the overt, blatant expressions of discrimination, and more subtle forms are now replacing these. These subtle expressions can be described as forms of microaggression—the brief verbal, behavioral, and environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial slights and insults to the target person or group (Sue et al., 2007). Sohi and Singh (2015) stated that although relations between

different social groups and communities in India have improved considerably, prejudice in more subtle forms continues to plague intergroup relations.

According to Sohi and Singh (2015) recent work on unravelling the process that guides disadvantaged group members to respond to perceived injustice in terms of collective action discerns two pathways: (a) when group members' emotions guide them to collective action and (b) when a belief in the group's ability to solve problems collectively guides action. Further, research regarding the effect of such collective action taking on well-being has been inconclusive, as some researchers showed collective action positively affects well-being (e.g., Foster, 2014), and other researchers posited action has a negative influence on well-being (e.g., Bergman et al., 2001). Sohi and Singh stated in addition to this, past researchers exploring the linkages between collective action and well-being have made psychological and emotional aspects of well-being their focus.

Furthermore, Sohi and Singh (2015) stated a rising recognition exists that well-being is more than just a state of psychological and emotional comfort. Rather, it also influences how satisfied an individual is with his or her social relationships and involvement in the larger community. Sohi and Singh reiterated despite this, little past research has pertained to how perceived discrimination experiences and the ensuing collective action effect social well-being of marginalized group members. The researchers stated although research on collective action tendencies of disadvantaged group members has yielded useful results, it has not been extended to examine how the underlying psychological mechanisms (emotional pathway and efficacy pathway) and the consequent action taking effect the social well-being of the disadvantaged group members.

According to Sohi and Singh (2015), when differentiating between pervasive and isolated aspects of gender discrimination, Foster (2014) reported that in the face of perceived pervasiveness of gender discrimination, informing family, friends, and the media led to increased well-being than doing nothing at all. Sohi and Singh stated these studies elucidate that collective action in response to discrimination is consequential for various aspects of well-being. However, Foster (2014) argued a need exists to understand the influence of collective action on well-being in light of the discussions regarding the nature of discrimination (Sohi & Singh, 2015).

Sohi and Singh (2015) addressed an important gap in the literature regarding collective action in the face of discrimination by exploring the effect of such acts on well-being of marginalized groups. The Indian academic community has paid insufficient attention to understanding the discrimination experiences of Northeasterners. At a time when reports of discrimination and violence against this group are high, research specifically focused on the concerns of this group is warranted (Sohi & Singh, 2015). However, no researchers have studied microaggression as a variable of discrimination.

Microaggression is a rapidly growing area of study as prejudice and discrimination still exist in the 21st century (Sohi & Singh, 2015). The social and political intolerance towards extreme, overt acts of prejudice has given way to subtle, but also more pervasive, expressions of the same. Sohi and Singh (2015) found anger brought about by perceptions of being a disadvantaged group led group members to take action against the discrimination. Further, such collective action taking is related to the enhancement of social well-being by providing an avenue for members to work together and drive change. According to Sohi and Singh, this work informs recent advances in the

field wherein collective action is a possible intervention to mitigate the effect of perceived discrimination on well- being, and in particular, social well-being.

Through a quantitative study, Liao, Weng, and West (2015) investigated whether a cultural factor (social connectedness) and a dispositional characteristic (intolerance of uncertainty) would serve as risk factors or protective factors in the association between perceived racial microaggressions and anxiety symptoms. The sample consisted of 126 Black American university students. Participants were 26 males (21%), 99 females (79%), and one person who identified as transgender (0.8%). According to Liao et al., although strong associations between racism and anxiety disorders have been found among Black Americans (Soto, Dawson-Andoh, & BeLue, 2011), few researchers have studied the relation between racial microaggressions and anxiety (Blume, Lovato, Thyken, & Denny, 2012; Nadal et al., 2014). In addition, little is known regarding factors associated with anxiety symptoms in this ethnic group.

Liao et al. (2015) referred to a subjective sense of interpersonal closeness and togetherness with one's social environment (Lee & Robbins, 1995). Because ethnic minorities live in the mainstream society as well as the ethnic community, both connectedness to an ethnic community (ethnic subjective sense) and to mainstream society (mainstream subjective sense) play an important role in their adjustment (Yoon, Hacker, Hewitt, Abrams, & Cleary, 2012). Ethnic subjective sense measures closeness to one's own ethnic community, whereas mainstream subjective sense measures one's sense of belonging to mainstream society (Liao et al., 2015).

According to Lia et al. (2015), IU is the tendency to experience fear and discomfort in uncertain situations. IU is strongly associated with anxiety (e.g., Fergus &

Wu, 2011) and is considered as a cognitive vulnerability, defined as a "trait-like personality characteristic that interacts with significant life stress, conferring liability to emotional disorders" (Reardon & Williams, 2007, p. 626). Researchers believe when faced with uncertain or aversive situations, individuals with high IU tend to engage in maladaptive behaviors and cognitive strategies (e.g., worry), which only serve to maintain and exacerbate anxiety (Mankus, Aldao, Kerns, Mayville, & Mennin, 2013). As such, the uncertainty components of racial microaggressions may appear more threatening to those with high IU, contributing to anxiety. Conversely, those with low IU may be less threatened by uncertainty, and therefore are able to find solutions to reduce the uncertainties associated with racial microaggressions (Liao et al., 2015).

Liao et al. (2015) found results arose in this study and stressed that these findings add to the literature by demonstrating racial microaggression may be a significant factor that contributes to anxiety symptoms among Black American students. In addition, the researchers posited the findings are consistent with the social identity theory that feeling connected to one's in-group is a protective factor when confronted with experiences of prejudice. The researchers provided a rich description of graphs and tables to assist the reader. According to Liao et al., perceived racial microaggressions negatively correlated with mainstream SC, suggesting racial microaggressions may make Black individuals feel less connected to the mainstream society or vice versa. The researchers suggested that future researchers could use a longitudinal design to determine causal direction of this association and investigate whether mainstream SC related to other mental health outcomes, such as self-esteem and depression instead of anxiety.

Additionally, Liao et al. (2015) posited that IU might enhance the internal dilemmas inherent in microaggressions such that those with high IU may be even more puzzled about how to make sense of the racial microaggressions, thus becoming more anxious. In conclusion, Liao et al. demonstrated racial microaggression is a vulnerability factor for anxiety symptoms in Black Americans, and the researchers identified ethnic SC and IU as moderators. The researchers discussed limitations and future research directions and provided clinical implications. The results shed light on a specific type of social support that may be beneficial for people who experience racial microaggressions and highlighted the importance of examining dispositional attributes that may exacerbate these experiences (Liao et al., 2015).

Lewis and Neville (2015) developed a measure of gendered racial microaggressions (subtle and everyday verbal, behavioral, and environmental expressions of oppression based on the intersection of one's race and gender) experienced by Black women. Lewis and Neville postulated a dearth of empirical research exists regarding the extent to which the intersection of racism and sexism affects the lives of Black women. Lewis and Neville sought to address the gaps in the literature by exploring the intersection of subtle forms of racism and sexism for Black women.

Lewis and Neville (2015) applied an intersectionality framework by drawing on Essed's (1991) concept of gendered racism and Sue's (2010) work on microaggressions to frame their study. Furthermore, the researchers extended these bodies of research by constructing and providing initial psychometric support for a quantitative scale to assess gendered racial microaggressions experienced by Black women. The development of the Gendered Racial Microaggressions Scale (GRMS) was to assess both frequency and

stress appraisal of microaggressions, in two separate studies. After developing the initial pool of GRMS items, the researchers received input from a community-based focus group of Black women and an expert panel (Lewis & Neville, 2015). According to Lewis and Neville, in Study 1, an exploratory factor analysis using a sample of 259 Black women resulted in a multidimensional scale with four factors: (a) assumptions of beauty and sexual objectification, (b) silenced and marginalized, (c) strong black woman stereotype, and (d) angry black woman stereotype. In Study 2, results of confirmatory factor analyses using an independent sample of 210 Black women suggested the four-factor model was a good fit of the data for both the frequency and stress appraisal scales. Supporting construct validity, the GRMS positively related to the Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (Nadal, 2011) and the Schedule of Sexist Events (Calabrese, Meyer, Overstreet, Haile, & Hansen, 2014).

According to Lewis and Neville (2015), the GRMS subscales positively related to perceived sexist events. Each of the GRMS frequency and stress appraisal subscales positively correlated with each of the SSE subscales. However, the moderate correlations between the GRMS and perceived sexist events suggest that they are related but conceptually distinct, which adds to the understanding of the intersecting multiple oppressions experienced by many Black women. Lewis and Neville stated this finding supports the literature regarding the uniqueness of Black women's experiences with subtle forms of oppression because of the intersections of race and gender. Increased experiences with gendered racial microaggressions in this study related to increased reported racial microaggressions as measured by the REMS. Specifically, participants' experiences with gendered racial microaggressions about assumptions of beauty and

sexual objectification and the strong Black woman stereotype related to microinvalidations, as measured by the REMS (Lewis & Neville, 2015). The researchers stated the strong black woman stereotype factor also related to exoticization, which supports previous research pertaining to the microaggressions experienced by other women of color (Sue et al., 2007).

Specifically, the experience of feeling invisible is a type of microinvalidation according to Sue's theory and empirical work. For example, Constantine et al. (2008) found African American faculty members experienced invisibility in their workplace. Further, the silenced and marginalized subscale related to workplace and school microaggressions as well as assumptions of inferiority, which highlight the ways perpetrators' assumptions about inferiority may relate to silencing and marginalizing Black women in the workplace (Lewis & Neville, 2015). The projected stereotype of the angry Black woman also related to assumptions of criminality, which adds a nuanced understanding to the link between these stereotypes. According to Lewis and Neville (2015), the findings suggest that although some overlap exists between gendered racial microaggressions and racial microaggressions, as evidenced by the moderate correlations, there are also some unique differences. In addition, the finding suggested there are some differences between the associations of gendered racial microaggressions and racial micro- aggressions depending on the type of assessment (frequency com- pared with stress appraisal). The researchers discussed in length the limitations to the study, implications for future research, and implications for practice.

Lewis and Neville (2015) revealed four meaningful aspects of gendered racial microaggressions experienced by Black women: (a) assumptions of beauty and sexual

objectification, (b) silenced and marginalized, (c) strong black woman stereotype, and (d) angry black woman stereotype. The researchers provided psychometric support for this measure, which positively related to racial microaggressions and perceived sexist events in theoretically expected ways. In addition, higher perceived gendered racial microaggressions related to higher levels of psychological distress. According to Lewis and Neville, the GRMS makes a significant contribution to the research literature by providing a measurement tool that uses an intersectional analytic framework to capture the unique experiences of Black women.

Critical Race Theory and Racial Microaggressions

Critical race theory emerged from the need for a more nuanced, but bold, explanation for persistent social inequity and its effect on people of color. Legal scholars, such as Chiang, Lawrence, Matsuda, Calmore, Williams, and Delgado, believed critical legal theory failed to account for persistent racial inequity and discrimination, and the ways in which U.S. jurisprudence appeared to maintain, if not cause, inequity (Chiang, 2013). Kohli and Solórzano (2012) stated during the last 10 years, CRT has extended into many disciplines, including education. The use of CRT in this field is to heighten awareness about racism and educational inequity. By challenging dominant ideologies, CRT moves academic inquiry beyond frameworks of individual responsibility and success to discussions about the unexamined institutional and systemic factors that leave oppressive power dynamics intact (Levin et al., 2013; Nadal et al., 2014; Rogers-Ard, Knaus, Epstein, & Mayfield, 2012).

Sue et al. (2007) questioned, “If you want to understand racism, do you ask Caucasians or People of Color?” (p. 279). This assertion echoes CRT, which stresses the

importance of quantitative and qualitative research to overcome and challenge of racial oppression (Constantine et al., 2008; Nadal, 2011; Sue, 2010). Because the focus of this study was perceptions of racial microaggressions for AA and other faculty of color, a race-based theory was an appropriate foundation. Critical race theory relates to the intersection of race and property to understand social inequality (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995) and expanded beyond its initial application in legal studies to become an effective lens through which to examine the field of education (Capper, 2015).

The perceptions of people of color are important as they call attention to and describe racial microaggressions. This perspective is necessary to understand and disrupt oppression. Therefore, I applied a CRT approach using an examination of AA and other faculty of color perceptions of racial microaggressions and their effects on motivation and job satisfaction.

Critical Race Theory in Education

Critical race theory is an emergent tool in the field of education. Pittman (2012) revealed racial microaggressions were a common and negative facet in the lives of AA faculty on campus. Specifically, Pittman stated AA faculty narratives suggested interactions of microinvalidations with Caucasian colleagues and microinsults with Caucasian students. Reflecting on how campus leaders incorporate racial perspectives in the academy through the construction of the curriculum, diversity initiatives, and institutional policies, Rogers-Ard et al. (2012) noted these elements are essential to the progress of higher education's relationship with racial equality.

Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995) laid a foundation for CRT in education as a way to begin to theorize race and to use the theory to examine inequality in schools. The

researchers argued CRT may be a lens through which scholars in education could engage race more substantively. The researchers used an analytic tool to understand school inequity. Specifically, Ladson-Billings and Tate leveraged the CRT concept to offer three additional arguments particularly related to education:

1. Race continues to be a significant factor in determining inequity in the United States.
2. U.S. society centers on property rights.
3. The intersection of race and property creates an analytic tool, through which we can examine social and school inequality. (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995, p. 48)

Solórzano (1998) was one of the first scholars to publish an article in an education journal that used CRT as a framework to explore teacher education. Solórzano explored American racist history, and then linked the analysis to a discussion about the state of teacher education. In addition, Solórzano stated CRT in education uses liberating and transforming methods to further research on discrimination based on race, gender, and class. Pittman (2012) used CRT to explore the effect of racial microaggressions at a predominantly Caucasian institution. Specifically, CRT allows researchers to addresses policies and practices that appear superficially to be neutral, fair, or objective, but are actually expressions of racism that favor the privileged group.

Gabriel (2013) emphasized the importance of introducing readers to some of the concepts others have commented on in relation to diversity, management, organizational culture, or librarianship. Gabriel stated many of the readings reviewed articulate what a reader may have merely labeled as personal observations before finding some of the

literature. In addition, the reader discovers social scientists and other scholars who are studying human behavior to try to find better ways to increase workplace effectiveness or increase diversity. Gabriel postulated at the most basic level, scholars and social scientists investigate how people can interact in a more positive way with one another as human beings. The struggle of discussing diversity and achieving diversity in all facets of society is a multilayered issue not easily resolved (Gabriel, 2013).

Gabriel (2013) found issues surrounding diversity relate to factors that do not exist solely within the realm of a particular library setting. However, these issues surrounding diversity can transfer *into* one and can escalate into discord if not properly identified, and a lack of affirmative steps taken to understand the source of conflict. The researcher believed the readings presented could help readers understand some of the complexity that is at play when considering how to address diversity issues. Gabriel provided readings in sections that discuss culture, organizational culture, and diversity; leadership; conflict management; and racial microaggressions.

Gabriel (2013) acknowledged narrowing down the readings that discuss culture and diversity generally is a difficult challenge given the significant amount of scholarship across fields. However, some of the readings help one focus quickly on some of the overarching issues surrounding culture and diversity. Others focus specifically on organizational culture, as it exists within libraries, and the particular challenges that face them. Further, Gabriel emphasized the importance of understanding the characteristics that make an effective leader can be useful information no matter where a person stands in an organization. This information can help one determine the stability of the organization and consider the effectiveness of different types of leaders within a specific

work environment. Gabriel confirmed that when considering diversity issues, much of the success of an integrated workplace relies heavily on an organization's leaders; therefore, it is worth knowing what makes a leader capable.

Gabriel (2013) stated understanding how to work within an organization that may have difficulty dealing with diversity issues comes down to whether or not managers understand the issues and are willing to deal with difficult topics directly. The researcher reiterated that reading about how to manage conflict within an organization, or understanding how to address the problem in a practical way, led to the sources chosen for this review of articles. Further, Gabriel postulated that knowing how to categorize conflicts within a workplace may help an employee recognize ways to manage conflict effectively to benefit the organization.

Gabriel (2013) concluded the article review with readings on racial microaggression. According to Gabriel, racial microaggression is brief and commonplace daily verbal, behavioral and environmental indignities, whether intentional or unintentional, that communicates hostile, derogatory, or negative racial slights and insults toward people of color. Sue has studied microaggression relating to different groups and has written extensively on the topic. Gabriel encouraged readers to seek out Sue's other work for more information regarding how racial microaggressions affect minority groups. The researcher acknowledged that the readings listed do not address the field of librarianship. However, Gabriel postulated that in the context of understanding what members of minority groups may experience every day, racial microaggressions are for outlining the nuances of repeated interactions that, over time, may have a profound effect on an individual.

Criticisms on the Construct of Racial Microaggressions

Although Sue and colleagues (Nadal, 2011; Sue et al., 2007; Sue et al., 2008b) further defined the construct of racial microaggressions and added empirical studies to the literature on the topic, others have joined discussion and dissension about the validity of racial microaggressions. In the May-June 2008 issue of *The American Psychologist*, several researchers provided unreferenced commentaries on Sue et al.'s (2007) article on racial microaggressions and their effect in everyday life. For example, Wong et al. (2014) countered Sue et al.'s (2008b) inference about the dynamics in the cross-racial counseling relationship based on racial microaggressions, pointing out several other issues unrelated to race could affect the interaction between the counselor and the client. Specifically, Wong et al. noted the researchers focused solely on the racial dynamics and did not probe further into underlying, more general interpersonal issues of the client and the counselor, explaining these same issues could have a similar effect on same-race counseling dyads.

Burrow and Hill (2012) questioned how one would know whether they were receiving unfair treatment based on their race or ethnicity. Specifically, Burrow and Hill questioned Sue et al.'s reported experiences on a flight (Sue et al., 2007, p. 275), providing alternative reasons for the treatment Sue et al. received while on the aircraft. Burrow did not question Sue et al.'s ideology per se, but pondered whether Sue et al.'s experiences were based on an "experiential reality" (2007, p. 276) or whether the experiences were solely used to affirm the researchers' taxonomy of racial microaggressions.

Schroer (2015) described racial microaggressions as macrononsense and argued that Sue et al.'s (2007) perspective was flawed. Schroer used affirmative action as an

example, noting the researchers supported this policy, but considered affirmative action offensive if an individual asked if the hiring of AAs for a job or admitted to a university were based on their race. Further, Schroer commented on three of the identified themes, stating the examples of racial microaggressions were irrational reasons for causing emotional turmoil in persons of color. Schroer pointed stated many U.S. citizens, both Caucasian and nonCaucasian, have ethnicities that are not native to the United States and that many of these individuals are proud of their ethnicity. Therefore, asking persons about their ethnicity in the appropriate context is not an act of prejudice or discrimination. Further, Schroer particularly took issue with the idea that a minority could become emotionally distressed from someone commenting on their intelligence—for example, acknowledging an AA for being articulate, or the assumption that an Asian American will do well in mathematics and science.

Schroer (2015) stated the researchers overemphasized the effect these statements could have on an individual. Finally, Schroer postulated the researchers were trying to focus too much on the race and ethnicity of an individual and less on the individual as a human, citing the dismissal of Rogerian concepts in favor of judging people based on their demographics. Overall, Schroer believed the Capodilupo et al.'s (2007, as cited in Schroer, 2015) ideas promoted a sense of victimization and were in opposition to current philosophies in psychology, focused on positive aspects of human nature.

Wong et al. (2014) found no clear distinction between race and culture, pointing out that Caucasian Americans may not be the only people to have a Western European worldview. Further, Wong et al. acknowledged worldview is especially important in the therapeutic setting, as clinicians need to be aware of the point of view of their client,

regardless of race. Wong et al. voiced concern about Sue et al's. (2007) notion that racial self-awareness is the prerequisite for cultural competence and suggested this is merely one of several attributes that can lead to cultural competence. Overall, Wong et al. was appreciative of the Sue et al.'s (2007) contribution to the field of psychology and encouraged scholars to continue delineating distinct differences between race, culture, and other characteristics of an individual's identity and how these differences can help Caucasians have a better understanding and awareness of racism.

Nadal (2012) and Nadal et al. (2014) further defined the construct of racial microaggressions and added empirical studies to the literature on the topic. Additionally, Nadal (2012) conducted research to examine microaggressions from a multiracial perspective. Daniel, Kina, Dariotis, and Fojas (2014) highlighted the importance of rendering mixed-race people intelligible to the eye, particularly through the digital photograph montages and collages of parents and their multiracial children that fill the pages of such texts and accompany a number of campaigns designed to market multiracialism. Stylized, but troubling, mixed-race publications and studies position themselves as "ahead of the times" rather than "in the times," and risk failing to properly historicize miscegenation and the history of mixed-race people (Daniel et al., 2014).

Limitations of Previous Research on Racial Microaggressions

Researchers identified limitations of the study of racial microaggressions in the field of education. Several researchers found similar participation criteria when recruiting individuals for their studies (Barnes, 2011; Daniel et al., 2014; Kohli & Solórzano, 2012; Nadal et al., 2014). Higher education's interdisciplinary nature encompasses literature on diversity and equity in college, including matters pertaining to specific racial groups.

However, the body of scholarship on racial groups in higher education presents at least three interrelated limitations regarding racial theory, methodology, and multiraciality (Wann, 2012). By not explicitly acknowledging the influence of racism outside of CRT work, researchers may not effectively expose or address the roots of racial oppression in educational settings. This is particularly important for campus racial-climate research, with the goal to improve higher education contexts for learning and student outcomes (Harper, 2012).

According to Johnston (2011) quantitative research typically involves controlling for race methodologically by including racial groups, but continues to operationalize only discrete racial groups to investigate important topics, such as equity in outcomes (e.g., academic achievement, career placement, and various indicators of student development). This dichotomy may also perpetuate thinking of racial groups as being essentially, and potentially, biologically different. To be clear, examining structures of inequality across racial groups is crucial; however, researchers must be transparent about the classification of multiple-race data for such quantitative analyses (Johnston, 2011). Furthermore, Nadal (2011) stated that because much of the data were collected online, the integrity of the data are unknown because there was not supervision of the participants, and because of the lack of provisions to follow up with participants. Several researchers expressed a desire to see their studies replicated with larger populations.

Finally, a gap in the literature exists regarding the differences between how men and women perceive racial microaggressions (Holder, Jackson, & Ponterotto, 2015). Barnes (2011) posited current literature has not showed significant differences between the experiences of racial microaggressions between men and women. African American

women may not be able to determine if they are receiving different treatment because of their race, their gender, or a combination of the two (Barnes, 2011).

In a number of qualitative studies, researchers examined racial microaggressions experienced by AAs (Sue et al., 2008a; Szymanski & Lewis, 2015), Latinas/os (Moore, 2012), Asian Americans (Sue, Bucceri, Lin, Nadal, & Torino, 2010), and indigenous peoples (Hill, Kim, & Williams, 2010). The original microaggressions taxonomy presented by Sue et al. (2007) led to literature on microaggressions toward other populations, including multiracial people (Holder et al., 2015; Nadal, Sriken, Davidoff, Wong, & McLean, 2013), women (Anderson & Cermele, 2014; Nadal, 2010), LGBT people (Nadal et al., 2014; Nadal, Rivera, & Corpus, 2010), religious minorities (Dupper, Forrest-Bank, & Lowry-Carusillo, 2015), and persons with disabilities (Dávila, 2014).

This literature supported that people of color and other minority groups experience a number of microaggressions in their everyday lives, and that these microaggressions have negative effects on their mental health. Despite the positive contributions to the literature, all of these aforementioned researchers used qualitative methods, often with small sample sizes. Thus, it is imperative for researchers to produce quantitative studies that empirically support the existence of microaggressions and their influences on mental health, physical health, and other variables, such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, and performance (Nadal, 2011).

Motivation and Job Satisfaction for AA Faculty Members

To comprehend completely the organizational and managerial significance associated with developing motivated employees and job satisfaction, future researchers should examine the concept of employee motivation and job satisfaction from a historical

and contextual perspective. Many of the earliest studies germane to the topic are foundational in that they assisted the evolutionary progress of contemporary research. Of the many historical constructs related to employee motivation and job satisfaction, two of the most commonly studied include Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's (1966) hygiene theory. In accordance with the collective body of literature, educators have used both paradigms frequently. In this section of the literature review, I examine contextual and historical complexities of Maslow's approach and Herzberg's hygiene theory.

Inequity in organizational climate and culture takes on identities fueled by political values, the discourse of an organization's members, and the dominant societal culture. Collective organizational vision draws power from the narratives of the longstanding group that influences the decisions that drive the vision (Blitz & Kohl, 2012). Organizations with strong racial identity factors that are not afraid to address issues of race and privilege "demonstrate that value and appreciation for diversity as an opportunity for learning and effectiveness throughout all organizational systems" (Chrobot-Mason & Thomas, 2002, as cited in Barnes, 2011, p. 323). Organizations that are intolerant or dismissive of opportunities for learning are less likely to have practices or policies that address diversity needs or concerns. In such an organization, those who would raise concerns often receive negative feedback or silence (Barnes, 2011).

Diversity in higher education, such as technology, is a major reality in society and institutions (Smith, 2012). The study of diversity in higher education includes large and ever-expanding literature, focusing not only on how race or ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, class, and other salient factors effect faculty, staff, and students, but also

focusing on questions about institutions and their capacity to engage diversity within and without. Where a link exists between diversity and organization theory and practice, the research and theory are often located in a body of literature connected to diversity rather than to the study of higher education organizations. The next generation of research on organizational studies in higher education must bring these literatures together. Embedding diversity frameworks in the study of organizational dynamics in higher education can shed light on the field itself. Instead of being a separate domain, such frameworks can provide an opportunity for better understanding of key elements of the study of organizations related to such topics as culture, leadership, change, and governance (Smith, 2012).

Through this study, I investigated a possible relationship between perceived racial microaggressions on AA and other faculty of color in higher education. I also aimed to understand their motivation and job satisfaction, as defined by the faculty members. An expectation exists that members embrace the prevailing beliefs, views, and values of the organization to which they belong, and members shape organizational culture over time.

Maslow's Paradigm and Herzberg's Hygiene: Employee Motivation and Job Satisfaction

The management concept chosen for this study relates to the categories of employee motivation and job satisfaction. Motivational or behavioral theories include those of Maslow (1943, 1973), Leidecker and Hall (1974), Ali (2009), Sabharwal and Corley (2009), Behjati (2014), and Herzberg (1966, 1968); these theories are the basic motivational or behavioral theories in management and psychology. The researchers described either what motivates humans personally and professionally or the behaviors

that occur in nature. Thus, prior researchers have offered a better understanding of human interactions in the work setting.

Maslow (1943) presented a theory of hierarchical needs in human development whereby an individual works through physiological needs to safety issues, membership or social needs, self- and public-esteem needs, and finally, self-actualization. Maslow (1973) posited these needs relate to each other in the form of an orderly hierarchy in which one category of needs activates only after the lower level is relatively satisfied. Additionally, Behjati's (2014) concept was to link Maslow's pyramid for cardiovascular health with its effects on the "change cycle." Behjati postulated even if people know all of their cardiovascular needs, they differ in their behaviors in this regard. Each behavior is a hierarchy of activities. In each social system, ability and incents are fundamental keys in determining appropriate functioning communication. In this way, actions, interactions, and incents are tightly interrelated. By strengthening or weakening one factor, other factors will be markedly affected.

According to the motivators-hygiene hypothesis or the two-factor hypothesis by Herzberg (1968), the correct function of a system depends on two factors: hygiene factors and motivators. Hygiene factors relate to principal key features not directly involved in efficiency, but that prevent complications related to reduced functional capacity by facilitating correct functioning. According to Behjati (2014), these factors describe environmental variables. Unsatisfied hygiene factors may lead to reduced functional capacity, but by recovering suitable conditions, the production power is refreshed. Behjati stated that in the cardiovascular system, the interpretation of these factors present milieu on which cardiovascular cells embark.

Additionally, Behjati (2014) noted diseased vessels impose a significant threat on the health of the entire cardiovascular system, through creation of an unhealthy milieu, which describes the effect of “peer pressure” in cardiovascular-system health and in disease states. Motivators ensure better functioning. In this case, presence of motivators at the appropriate stage of life will guarantee the sense of having a healthy cardiovascular system. People differ in motive, the backbone of behaviors. Motives are the reason for the initiation and maintenance of behavior traits and determine the total direction of behaviors. People usually act according to their perceptions, not reality. Therefore, to monitor cardiovascular health regularly, everybody should regularly assess his or her own cardiovascular hygiene factors and motivators (Behjati, 2014).

According to Behjati (2014), there can be an expansion of Herzberg’s hypothesis to the cardiovascular universe, but ignorance of cardiovascular health by most healthy causes is uninterpretable by this theory. The difference between behaviors of healthy and diseased cases is a priority of needs, which is interpretable by Maslow’s pyramid of needs. Although Maslow (1943) referred to needs and motivations, Herzberg (1966) discussed aims and stimulators that satisfy these needs in his hygiene theory. Behjati noted some persons may decide to sacrifice one level for another level of the cardiovascular health pyramid. A sacrifice of the cardiovascular health pyramid may occur to climb the pyramid to esteem or self-actualization levels of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. People in various geographic locations differ in their belonging to levels. In developed countries, most people are at the top of the pyramid, but in underdeveloped countries, people are usually at the stage of finding a diet that is healthy for the cardiovascular system.

According to Leidecker and Hall (1974), Herzberg's dual-factor theory makes two important contributions to a manager's skill in motivating others. First, Herzberg is more explicit than Maslow is regarding the link between certain needs and job performance. This framework specifies the need that can be satisfied by high job performance. Second, the framework generates an application model, job enrichment, which helps the manager use the theory.

Two dimensions of Herzberg's dual-factor theory are the conditions surrounding, or extrinsic to, the task. These dimensions include administrative policy, cleanliness, interpersonal relations, fringe benefits, and cost-of-living pay increases. Herzberg (1968) called the conditions hygiene factors because, although they may be important prerequisites to job satisfaction, they do not themselves generate high performance. Hygiene factors operate to remove obstacles in the work environment rather than having a direct relation to motivation on the job (Herzberg, 1968). Task conditions, also called motivator factors, are either present or absent, which largely determines whether individuals are motivated toward high performance. Leidecker and Hall (1974) generalized that the needs concerning hygiene factors consist of those at the lower levels of Maslow's need hierarchy: physiological, safety, and social. The needs for motivation factors consist of those at the higher levels: esteem and self-actualization.

Ali (2009) investigated the job-satisfaction characteristics of faculty from five different races (Hispanic Caucasian or Hispanic AA; Asian or Pacific Islander; American Indian/Alaska Native; and White nonHispanic) in higher education by using secondary data from the 2004 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty. According to Ali, "job satisfaction can be defined as the positive emotional feeling resulting from attaining what

one wants or values from a job" (p. 289). By applying Herzberg's (1966) job-satisfaction theory to examine faculty job satisfaction, this two-factor theory suggested, "faculty may experience both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction at the same time" (Ali, 2009, p. 290). To conduct this study, Ali used "intrinsic job satisfaction variables (achievement, recognition, work itself, advancement, responsibility, and reward) and extrinsic job satisfaction variables (policy, work climate or condition, and benefits)" (pp. 290–291) to examine faculty job satisfaction. Findings focused primarily on undergraduate teaching rather than other scholarly pursuits indicated that faculty of different races were dissatisfied with their workload. A rank of full professor was prevalent among Caucasian faculty, whereas AA and Hispanic faculty retained the lowest percentage among rank of full professors (Ali, 2009).

Last, Herzberg (1968) contended achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, growth, and advancement tend to motivate individuals. In addition, hygiene factors can only bring an employee's job satisfaction up to neutral, and include things such as company policy, working conditions, relations with supervisors or peers, and salary. To help understand employee attitudes and motivation, Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) conducted studies to determine which factors in an employee's work environment cause satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Herzberg et al.'s (1959) studies included interviews asking employees what pleased and displeased them about their work. Factors causing job satisfaction and presumably motivation were different from those causing job dissatisfaction. The researchers developed motivation-hygiene theory to explain these results. They described satisfiers as motivators and the dissatisfiers as hygiene factors, using the term hygiene in

the sense that they are considered maintenance factors necessary to avoid dissatisfaction but by themselves do not provide satisfaction. Herzberg et al. reasoned because the factors causing satisfaction are different from those causing dissatisfaction, the two feelings are not opposites of one another. Further, Herzberg portrayed two distinct human needs instead. First, physiological needs include a person receiving fulfillment through money, for example to purchase food and shelter. Second, the psychological need to achieve and grow includes a person achieving fulfillment through activities that cause growth.

Critics of Herzberg's theory (Waltman, Bergom, Hollenshead, Miller, & August 2012) argued that the two-factor result occurred because it is natural for people to take credit for satisfaction and to blame dissatisfaction on external factors. Furthermore, job satisfaction does not necessarily imply a high level of motivation or productivity. Herzberg's (1966) theory, despite its weaknesses, has enduring value in recognizing that true motivation comes from within a person and not from the process of providing incentives or a threat of punishment to cause someone to do something. Herzberg (1968) stated incentives provide only short-term success because of the motivating factors that determine whether satisfaction or no satisfaction are intrinsic to the job itself, and do not result from carrot-and-stick incentives.

As researchers have established, faculty of color have acknowledged various challenges and obstacles related to motivation and job satisfaction in higher education. Faculty of color have not only undergone the rigors of tenure and promotion, but also have addressed racism on many different levels (Minor, 2014). The history of employee motivation is extensive and controversial. Specifically, when examining the evolution of

the concept of employee motivation, much of the available literature outlines the implications and manifestations of early studies.

Many researchers suggested a connection between historical and current employee-motivation methods. For example, Gagné et al. (2015) posited to grasp the overall significance of the aforementioned connection, an examination of employee motivation in terms of prescribed epochs is necessary. In other words, by segmenting the concept into various periods, managers gain a more salient comprehension of the many phases germane to employee motivation. Four overarching epochs are critical to the concept. The first three periods range from 1925 to 1975 and focus primarily on employee behaviors, experimental psychology, and the effects of monetary incentives, managerial assumptions, and worker needs. Motivating employees is critical to the success of all organizations that employ individuals (Gagné et al., 2015). Although, the current literature relating to employee motivation has increased, various approaches found in the data focus on behavior, fairness, incentives, and organizational structure.

Paposa and Kumar (2015) posited the four factors related to employee motivation are (a) catering to the behavioral needs of the employee; (b) developing and restructuring jobs to promote and foster motivation; (c) effectively implementing and establishing employee reward programs; and (d) treating employees in a fair, respectful, and humane manner. Many researchers have addressed these four points. For instance, Mack (2007) was the first to evaluate the perceptions and experiences related to the motivation of AA pharmacy faculty members in historically Black colleges of pharmacy. Mack stated the objective of the study was to identify the reasons the majority of AA pharmacy faculty members were employees at Florida A & M University College of Pharmacy.

Mack (2007) recruited full-time faculty members electronically to participate in the survey, regardless of race or ethnicity. The study contained six close-ended items designed to collect data regarding race, academic appointment, and previous employment in a predominantly Caucasian institution, previous application to a predominantly Caucasian institution, and previous attendance at historically Black colleges of pharmacy. Because AAs were the focus of the study, Mack analyzed the data using descriptive statistics.

Mack (2007) found in predominantly Caucasian colleges of pharmacy, AAs continue to fall behind in recruitment and retention of underrepresented minority faculty. The majority of survey respondents chose to teach at an historically Black college of pharmacy because of a desire to give back to their community and alma mater. According to Mack, the fact that only 20% of AA faculty apply for positions at predominantly Caucasian institutions reaffirms the need for stronger active recruitment efforts to recruit underrepresented minority faculty members. Mack concluded the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy acknowledged its commitment to diversity in pharmacy education. The American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy (Ives & Force, 2014) also affirmed the need to increase representation of certain minority faculty groups. The quality of health care in the United States may depend largely on the ability to train a diverse and culturally competent force of health care professionals. Mack thought pharmacy had the opportunity to lead the way by asking the necessary questions and having the willingness to make changes.

Maslow's (1943) needs model is pervasive in current research. The model suggests that to meet various needs employees require motivation. Needs begin at the

primitive level and graduate to higher levels. In reviewing the current uses and implementations of this approach, Benson and Dundis (2003) found that Maslow's model is an effective motivation tool for use more often in human-service organizations. In addition, the key to the model is to respect the challenges in motivating employees. When employees feel motivated, they can meet prescribed objectives with fewer resources (Benson & Dundis, 2003). Babić, Kordić, and Babić (2014) added meeting the needs of workers is particularly beneficial for human-service companies. According to a study set in a San Diego hospice agency, researchers used Maslow's model to increase the motivation levels of more than 600 employees. The key focus was on recognizing and catering to employee needs.

Festekjian, Tram, Murray, Sy, and Huynh (2014) postulated that, despite the workplace becoming more diverse, supervisors still hold disparaging views of minority supervisors. When AAs ascend to higher levels of organizational leadership, despite having credentials, they are more likely to receive lower performance evaluations than their Caucasian counterparts are. African Americans in leadership positions often endure stereotypes and subtle forms of bigotry on a daily basis. These preconceived attitudes influence the decisions supervisors make. The inequities noted in their evaluations may be consciously or unconsciously (Festekjian et al., 2014).

Hofhuis, van der Zee, and Otten (2015) stated that although most Americans have embraced diversity and a need for change, resistors to diversity still create difficulty in organizations, despite changing demographics nationally. In addition, conservatives welcome integration and diversity, but believe the achievement of diversity should be on a competitive basis rather than through a critical examination or an in-depth analysis.

This analysis explains why certain underrepresented groups are not in the hiring pool or why hiring protocols do not favor minorities. Pager and Western (2012) found racial bias in how Caucasian employees perceive the quality of Caucasian versus AA employment candidates, despite similar outcomes on performance measures. African American applicants received lower assessment summaries during the hiring process than Caucasians, and the perception did not always change after an AA was hired. Pager and Western stated it is difficult for AAs to overcome the type of negative racial stereotypes mentioned in their results.

Having different experiences with racism and prejudice means individuals can interpret encounters in the workplace differently (Murphy, Richeson, Shelton, Rheinschmidt, & Bergsieker, 2012). Previous prejudicial experiences influence an individual's mindset and coping skills. As a result, the individual reacts negatively when encountering incidents of blatant prejudice. African Americans' exposure to cues regarding racial prejudice may impair performance and affect ambiguous-prejudice conditions that are more difficult to detect or classify. The uncertainty of the act can pose a challenge for the individual because he or she must decide how to address or react to the situation, whereas other blatant acts of prejudice are easier to identify (Murphy et al., 2012).

Caucasians reacted more to blatant-prejudice conditions in the study because Caucasians were unaccustomed to encountering prejudice in a professional environment and lacked strategies to cope with ambiguous-prejudice conditions (Murphy et al., 2012). Prejudice in the workplace, blatant or subtle, leads to suboptimal performance and has implications for work productivity. Further, the realities of racism and discrimination,

and the ways they manifest, present insurmountable obstacles in the workplace. However, without an analytical lens to view and deconstruct the policies and practices that perpetuate privilege and entitlement, organizations will not change; instead an organization, no matter how well intentioned, can only create patterns that reinforce the same problems that the policy change or action plan was attempting to right (Murphy et al., 2012). An organization prepared for the changes a diverse community can bring will move from the old paradigm to a new model for doing business (Sheppard, Sarros, & Santora, 2013). The new model will require a shift in the organizational culture, norms, and values, and create a shared sense of purpose. A healthy organization allows for honest discourse among employees of color regarding the importance, nature, and consequences of racial microaggressions (Sue et al., 2008a). This discussion should be presented in the organization alongside a discussion regarding how management should institute policies that will address the problem (Bond & Haynes, 2014).

Increased interest ensued in the implications of inspiring, compelling, and motivating people at work. Motivated employees make motivated organizations. Thus, for an organization to be effective, it must tackle the motivational challenges of increasing workers' desires to be productive members of the organization (Paposa & Kumar, 2015). Reviewing the various paradigms and theories associated with employee motivation, two constructs are pervasive in current literature: Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's (1966) hygiene theory. These two theories are critical to the concept of employee motivation.

Historical Perspective on Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction studies pertain to many perspectives; much of the recent data published on the topic focused primarily on the relationship between job satisfaction and performance (Imran, Arif, Cheema, & Azeem, 2014). Many researchers suggested satisfied employees are more productive than are dissatisfied employees. This supposition has been debated in the literature since the early 1900s (Golman & Loewenstein, 2014), with more than 4,000 extant articles written on job satisfaction between 1930 and 1960.

Many early studies, in contrast to the studies previously mentioned, suggested job satisfaction is overtly germane to turnover and productivity. Rather than examining job satisfaction from a simplistic standpoint, researchers supported the concept that the best method to study job satisfaction is to separate it into specific levels (Imran et al., 2014). A foundational report by Harpaz (1977) stated the three levels of job satisfaction consist of (a) the individual level, (b) the organizational level, and (c) the societal level. Each level carries a different set of circumstances. The implications of low satisfaction at the individual level may cause workers to experience high levels of frustration, anxiety, and anger. In contrast, organizational dissatisfaction is analogous to low productivity, whereas societal dissatisfaction tends to manifest in the form of misused workers (Harpaz, 1977).

Naumann (1992) presented a conceptual model of expatriate turnover that identified key contributing factors and intermediate linkages and relationships in U.S. multinational corporations. The researcher built the turnover model in reaction to Mowday and Steers's (1981, as cited in Naumann, 1992) model, and both researchers

expanded the work of Griffeth, Hand, Meglino, and Mobley (1979, as cited in Naumann, 1992) on turnover. Taken together, these researchers suggested the characteristics of an organization, of individuals, and of environments shape a person's perceptions and satisfaction that result in intentions to stay or leave an institution. Mowday and Steers (1981, as cited in Naumann, 1992) expanded the construct of job to include satisfaction, organizational commitment, and involvement. Hence, Naumann applied these most recent models to international business organizations with the intention of providing a more comprehensive theoretical approach and recognizing complex interactive and longitudinal effects.

Tinto's (1975, as cited in Watson, 2004) longitudinal model of institutional departure primarily addressed activities in institutions. Tinto used Spady's (1970, as cited in Watson, 2004) model based on Durkheim's (1951, as cited in Watson, 2004) theorization that suicide is related to an individual's integration into society. This model lends itself to the appropriateness of AA faculty integration into higher education institutions. Tinto's model exhibits how interactions among different individuals in academic social systems of the institution lead individuals of different characteristics to withdraw from that institution before achieving their goals. For AA faculty, a goal might be tenure, promotion, or retirement. African American faculty are individuals with particular background characteristics who interact with the institution's academic and social domains that, in turn, have a marked effect on their goals (Watson, 2004).

The concept of integration is the congruence between organizational norms and the value of persons; researchers have widely applied integration in organizational settings. A good fit or match with the institution appears to be useful for various groups,

such as women and minorities whose professional values (Patitu & Tack, 1991) vary from those of traditional Caucasian male interests, satisfactions, and relative expenditure of time on work-related activities. A poor fit between a person and the work environment has consistently been associated with lower job satisfaction and commitment. Further, Patitu and Tack (1991) stated the portion of support, understanding, and recognition an institution provides is an indicator of fit. Hence, organizations should reward and support interests and activities that are consistent with their own values and goals.

In a study by Olsen, Maple, and Stage (1995) on the effects of professional role interests, satisfaction, and institutional fit for 146 women and minority faculty in three colleges and one research university, the researchers found no evidence of bias toward service activities, nor of less personal commitment to research by gender or race. Second, minority faculty were more likely to demonstrate higher identification with, and derive satisfaction from, teaching than other groups of faculties. Minority faculty perceived a service load that was burdensome compared with that of both male and female Caucasian faculty. Satisfaction from teaching and research proved most predictive of good institutional fit. The study revealed perceived control of an individual's career and personal satisfaction in academic work directly influenced job satisfaction, whereas race and gender affected the amount of faculty support received (Olsen et al., 1995).

Patitu and Tack (1991) reported the main reason for AA faculty decline is their dissatisfaction with salaries, promotion, and tenure processes, and with the racial climate at many predominantly Caucasian institutions. Wilson (1995, as cited in Olsen et al., 1995) documented living in an area with few AAs and with little appreciation for diversity exposed family members to daily harassment. In addition, families of AA

faculty were not included in community activities, whether internal or external to the institution. The following portion of this review includes an examination of the importance of motivation and job satisfaction in current literature.

Current Perspectives on Motivation and Job Satisfaction

In a recent qualitative study, Patitu, Young-Hawkins, Larke, Webb-Johnson, and Sterling (2000) interviewed AA faculty at research institutions and found racism and working with other AA faculty were important influences on interviewees' satisfaction with their work lives. Learning to balance teaching, research, and services also challenged AA faculty. In addition to personal institutional issues of race, AA faculty found themselves advising and mentoring minority students and organizations formally and informally (Felder, Stevenson, & Gasman, 2014).

According to Watson (2004), although role interests and satisfaction may be important determinants of institutional fit and job satisfaction, the literature suggests two other dimensions as important predictors of job satisfaction experienced by minority faculty: given higher rates of turnover, and lower levels of job satisfaction among minorities. Both of the aforementioned predictors relate to a sense of personal control of one's career. Furthermore, Watson stated minority groups have a higher need for recognition and support, and inversely, have a lower sense of self-efficacy or personal control of their career.

Niemann and Dovidio (2005) examined the relationship between satisfaction of racial and ethnic minority members and their perceptions of affirmative action. In assessing an earlier study by D'Souza (1991) on whether affirmative action is effective or ineffective, Niemann and Dovidio attempted to understand when it works and when it

does not. The focus of their study was on the satisfaction and retention of faculty of color in higher education. The researchers offered a theoretical, qualitative, and quantitative analysis to address this issue. The researchers gleaned four main themes from the responses to in-depth interviews with faculty from a separate study (Niemann & Dovidio, 2003) that paralleled the research reported. Faculty of color perceptions of affirmative action and how the community embraced them was a critical factor in their satisfaction with, and ultimately commitment to, the university. Affirmative action seen as willingly pursued by the department positively related to job satisfaction, whereas perceptions that it was imposed tended to be negatively related to job satisfaction.

Second, mediation by the perceived racial and ethnic climate and by self-doubt occurred between these perceptions of affirmative action and job satisfaction. In contrast to the degree to which affirmative action was viewed as imposed, faculty of color perceived a less positive department and tended to experience more self-doubt. The perception that affirmative action was an imposed element undermined the commitment and satisfaction of faculty of color. These elements and relationships were also evident in comments offered by faculty of color from Niemann and Dovidio's (2003) qualitative research.

Third, the researchers reported the important roles individuals can play as mentors in promoting the retention and satisfaction of faculty of color (Niemann & Dovidio, 2003). Being a mentor involves more than being a respectful colleague. Mentoring is a structured relationship that provides guidance, sponsorship, advice, friendship, and advocacy (Turner & Myers, 2000). According to Nora (2000), "a true mentoring experience is one when the student truly learns from the master" (p. 63). For example,

mentors can educate other faculty about the unwritten norms and expectations of the department and institution, facilitate networking inside and outside the university, nominate mentees for research awards, include them as coprincipal investigators on grants, involve them in prestigious national organizations, and publicly praise their work. Because of AA faculty concerns about confirming cultural stereotypes, faculty of color may have a difficult time asking for assistance (Niemann & Dovidio, 2005). Mentors of minority faculty must therefore be particularly proactive. At the same time, to be a good mentee is to follow advice, ask questions, and seek help and communication (Niemann & Dovidio, 2005).

The fourth general finding was that members of different racial and ethnic groups have different values and preferences that may lead to diverse reactions to different types of action and attempts at assistance (Niemann & Dovidio, 1998). For instance, in Niemann and Dovidio's (1998) study, Latina/o and AA faculty appeared more responsive to color-conscious mentoring relative to general mentoring than did Asian faculty. Asian faculty tended to be more satisfied with their jobs and feel less stress on the job associated with their race than AA and Latina/o faculty (Niemann & Dovidio, 1998). Nevertheless, basic commonalities existed across all groups: stronger perceptions of support from an individual's department and lower levels of self-doubt predicted job satisfaction equivalently across these groups. Multiple causal paths, including some that are bidirectional, are possible (Niemann & Dovidio, 1998).

In conclusion, Niemann and Dovidio (2005) suggested that support for the success of faculty of color benefits Caucasians as well as people of color and needs to extend beyond affirmative action in hiring to involve fundamental actions and

orientations by institutions, departments, and individual colleagues. Further, the focus of these actions should pertain to establishing a healthy environment for faculty of color. A healthy environment includes positive administrative leadership. It should also include institutional recognition of the unique challenges and contributions of faculty of color in reward systems and in personnel decisions. In addition, the researchers argued for a positive climate for teaching and intellectual diversity. Active mentors and colleagues who recognize issues of diversity understand the way the university operates, and offer encouragement to faculty to pursue professionally appropriate and personally rewarding interests (Niemann & Dovidio, 2005).

Taken together, the analysis, findings, and conclusions converging with those of other researchers and educators show that efforts to achieve truly diverse and inclusive institutions of higher education need to extend beyond affirmative action. Although numerical goals are valuable for gauging progress, numbers alone are insufficient. As one AA female faculty member in Niemann and Dovidio's (2003) interview study commented, to reflect experiences of loneliness, numbers cannot show the true picture. Thus, for diversity to benefit institutions of higher learning that educate the citizens and leaders of the future, it is crucial for universities to develop institutional cultures that are not only color conscious in procedures, but also truly integrate diversity into their most fundamental values (Niemann & Dovidio, 2005).

Ponjuan (2006) compared the job satisfaction of AA and Latina/o faculty at higher education institutions to that of their Caucasian counterparts. The researcher's national study of job satisfaction in doctoral institutions involved use of the 1999 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty Survey, the 1999 National Study of

Postsecondary Institutional Survey, and the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System. Ponjuan's analysis employed hierarchical linear-modeling multilevel statistics. In contrast to the findings of Allen et al. (2002), Ponjuan reported Latina/o faculty members had significantly lower levels of job satisfaction than Caucasian faculty, whereas AAs had comparable levels of satisfaction to Caucasians. Allen et al. and Ponjuan highlighted the importance of disaggregating racial groups when examining the experiences of faculty of color.

Researchers indicated faculty of color experience more hostile work environments, less support for their teaching and research, and increased feelings of isolation (Jayakumar, Howard, Allen, & Han, 2009). Furthermore, the path to successful promotion and tenure is more challenging for faculty of color (Wolfe & Dilworth, 2015). Allen et al. (2002) explained that in light of varying experiences, their study employed a conceptual lens that recognized the role of race and racism in the United States, and offered a comprehensive exploration of factors associated with retention and satisfaction of faculty of color who remain in the academy.

Jayakumar et al. (2009) posited researchers often discuss disadvantages and underrepresentation without mentioning their corollaries: privilege and overrepresentation. Mocking this normative social failure to acknowledge systematic advantages afforded to the dominant racial group, Rogers-Ard et al. (2012) pointed out there cannot be an up without a down. Several researchers explored the challenges and barriers facing faculty of color in the academy, similar to my study, although hardly acknowledging the privileges afforded to Caucasian faculty in the process. The discussion must be expanded to include and place increased emphasis on how Caucasian

faculty members benefit from institutional racism irrespective of whether they are consciously aware of or actively support racist attitudes, practices, and policies (Levin et al., 2013; Rogers-Ard et al., 2012).

Jayakumar et al. (2009) noted, in their qualitative study, that privilege is in the relationship between racial climate and retention and satisfaction across different groups. The researchers discussed their use of CRT to examine racism in education. Jayakumar et al. presented results from this national study of full-time faculty, indicating that not only does a negative racial climate impede job satisfaction for faculty of color, but also, conversely, a negative racial climate is associated with increased retention for Caucasian faculty. Together, these findings demonstrate the perpetuation of racial hierarchy and advantage is possible without malicious intent.

In conclusion, Jayakumar et al. (2009) stated findings revealed how faculty of color may overcome a negative racial climate. Further, the researchers suggested tangible steps be taken by institutional leaders concerned with improving the retention of faculty of color. For instance, the negative effect of the promotion and tenure process on retention and job satisfaction for faculty of color and Caucasian faculty speaks to the need to reform the traditional reward structure of the academy.

Jayakumar et al. (2009) suggested reexamining the value placed on mainstream journals and traditional forms of research in the promotion process. Autonomy and feeling that an individual's research is valued are key factors to retaining faculty; thus, a new look at what constitutes valuable research is needed. Further, the involvement of faculty of color in evaluating such research and rethinking the promotion and tenure process are essential if efforts to recruit, retain, and support faulty of color are able to

lead to substantive change. Although institutional transformation is a slow and difficult process, the alternative of preserving a hostile racial climate and failing to retain faculty of color are far more detrimental. Understanding the factors involved in broaching such change is the first step in the process of achieving increased equity in society (Jayakumar et al., 2009).

In reviewing the evolution of researchers' understanding of employee motivation with regard to job satisfaction, a 21st-century perspective is much different from the past. As reported more than 3 decades ago, an employee does not have to be satisfied to be productive at work (Strauss & Sayles, 1972). A small contingent of recent perspectives agrees with this assessment (Oprescu & Militaru, 2012). Strauss and Sayles (1972) suggested thinking of job satisfaction in terms of common sense does not fully explain the complexities associated with the concept.

Paposa and Kumar (2015) suggested the reason one cannot assume that productivity and satisfaction are always connected is that people experience job satisfaction for a plethora of emotional and behavioral reasons. Satisfaction is a highly complex reaction, making it difficult to determine why satisfaction exists for some and not for others (Paposa & Kumar, 2015). Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, and Ferris (2012) noted the question is not work expectations, but how important the concept of job satisfaction is. Many social scientists believe researchers over-study the subject of satisfaction to the point of confusion and unneeded redundancy (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Similar to many other constructs of business and management, the complexities associated with satisfying employees are not limited to the United States. In the age of globalization, multinational corporations, expansion, and job satisfaction are national and

international issues; present-day organizations abroad are struggling with this issue. For example, “surveys show that workers around the globe are experiencing unprecedented levels of anxiety in the workplace” (Bruce, 2003, p. 133). European, Asian, and Indian corporations are working to increase worker satisfaction. Nations are reprioritizing the importance of motivating staff. Effective human capital is a mainstay, regardless of where the company operates. Oprescu and Militaru (2012) noted a particular job-satisfaction study performed in Australia, Thailand, Singapore, and China. The study results showed 50% of those surveyed admitted to being dissatisfied and unmotivated by their jobs.

Although job satisfaction focuses on how much individuals enjoy their jobs, employee motivation focuses on workers’ desire or inspiration to work toward a given objective. Recent researchers posited employee motivation is a complex subject because it focuses on workers’ cognitive, emotional, and behavioral natures. Motivation and employee motivation are not the same (Petri & Govern, 2004): motivation is the concept one uses to describe the forces acting on or in an organism to initiate and direct behavior (p. 16). Employee motivation, in contrast, aligns closely with the needs and desires of employees in meeting goals and objectives. Many theoretical frameworks and structured applications enhance employee motivation. These applications focus on retention, morale, and organizational commitment. However, of the many, Maslow’s (1943) hierarchy of needs and Herzberg’s (1966) hygiene theory permeate the recent literature. The following section includes an examination of the literature regarding the relationship between employee motivation and job satisfaction.

Relationship Between Employee Motivation and Job Satisfaction

People often misconstrue the relationship between employee motivation and job satisfaction. As frequently stated in the historical and current literature, employee motivation and job satisfaction are not the same. However, the two are related and somewhat dependent on one another. Early researchers examined the complex nature of satisfaction and motivation, and provided insight into many systemic dilemmas (Oprescu & Militaru, 2012). Employees, managers, and organizations struggle with satisfaction and motivation; "many Americans feel unimportant and useless—uncommitted and without a sense of purpose—doing work, if they can find any, that is monotonous and meaningless for them" (Eriksen, 1977, p. 5). Job satisfaction can be defined as how people feel about doing work that is either meaningless or enjoyable. Unlike employee motivation, job satisfaction focuses primarily on how much an employee likes or dislikes his or her job (Herzberg, 1966).

Satisfaction is the amount of enjoyment and contentment one experiences while working. Understanding job satisfaction includes recognizing the effect job satisfaction has on individuals and organizations (Strauss & Sayles, 1972). The intersection of satisfaction and work is complex: "The question of what role work plays in human life is a concern not only of management. It is a psychological, philosophical, moral, and even theological question that scholars have debated endlessly" (Strauss & Sayles, 1972, p. 20).

Although job satisfaction is analogous to the amount of enjoyment an employee derives while working, employee motivation focuses on a different set of factors: behaviors, goals, and feedback (Steers & Porter, 1979). Each factor serves as a

springboard for other, larger components of motivation. Steers and Porter (1979) explain, "We are primarily concerned with: (a) what energizes human behavior; (b) what directs or channels such behavior; (c) and how this behavior is maintained or sustained" (p. 6).

Job satisfaction is more centralized as it addresses the job and the employee. Motivation is broader, addressing the complex nature of the human being. Maslow (1943) postulated that to comprehend motivation, further study on job satisfaction in relation to the whole and complete human being is necessary. Scrutinizing people with a holistic perspective increases the ability to recognize the many levels of motivation human beings experience on a physical and cognitive level. Petri and Govern (2004) explained, "We cannot hope to understand the complexities of the human condition by reducing behavior to specific responses in specific situations" (p. 348). Previous researchers have measured motivation and satisfaction in the same group because of the belief that both concepts foster improved performance, an idea debated in the literature (Oprescu & Militaru, 2012).

Sustainability: Triple Bottom Line

Companies and corporations use a variety of measures to determine their success. At the forefront of these measures are their financial returns, or how much profit the entity makes. However, in recent years, businesses striving to be environmental stewards are using other measures to calculate their success. The theory of the triple bottom line is that a business should act as a steward of the environment, of society, and of the economy. The terms corporate social responsibility (CSR) and the triple bottom line are interchangeable. Some researchers take the position that corporate responsibility subverts the role of government and harms the foundations of a free society. For decades, some

businesses still clearly opposed CSR, as espoused by Friedman (1970). The following literature reviewed answers questions about management best practices for implementing positive social consciousness in organizational settings.

According to Matten and Moon (2004, as cited in Freeman & Hasnaoui, 2011), one major criticism of business-school education is the socially irresponsible and ethically dubious assumptions of certain core doctrines, theories, and concepts that dominate the curriculum and discourage awareness of CSR and ethical behavior among managers and corporations. Freeman and Hasnaoui (2011) postulated the definition of CSR is inconsistent across national boundaries, and definitions are even inconsistent within countries. The variation of cultural aspects identified by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005, as cited in Freeman & Hasnaoui, 2011) indicated culture may play a pivotal role in the variation, but is insufficient to explain the differences. Recognizing the variation in definition and practice will make it possible to find a solution in the positive correlation between CSR education and the implementation of CSR in the community, calling for inclusion of CSR in educational programs (Matten & Moon, 2004, as cited in Freeman & Hasnaoui, 2011). The practice of CSR in the world of the practitioner is dependent on how people understand the term. These understandings include the triple bottom line, volunteer work, providing assistance to in-need individuals, promoting HIV/AIDS and environmental awareness, supporting the local community and causes, and contributing monetarily and in-kind to the community in a way that is complementary to the organizations (Jacques, 2010, as cited in Freeman & Hasnaoui, 2011).

Savitz and Weber (2012) explained the centerpiece of the triple bottom line is the concept of sustainability. The term sustainability grew from awareness in the 1980s that

nations had to find ways to develop their economies without destroying the environment or sacrificing the well-being of future generations. Sustainability has since become a popular word for an array of social and environmental causes. In the business world, the triple bottom line denotes a powerful and defining idea: a sustainable corporation is one that creates profit for its shareholders while protecting the environment and improving the lives of those with whom it interacts. It operates so its business interests and the interests of the environment and society intersect (Savitz & Weber, 2012).

Savitz and Weber (2012) stated that a sustainable business may be more successful in the future than it is today, using rich descriptive language to describe this perspective. The researchers are established experts on triple-bottom-line theory. According to the researchers, the only way to succeed in today's interdependent world is to embrace sustainability (Savitz & Weber, 2012). Doing so requires companies to identify a wide range of stakeholders to whom they remain accountable, develop open relationships with them, and find ways to work with them for mutual benefit. This method of operating will create more profit for the company and more social, economic, and environmental prosperity for society (Savitz & Weber, 2012).

Daza and Rhee (2013) reviewed *Ecojustice Education (EJE): Toward Diverse, Democratic, and Sustainable Communities* and postulated that this is the first book to connect social justice and ecological and environmental justice. In addition, this was the first researcher to discuss theories of difference and ecology in an accessible way and to effectively connect classroom, community, and research practices. Ecojustice education (EJE) explicitly shows, through a "cultural ecological analysis" (p. 9), how hierarchical relationships of difference emerge and persist and how educators' practice is already

informed by mainstream “anthropocentric” (p. 74) ideologies of “progress” (pp. 72, 217–219) and “domination” (p. 63). Ecojustice education is a resource for helping educators acquire critical theoretical frameworks to analyze the discourses, assumptions, and practices that drive social and ecological injustice. Through “pedagogy of responsibility” (Daza & Rhee, 2013, p. 18), this text also provides concrete examples of sustainable and ethical ways of responding to social and ecological justice.

According to Daza and Rhee (2013), EJE treatment of racial microaggressions is correct; using the technique of vignette, the researchers revealed the insidiousness of microaggressions when Jeff carries out a classic example of a microaggression, while co-teaching about microaggressions with his AA colleague Robert. The heart of EJE is showing how such injustice hurts the people and the environment, and they are hoping for healing. However, one does not learn in the vignette what happens after Robert “finally had to leave the room” (Daza & Rhee, 2013, p. 193). How does Jeff feel about the microaggression and respond to it? How does Robert feel? What conversation do they have after this incident? Are both Jeff and Robert hurt in different ways? How do they repair their relationship and continue as colleagues? Microaggressions are neither isolated nor minor incidents. Diversity among EJE scholars is important, especially when scholarship in education often seems owned or enclosed, as EJE explains (Daza & Rhee, 2013).

Deutsch and Coleman (2012) explained, as editors of *Psychological Components of Sustainable Peace*, that they were concerned with what psychological theory and research can contribute to the promotion of a harmonious, sustainable peace. The researchers postulated their belief that promoting the ideas and actions that lead to a

sustainable, harmonious peace can not only contribute to the prevention of war, but will also lead to more positive, constructive relations among people and nations, as well as a more sustainable planet. Further, Deutsch and Coleman defined the global community as multicultural, multinational, and multiethnic, affected systemically by world events and forces including technology and media, environmental conditions and changes, militarism and war, economic upheaval and inequality, disease pandemics, sexism, racism, and social injustices.

According to the Global Agenda Outlook (Elliott, 2013), the mistrust of governments and institutions is growing as 21st-century economic and political systems struggle to come to terms with the complexities and interdependencies of the 21st century. Businesses may wish to revisit the core values of business, politics, and society. Leadership and decision makers would benefit from a reassessment of values (Elliott, 2013, p. 21). Elliott (2013) highlighted compelling existing claims and discussions from the perspective of some of the world's foremost thought leaders, and complemented these insights with a wealth of quantitative data from surveys conducted across a global network of experts. Elliott postulated how one connects business to the common good has come into sharp focus since 2008. In the West, levels of inequality increased in the period after World War II, and some leaders found this almost incomprehensible. Elliott stated,

> While free and open markets have demonstrated themselves as being a great source of prosperity, happiness, and the realization of human potential, there is a real problem in the extent that inequalities are perpetuated generation to generation. Policy choices that we have made have allowed this to happen. (p. 21)

Elliott (2013) remained optimistic because even though leadership has been lacking in the past few years, some of the value-based choices leaders have made have attacked salient global health issues. For example, leaders can legitimately say citizens can look forward to the end of HIV/AIDS and mother-to-child transmission of HIV/AIDS. Leaders have reduced death by malaria to an extraordinary extent. In conclusion, Elliott stated leaders could make more of the same values-based choices. These choices will require determination, uncommon bedfellows, and money: "So let's put our shoulder to the wheel on issues, whether that is sanitation, water, or maternal mortality, while at the same time thinking about what comes next" (Elliott, 2013, p. 21).

Yuen Ying (2013) posited leaders used to think they knew what was good and bad; however, leaders no longer share that common understanding. Citizens have lost common trust in institutions, a challenge shared by China and the United States. Yuen Ying suggested leaders challenge themselves and their existing institutions; leaders need the will and wisdom to break with old ways of operating. Leaders should return to basic tenets of being kind, being grateful, and caring for the weak. "These are basic values that we learn in kindergarten, but somehow these values have been lost because of greed and the drive for excellence. We need a willingness of leaders and business leaders to recognize those values once again" (Yuen Ying, 2013, p. 22).

Wallis (2013) stated during a discussion on values that a functioning global governance system would not be possible as long as a global moral underpinning is lacking. Wallis added,

> New institutions need to be aligned with a reinvigorated set of values that are inclusive of all stakeholders, including those with little voice. Values that hold the

> common good as a critical metric should be aimed for, along with decision-making based on how future generations will be impacted. An example is moving from resource exploitation to resource stewardship as a guiding principle for all consumers, not just companies. (p. 23)

According to Wallis, regulation and incentives are necessary but insufficient to provide a healthy, functioning, and market-based society. The researcher stated, "Values need to be more than theoretical, values are only valuable if they drive behavior. Therefore, values need to embedded. Role models are needed and leadership is critical to demonstrating values and ethical action" (Wallis, 2013, p. 23).

Summary

The literature review included four sections: (a) the perspective of racial microaggressions, (b) perspectives of AA faculty, (c) Maslow's hierarchy and Herzberg's hygiene theory as they relate to employee satisfaction and motivation, and (d) sustainability (the triple bottom line). This summary concludes the chapter. Racial microaggressions appear to permeate the everyday lives of AA faculty. Recent literature suggests a continuation of stereotypes, prejudice, and harassment experienced by college and university AA faculty. However, rather than assessing the root causes of antisocial behavior, the research is largely descriptive. Few researchers have explicitly examined faculty beliefs concerning racism. Studying the patterns of racial microaggressions for AA and other faculty of color provided useful insight. Furthermore, my study helped expose gaps in opportunity that lead directly to gaps in motivation and job satisfaction for AA faculty and other faculty of color.

Without an explicit focus on the motivation and job satisfaction of AA and other faculty of color, faculty may not develop coping strategies that adequately increase motivation and job satisfaction. This study was aimed to address the complexities and interconnections of race, identity, and racial microaggressions, and of institutional climate. Understanding the dynamics of these domains can serve to inform practice by leaders in educational institutions.

Therefore, this study adds further understanding to the way these domains affect the perceptions of AA and other faculty of color. Few researchers considered the sense of membership of college and university AA faculty, or the similarities or differences among groups with a particular focus on racial and ethnic differences. Pérez Huber and Solórzano (2015a) stated few psychological studies examined racial microaggressions, deeming them less harmful than other forms of racism. This omission in itself is a form of racial microaggression. The researchers suggested the ability of people of color to face this reality in everyday life is itself a form of resiliency that needs further exploration.

A new set of challenges to corporations' survival exists in the dynamic, complex, increasingly socially aware, and technologically advanced environment of the 21st century. Researchers offered recommendations to control organizations by subjecting them to democratic constraints, thereby protecting citizens from corporations' dangerous tendencies. Researchers offered recommendations to improve the regulatory system, strengthen political democracy, create a robust public sphere, and challenge international neoliberalism. If organizational leaders plan to survive in this new environment, leaders must consider how to conduct business by balancing profits with CSR and social justice.

Social justice requires corporations to operate as global entities with goals that contribute to enhancing the sustainability of the global marketplace. It is difficult to imagine they can achieve this new success with a singular focus on profits. Stumpf, president of Wells Fargo, in an interview with CEO Visconti of Diversity (2011), stated the primary reason one rises in the morning and goes to work is not to make money. The primary reason is to serve customers. The result is the corporation makes money (Visconti, 2011).

This study contributes to the body of knowledge needed to address this phenomenon by providing insight into the patterns of racial microaggressions for college and university faculty. In addition, the study exposed gaps in opportunity that lead directly to gaps in motivation and job satisfaction for AA and other faculty of color. I used a quantitative methodology with a correlational design to investigate the relationship between racial microaggression and the motivation and job satisfaction of AA and other faculty of color, as described in Chapter 3. In Chapter 4, I discuss the results of the study, and in Chapter 5, I interpret the findings and present conclusions.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the relationship between perceived racial microaggressions and job motivation and satisfaction for AA faculty and other faculty of color in southeastern colleges and universities. I sought to evaluate differences in the relationship between perceived racial microaggressions toward AA faculty and other faculty of color and their motivation and job satisfaction in southeastern colleges, as measured by the REMS and JDS scales and subscales. The goal for this study was to inform scholars and practitioners of the current state of faculty of color in academe and to explain faculty interactions, complexities, and contradictions related to racial microaggressions to transform conditions and afford opportunities to increase motivation, satisfaction, retention, and productivity of faculty.

In this chapter, I provide a description of the research method and design along with the procedures used to conduct the study. The setting for this study was southeastern colleges and universities in the United States. Since the introduction of the concept of racial microaggressions, no researcher has addressed racial microaggressions in southeastern colleges and universities, and particularly AAs' perceptions related to motivation and job satisfaction. Although higher education communities acknowledge racial microaggressions, it is unknown how microaggressions may impede the progress of potential and current AA faculty and other faculty of color. The unified theory of CRT guided this quantitative study. Chapter 3 includes an explanation of the procedures and a description of how I conducted data analysis based on the methodology used for this study.

Research Design and Rationale

This study was a quantitative, nonexperimental, correlational design. Faculty members who self-identified as AAs or persons of color at southeastern colleges and universities were eligible to participate. According to the American Psychological Association (2014), quantitative study provides numerical representation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomenon studied, followed by the application of various descriptive and inferential statistical methods. The researcher can then generalize or make claims about the population based on the results of the sample. Quantitative design is an effective method to obtain data to answer research questions.

Quantitative research is generally either experimental or nonexperimental in design. In an experimental study, the researcher tries to show a cause-and-effect relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable by manipulating the independent variable and measuring the effect on the dependent variable (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). For example, a researcher may administer a test to adults, raise the room temperature, and then administer a similar test to determine if room temperature (the predictor variable) has an effect on test scores (the outcome variable).

In this study, the outcome variables of faculty's motivation and job satisfaction were unmanipulable. Consequently, a nonexperimental design was necessary. Because so many variables are unmanipulable in the field of education management, nonexperimental research is a common strategy (Johnson, 2001). In correlational studies, the researcher investigates the relationship between independent variables and dependent variables without manipulating the independent variables (Johnson, 2001; Johnson & Christensen, 2004). The purpose of this study was to investigate a possible relationship

between racial microaggressions (the predictor variable) of AA and other faculty of color and their motivation and job satisfaction (outcome variable). A correlational design fit this purpose.

In a correlational study, the researcher makes comparisons between data representing a number of observations of the independent variable and data representing the related observations of the dependent variable (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Similar to the previous example, the researcher could administer the survey on several different days, measuring the room temperature and collecting the test scores on each day. The measured temperatures could compare to the respective mean test scores. If the scores vary as the temperature varies, a correlation exists between the scores and the temperatures. Because this study was nonexperimental (the temperature was not controlled by the researcher), it is more difficult to draw a conclusion about causality (e.g., the change in temperature caused the change in survey scores; Johnson, 2001).

A number of qualitative researchers have examined racial microaggressions experienced by AAs (Nadal et al., 2014; Szymanski & Lewis, 2015), Latinas/os (Moore, 2012), Asian Americans (Sue et al., 2010), and indigenous peoples (Hill et al., 2010). The original microaggressions taxonomy presented by Sue et al. (2007) led to literature on microaggressions toward multiracial people (Holder et al., 2015; Nadal et al., 2013), women (Anderson & Cermele, 2014; Nadal, 2010), LGBT people (Nadal, 2011; Nadal et al., 2014; Nadal, Rivera, et al., 2010), religious minorities (Nadal, Issa, Griffin, Hamit, & Lyons, 2010), and persons with disabilities (Dávila, 2014). This literature supported the fact or supposition that people of color and other minority groups experience a number of

microaggressions in their everyday lives, and that these microaggressions have negative effects on their mental health.

Despite positive contributions to the literature, all of the aforementioned studies used qualitative methods, often with small sample sizes. Researchers must produce quantitative studies to aid in understanding the challenges of microaggressions and their influence on mental health, physical health, and other variables, such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, and performance. Further, the specific problem of knowledge regarding how microaggressions may affect AA faculty and other faculty of color, as measured by their perceptions while working at colleges and universities. According to Shealey et al. (2014), challenges afford opportunities. All involved in higher education have an opportunity to support others as they encounter challenges involving global and national cross-cultural perspectives. In addition, work is necessary to capture insights from AA faculty and other faculty of color.

College and university administrators across the country are under increasing pressure from external forces, such as policy makers and the public, to be accountable for the productivity and workload of their faculty members. As a result, reliable benchmarks to assess, evaluate, and respond to changes in perceptions among AA and other faculty of color are essential to the success of these academic institutions (Bentley, Coates, Dobson, Goedegebuure, & Meek, 2013). A literature gap exists regarding the effect of exposing AA faculty and other faculty of color to interventions designed to empower faculty, as measured by their perceptions in universities. Harrell (2000) created the Daily Life Experiences measure, which consists of 20 items and measures microaggressions that may occur in everyday life. Although the measure contains three subscales, it does not

reflect the breadth and categories of microaggressions highlighted in the microaggression taxonomy and subsequent studies. Moreover, other instruments that measure modern racism, perceived ethnic discrimination (Brondolo et al., 2005), and race-related stress (Marks et al., 2015) may include some examples of microaggressions but do not consider the types of microaggressions described in recent literature (e.g., environmental microaggressions or microinvalidations). Thus, the purpose of my study was to use the REMS-14 to examine the possible relationship of perceived racial microaggressions experienced by AA faculty and other faculty of color with their motivation and job satisfaction.

Among the advantages of the survey design were rapid turnaround time for data collection and cost effectiveness, along with the ability to generalize from the sample to a larger population, as well as complete anonymity for individual participants (Babbie, 2012; Fowler, 2002; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). The economy of the design, rapid data collection, data availability, and convenience were determining factors in my choice of survey design.

Results from two large samples provided evidence of reliability through satisfactory internal-consistency estimates and evidence of validity through correlations with other scales, suggesting the REMS is an instrument used to test the scales of measurement of racial microaggressions. First, through exploratory principal-components analyses, researchers identified six components with Eigenvalues higher than 1. All items produced under each component made conceptual sense, and a confirmatory factor analysis with a new sample supported the acceptability of the overall scale. Second, the REMS correlated with both the Racism and Life Experience Scale–Brief Version and the

Daily Life Experiences, two scales frequently used to measure experiences of racism and discrimination, thereby supporting the validity of the measure. Furthermore, participants were overwhelmingly able to identify that the REMS was a measure of racial discrimination, further suggesting the scale was measuring what it was intended to measure. The REMS proved to be a reliable measure across four major racial groups: Asian Americans, Latina/o Americans, Black/AAs, and multiracial people. High coefficient alphas (all higher than .80) in two independent samples pointed to the reliability of the overall scale and its subsequent subscales, indicating its appropriate use for individuals of all racial-minority groups (Nadal, 2011).

Population

The target population was AA faculty members and other faculty members of color working at colleges and universities in the southeastern United States. This included states from the SREB: Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia. According to the SREB Fact Book (Lounsbury, 2015), 10,269 AA faculty were teaching in these states during the 2013–2014 academic year.

Sample and Sampling Procedures

For this web-based study, the sample was from the College Results Online database developed by the Education Trust to identify mid- to large-sized southeastern colleges and universities. I used several other sources, including listservs for nonprofit community centers, racial-minority professional organizations, and historically African American sororities and fraternities, to obtain a sufficiently large sample. I contacted

southeastern colleges and universities identified through College Results Online by e-mail, asking program directors to provide e-mail addresses of relevant faculty, or I obtained e-mail addresses through discipline and program websites. Inclusion criteria required each study participant to have an e-mail address and work at a southeastern college or university, hold a master's degree or PhD, perform duties in a discipline at a university or college, and have been employed at the current college or university for at least 1 year. I did not exclude members of any gender in the study and randomly selected participants among those who met the inclusion criteria to participate in the study. I distributed questionnaires online and sent e-mails to the targeted faculty. I required participants to fill in the online questionnaire and automatically stored all participants' online responses in a database with secured anonymity.

Justification of Sample Size

I conducted a power analysis using G*Power 3.1, a power-analysis software program, to determine the minimum sample size necessary for the study to produce statistically meaningful results. Conducting a power analysis requires knowledge of any three of the following components: the power level, the effect size, the alpha level, and the sample size for the study (Cohen, 1988). The power level for all analyses was .80, which is Cohen's recommended level for these reasons: smaller values carry a higher risk for committing a Type II error, and larger values may lead to difficulties in achieving the required sample size (Cohen, 1992). The regression models tested whether six variables that reflect the six major microaggression subscales—(a) assumptions of inferiority, (b) second-class citizen and assumption of criminality, (c) microinvalidations, (d) exoticization/assumptions of similarity, (e) environmental microaggressions, and (f)

workplace and school microaggressions—predict job satisfaction and motivation. Originally, I calculated the power analysis with a medium effect size ($f^2 = .15$), a significance level of .05, and a power level of .80. This power analysis yielded a required sample size of 98. However, response rates for the survey were low after exhausting all of the recruitment methods described in this chapter. Therefore, I recalculated the power analysis with the following parameters, a large effect size ($f^2 = .35$), a significance level of .10, and a power level of .80. This new power analysis yielded a required sample size of 38. A final total of 42 participants were included in the study. A post-hoc power analysis was conducted to determine the achieved power of the study under both the original and revised power analysis parameters; the power achieved based on the original parameters was .36, and the power achieved based on the revised parameters was .85. Chapter 5 includes the limitations because of sample size.

I sent a final e-mail to nonrespondents announcing the deadline for completion of the survey. I sent the e-mail 3 weeks after the survey was available to participants and included the URL as a hyperlink directly to the survey. I clearly described what the would represented and gave comprehensive, specific information about demographic and other characteristics of respondents (see Chapter 4).

Setting and Sample

The setting for this study was 125 colleges and universities that I identified as mid- to large-sized southeastern colleges and universities using the College Results Online database developed by the Education Trust. I recruited AA faculty members from these colleges and universities to participate in this study. The criteria for participating in this study included the following. AA faculty and other faculty of color who,

1. Can use the Internet and have Internet access,
2. Work at a southeastern college or university,
3. Perform duties in a discipline at the university or college,
4. Hold a master's degree or PhD, and
5. Are employed at the current college or university for at least 1 year.

I did not exclude members of any gender in this study. I recruited a minimum of 38 participants who met the inclusion criteria to participate in the study.

Sample Selection and Size

Considering the nature of the data collection process for this study, I did not select participants randomly. Instead, I selected participants based on the inclusion requirements. The goal for the sample size was 38 participants, which was determined by a power analysis conducted with G*Power 3.1 statistical software (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). To achieve the required 38 respondents, I solicited participants from the political science, education, literature, history, and psychology disciplines at southeastern colleges and universities. To ensure the required sample size, I also recruited participants by sending mass e-mails to listservs of various communities, including nonprofit community centers, racial-minority professional organizations, and historically AA sororities and fraternities. College Results data afforded me access to the largest number of participants.

I used no exclusionary criteria, such as gender; however, all participants needed to be at least 18 years of age, be able to use the Internet, and be AA faculty members or other faculty members of color at southeastern colleges or universities. I clearly explained the nature and purpose of the study to potential participants prior to asking

them to sign the consent form. The most important consideration in determining sample size is that the sample has to be representative of the population for the researcher to make statistical inferences or generalizations (Cohen, 1992; Fleiss, Levin, & Paik, 2003). For example, if the sample is too small, the study will lack the statistical power required to answer the research question under examination.

I used Cohen's (1992) statistical power analysis to determine the appropriate sample size for this study. Cohen suggested the values of significance level, effect size, power, and estimated variance must be predetermined to calculate an adequate sample size. I used the recommended statistical level of significance of alpha at .10, the large effect size of .35, and the fixed power at .80 to calculate an appropriate sample size.

Instrumentation

SurveyMonkey hosted the REMS-14 framework and JDS online surveys for research participants. Specifically, the REMS scale has 45 items to measure the level of racial and ethnic microaggressions. REMS-14 is a measure to evaluate types of racial microaggressions that individuals experience in their everyday lives (Nadal, 2011). Nadal (2011) used theory and statistical methods to identify 45 microaggression incidents and to categorize them into six major subscales: (a) assumptions of inferiority, (b) second-class citizen and assumption of criminality, (c) microinvalidations,
(d) exoticization/assumptions of similarity, (e) environmental microaggressions, and
(f) workplace and school microaggressions. The overall scale and the subscales are supported by theoretical literature (Sue et al., 2007) and qualitative studies (Appio et al., 2010; Forquer et al., 2010; Hill et al., 2010; Sue, 2010) that show people of color

experience microaggressions in their everyday lives and are able to identify such instances as being racially related. I used the subscales developed by Nadal for this study.

Example items include, “I received substandard service in stores compared to customers of other racial groups” and “Someone assumed that my work would be inferior to people of other racial groups.” Participants rated their experience with each item in the past 6 months via a 6-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*none of the time*) to 6 (*all of the time*). However, the REMS underwent scoring changes by the scale creator, Nadal (2011). In the newest iteration of the scoring instructions, Nadal recommended treating the scale like a checklist. Thus, coding of the final scores was such that responses of 1 (*none of the time*) were equal to 0 and responses of 2–6, which indicated a range of perceiving microaggressions, were equal to 1. The six subscale items combined to produce a composite score ranging from 0–45, such that higher scores indicated higher perceptions of microaggressions. The JDS measures core job dimensions, psychological state, and personal work outcomes (satisfaction, motivation, performance, and attendance). The JDS consists of seven sections, the first five of which I used in this study.

Operational Definition of Variables

I measured several variables to answer the research questions. To determine racial-microaggression patterns among AA and other faculty of color in southeastern colleges and universities, I collected information on three different forms of racial microaggression—(a) microassault, (b) microinsult, and (c) microinvalidation—and evaluated differences between levels of these variables. The 45 microaggression incidents were divided into six major subscales: (a) assumptions of inferiority, (b) second-class

citizen and assumption of criminality, (c) microinvalidations, (d) exoticization/ assumptions of similarity, (e) environmental microaggressions, and (f) workplace and school microaggressions. I used the subscales for this study.

I measured two outcome variables in the current investigation: employee motivation and job satisfaction. The JDS measures the objective characteristics of jobs, particularly the degree to which jobs enhance the internal work motivation and the job satisfaction of people who do them. The first five sections of the survey included the following, items in Section 1 describe aspects of the job; Section 2 presents statements regarding job description, which participants rated on a 7-point Likert scale from *very inaccurate* to *very accurate;* participants rated Sections 3 and 5 on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. The measurements of internal work motivation and general satisfaction (i.e., two of the seven job satisfaction constructs) were in these two sections; the remaining five job-satisfaction constructs (i.e., satisfaction with job security, with pay, with coworker relations, with supervisor, and with growth) comprised the items of Section 4. I measured the seven job satisfaction constructs on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from *very dissatisfied* to *very satisfied*.

Data Collection

Following Walden University Institutional Review Board approval to conduct the research, I contacted college and university administrators in identified southeastern colleges and universities to explain the research purpose and methodology and to update them regarding the study. I requested e-mail addresses of faculty in teaching and administrative disciplines at their respective institutions to inform them about the study and extend an invitation to participate in the study. I did not meet with potential

participants face-to-face in an effort to respect their privacy. Additionally, I informed participants that their participation in this study was voluntary and I kept all participants' responses private and confidential. Participants could elect to leave the study at any time and for any reason without penalty. To do so, participants could simply close the survey page or contact me via email to opt out of the study. I will keep the questionnaires used for the study for 5 years after the date of publication. After securely storing the date for 5 years, I will then destroy it by erasing the data and destroying the hard drive.

Data collection consisted of a self-administered online survey. All interested individuals could voluntarily access the web link online. The research consisted of a minimum of 38 potential respondents chosen based on the study inclusion criteria. I analyzed data using descriptive and correlational statistics. To ensure the required sample size of 38 respondents, I recruited a community sample by sending mass e-mails to various community listservs that included nonprofit community centers, racial-minority professional organizations, and historically AA sororities and fraternities.

Data Analysis

I used descriptive statistics to summarize participants' characteristics, such as gender, race, ethnicity, age, and employed position at the institution. I calculated frequencies and percentages for categorical variables. I also calculated means and standard deviations for interval- or ratio-level variables. Further, I obtained data from the scores of completed surveys based on the REMS-14 and JDS, described in previous sections. I summarized each survey item using frequency tables and descriptive statistics.

I used IBM's SPSS 22.0 statistical software to compute the statistical analysis. I assessed all the measures and scales with Cronbach's alpha, which is a measure of

reliability. I calculated descriptive statistics for all variables. I conducted multiple linear regression analysis to address the research questions. Multiple linear regression is an appropriate statistical analysis when the goal of the research is to determine the degree of relationship between multiple predictor variables (i.e., racial microaggression subscales), and an outcome variable. The outcome variables were faculty motivation and job satisfaction. I also calculated correlations to determine if a bivariate relationship existed between racial or ethnic microaggression, job satisfaction, and employee motivation. I used an alpha level of .10 as the benchmark for significant findings. In the following section, I list details of the data analysis procedures that I used to test each hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis 1

Null Hypothesis 1 states there will be no significant relationship between perceived level of microaggressions and job satisfaction among AA and other faculty of color. I conducted a multiple linear-regression analysis to investigate the relationship between the variables. I used a standard multiple linear regression, meaning that all of the predictors were entered into the regression model at the same time. The six microaggression subscales (assumption of inferiority, second-class citizens and assumption of criminality, microinvalidations, exoticization/assumptions of similarity, environmental microaggressions, and workplace and school microaggressions) were entered into the multiple linear regression models as predictor variables. Job satisfaction was the outcome variable. In addition, I conducted analyses to determine the correlation between job satisfaction and perceived level of microaggressions (as measured by the six subscales).

Prior to the analysis, I tested the assumptions of multiple-linear-regression. These assumptions included normality, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity. The assumption of normality states a normal distribution exists between the predictor variables and the dependent variable. I tested this assumption by examining a Normal P-P plot. The assumption of homoscedasticity states scores will normally distribute around the regression line. I tested this assumption by examining a scatterplot of standardized residuals plotted against standardized predicted values. The absence of multicollinearity assumption states predictor variables are not too highly correlated. I tested this assumption using Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs). Stevens (2009) suggested VIF values higher than 10 suggest the presence of multicollinearity.

Null Hypothesis 2

Null Hypothesis 2 states there is no significant relationship between perceived levels of microaggressions and employee motivation among AA and other faculty of color. I tested Null Hypothesis 2 using a multiple linear regression analysis to investigate the relationship between the variables. I used a standard multiple linear regression, meaning that all of the predictors were entered into the regression model at the same time. The six microaggression subscales (assumption of inferiority, second-class citizens and assumption of criminality, microinvalidations, exoticization/assumptions of similarity, environmental microaggressions, and workplace and school microaggressions) were entered into the multiple linear regression models as predictor variables. Employee motivation was the outcome variable. In addition, I conducted an analysis to determine the correlation between employee motivation and the perceived level of microaggressions. I also tested the assumptions of multiple linear regression (normality,

homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity) in the same way as in the previous analysis (i.e., using a P-P plot, scatterplot, and VIFs).

Validity and Reliability

Testing for validity means ensuring that empirical measures in an investigative study measure the concept they purport to measure. Evaluation of validity is significant and is achievable through various means. Reliability is a condition of validity, but does not guarantee validity. In an investigative study, reliability and validity enhance testing of the questionnaire, penning clear objectives, research questions, and hypotheses (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Because of the correlational nature of this study, external validity concerns, such as testing reactivity, effects of selection and experimental variables, and multiple treatments, were not relevant (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Similarly, internal validity concerns of history, maturation, and experimental mortality were irrelevant because of the cross-sectional nature of the study. These concerns would be applicable if the study involved collection of data from multiple points in time. Instrumentation was the only validity concern relevant to the study.

Validity and Reliability of the REMS-14

The REMS-14, developed by Nadal (2011), showed evidence of reliability through satisfactory internal-consistency estimates and evidence of validity through correlations with other scales, suggesting the REMS is a tested measure of racial microaggressions. First, through exploratory principal components analyses, researchers identified six components with Eigenvalues higher than 1. All items produced under each component made conceptual sense, and a confirmatory factor analysis with a new sample supported the acceptability of the overall scale. Second, the REMS correlated with both

the Racism and Life Experience Scale–Brief Version and the Daily Life Experiences (two scales frequently used to measure experiences of racism and discrimination), supporting the validity of the measure.

To test the validity of REMS-45, researchers conducted a confirmatory factor analysis with a new sample, using the Mplus 5.21 program (Muthén & Muthén, 2009). The hypothesized model consisted of six first-order latent variables representing the six subscales. Each item on the REMS-45 could be an indicator for only one of the subscales, with eight indicators for assumptions of inferiority, seven indicators for second-class citizen and assumptions of criminality, nine indicators for microinvalidations, nine indicators for exoticization or assumptions of similarity, seven indicators for environmental microaggressions, and five indicators for workplace and school microaggressions. In addition, one second-order latent variable represented the total REMS-45 score. Similar to the confirmatory factor analysis from the first sample, the model yielded a significant χ^2 of 1400.37 (df = 930, p > .001), which is large enough to reject the null of a good fit. Although the present model resulted in a comparative fit index of .815 (which is slightly higher than the first sample, though still a poor fit), it also yielded a Standardized Root Mean Square Residual score of .071, and a Root Mean Square Error of Approximation score of .05. These scores indicate a good or excellent fit. Thus, as noted by Nadal (2011), two of the three fit indices supported the REMS-45, and its subscales are tested measures of racial microaggressions.

In internal consistency reliability, the second sample of the REMS-Checklist produced a coefficient alpha of .882 (M = 0.556, SD = 0.18). Each subscale produced a coefficient alpha well above .70, as shown in the following, Subscale 1: assumptions of

inferiority (α = .862, *M* = 0.421, *SD* = 0.34); Subscale 2: second-class citizen and assumptions of criminality (α = .820, *M* = 0.418, *SD* = 0.29); Subscale 3: microinvalidations (α = .792, *M* = 0.467, *SD* = 0.27); Subscale 4: exoticization/assumptions of similarity (α = .715, *M* = 0.724, *SD* = 0.21); Subscale 5: environmental microaggressions (α = .768, *M* = 0.288, *SD* = 0.27); and Subscale 6: workplace and school microaggressions (α = .747, *M* = 0.423, *SD* = 0.28). Subscales for all African Americans, Latinas/os, Asian Americans, and multiracial people were high, with alpha ranges from .762 to .928. Subscales 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6 positively correlated with each other, ranging from .313 to .602. Subscale 5 negatively correlated with all five other subscales, with *r* scores ranging from -.285 to = -168. Nadal's study (2011) includes all intercorrelations, Cronbach's alphas, means, and standard deviations. High-coefficient alphas (all higher than .80) in two independent samples indicated the reliability of the overall scale and its subsequent subscales, indicating its appropriate use for individuals of all racial-minority groups. The REMS-14 thus appeared to be appropriate for the purpose of this study.

Job Diagnostic Survey

I used the JDS, an instrument with a Likert-type ranking scale, to measure employee perceptions of satisfaction and motivation. Developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980), the JDS measures classes of variables. The JDS measures core job dimensions, psychological state, and personal work outcomes (satisfaction, motivation, performance, and attendance). The JDS consists of seven sections, the first five of which I used in this study. The items of Section 1 describe aspects of the job. Section 2 presents statements regarding job description, which participants' rate on a 7-point scale from *very*

inaccurate to *very accurate*. The JDS rates Sections 3 and 5 on a 7-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*; these sections measure internal work motivation and general satisfaction (i.e., two of the seven job satisfaction constructs). The remaining five job-satisfaction constructs (i.e., satisfaction with job security, with pay, with coworker relations, with supervisor, and with growth) include the items of Section 4, rated on a 7-point score ranging from *very dissatisfied* to *very satisfied* (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). The JDS appeared to be appropriate for the purpose of this study.

Validity and Reliability of JDS

Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980) established internal consistency and reliability when they assessed the JDS for validity, reliability, and usability. Hackman and Oldham (1975) claimed the JDS is one of the most valid and reliable measures of internal motivation and job satisfaction. Juhdi and Hamid (2009) examined the relationships between job satisfaction and four teaching role attributes of instructors. The respondents, sample of 292 instructors, were instructors in the higher learning institutions who are working in universities and university colleges. The researchers measured job satisfaction using five items from the JDS developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980).

Previous studies using these items measuring job satisfaction indicated coefficient alphas ranging from .55 to .92 (e.g., Mathieu, Hofman, & Farr, 1993; Munz, Huelsman, Konold, & McKinney, 1996; Mannheim, Baruch, & Tal, 1997). Reliability tests conducted in the Hackman and Oldham study indicated coefficient alpha of .784. Further, Wiens, Babenko-Mould, and Iwasiw (2014) stated they measured job satisfaction with the 4-item JDS (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). The purpose of their study was to examine empowerment, job satisfaction levels, and relationships among 139 Associate's degree

nursing educators. Hackman and Oldham asked respondents to rate how satisfied they are with their jobs on 5-item Likert scales. The JDS had a Cronbach's alpha of .84, consistent with previous reports of .78 to .84 (Laschinger et al., 2016).

The convergent validity of an instrument is the degree of similarity between scores achieved with this instrument and those of another instrument that is supposed to measure the same concept. Therefore, I expected a moderate-to-high correlation between instruments. Convergent validity is considered to be acceptable at .50 or higher, or a subscale of at least .50. The McCloskey/Muller Satisfaction Scale, a multidimensional questionnaire designed for hospital nurses, correlated with the JDS. Two studies showed adequate internal consistency coefficients, and convergent validity was .53 to .75 (Lloyd, Streiner, & Shannon, 1998). I used the JDS scale and subscales in this study.

Demographic Questionnaire

I added an open-ended demographic questionnaire at the beginning of the survey to determine each participant's age and income level. Researchers use open-ended answers to allow individuals to choose their own identities, instead of limiting participants to choosing a predetermined box. I made this decision because previous researchers (Nadal et al., 2013) noted that forcing people to choose a box was a possible microaggression in itself. All participants were adults (18 years of age or older).

Ethical Considerations

Stangor (2009) explained ethical research behavior is an essential part of the process of conducting research. Therefore, researchers should not force participants to give information, and they should treat each participant with the highest ethical standards. Social researchers face various challenges that can seriously impinge on the validity and

reliability of information gathered from participants. Lack of validity and reliability may infringe on personal rights and freedoms; therefore, the researcher must consider the consequences of the findings and recommendations of an investigative study. Researchers must be aware of maintaining ethical conduct in all research activities and must use their own ethical judgment as well as prescribed ethics. Failure to do so will negatively affect research findings. Stangor (1998) postulated research ethics is maintainable by the way researchers behave in the following areas of the study,

1. Protecting research participants from physical and psychological harm,
2. Refraining from using threats to elicit information,
3. Thinking about the lasting effect to the participant regarding the process of getting and using data or information,
4. Providing the opportunity for freedom of choice in the research process,
5. Using secure informed consent,
6. Weighing informed consent against research goals,
7. Maintaining awareness of power differentials by avoiding the use of power and respecting the participant's privacy,
8. Honestly describing the nature and use of the case and the outcomes,
9. Refraining from using deceptive mannerisms and narratives and ensuring procedures are followed, and
10. Not bringing one's own ethical beliefs into the results.

Fraenkel, Wallen, and Hyun (1993) believed ethics is maintainable in research by implementing an unprejudiced research process that will ultimately generate bias-free findings, analysis, and recommendations. Data analysis is a potential point of

unintentionally introducing errors and therefore requires careful attention to detail when making calculations or interpretations. During cross-cultural research, researchers who use investigative study formats should exercise restraint, learn the fundamental qualities of the culture, and ensure that their own cultural beliefs do not influence the results. I conducted the survey through the Internet; therefore, the survey carried little risk and was voluntary.

Measures Taken for Protection of Participants

The primary responsibility of the investigator is to ensure participants' protection from harm (physical and mental) during research. Participants did not face exposure to any risks more significant than, or in addition to, risks encountered in everyday life. Prior to participation, participants were required to read the informed consent form at the beginning of the online survey. The participants had to check a *yes* box before proceeding to the survey. I informed potential participants of their ability to withdraw from the study at any time, regardless of any inducement offered to them. In addition, participants could refuse to answer any question(s) they consider invasive or stressful. I ensured the confidentiality and privacy of participants.

Summary

Implications for positive change may affect policies and practices that will help educational leadership face the challenges of racial conflict and begin dialogues about racial microaggressions. Linking research and practices can create a holistic approach to the eradication of disparities, particularly for people of color in the United States, and offer opportunities for everyone to succeed. In Chapter 3, I described the research design and method I used to conduct the current study. I also presented a description of the data

collection instruments: REMS-14, JDS, and a demographics questionnaire. The surveys were quantitative in nature and I used them to collect data to further the understanding of the possible relationship between perceived microaggressions toward AA and other faculty of color and their motivation and job satisfaction. I selected the JDS to measure motivation and job satisfaction because of its proven reliability and internal consistency (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). To assess racial microaggressions, I used the REMS-14. Chapter 4 will present the results of the analysis and the extent to which the outcomes of the study support the hypotheses.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between perceived racial microaggressions and job motivation and job satisfaction for AA faculty and other faculty of color in southeastern colleges and universities. This study was designed to address the following research question, What are the relationships, if any, among perceived racial microaggression, job satisfaction, and employee motivation among AA faculty and other faculty of color? The corresponding hypotheses were as follows:

$H1_0$: There is no significant relationship between perceived level of microaggression and job satisfaction among AA faculty and other faculty of color.

$H1_a$: There is a significant relationship between perceived level of microaggression and job satisfaction among AA faculty and other faculty of color.

$H2_0$: There is no significant relationship between perceived levels of microaggression and employee motivation among AA faculty and other faculty of color.

$H2_a$: There is a significant relationship between perceived levels of microaggression and employee motivation among AA faculty and other faculty of color.

In this chapter, I discuss the results of the data analysis conducted to address the research question and hypotheses. The details of the data collection are presented, followed by the results of the analysis for each research hypothesis. Finally, I conclude this chapter with a brief summary of the findings.

Data Collection

The data collection occurred during a 6-month period from August 2016 to February 2017. During that period, a total of 137 individuals responded to the survey. Six respondents did not agree to the informed consent form. Of the respondents, 61 were screened out of the survey because they did not meet the eligibility criteria for the study. An additional 28 respondents were excluded because they did not complete the REMS-14, JDS, or both instruments. A final total of 42 participants were included in the data analysis.

Tables 4 and 5 display descriptive statistics for the categorical and continuous demographic variables, respectively. The participants' ages ranged from 28 to 68 years (M = 46.18, SD = 10.99), and their average income was $67,846.36 ($SD$ = $39,082.25). The majority of the participants identified as Black/African American (n = 38, 90.5%) and held a doctoral degree or higher (n = 24, 57.1%). All participants except one indicated they were working full time.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Categorical Demographic Variables

Variable	*n*	%
Education		
Master's degree	18	42.9
Doctoral degree or higher	24	57.1
Race		
Black/African American	38	90.5
Asian	3	7.1
Native American/Alaskan Native	1	2.4
Employment status		
Full time	41	97.6
Not full time	1	2.4

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Continuous Demographic Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*
Age (in years)	46.18	10.99
Income (in U.S. dollars)	67846.36	39082.25

Results

Before the main analysis, I conducted a Cronbach's alpha interitem reliability analysis for the independent and dependent variables of the study (i.e., assumptions of inferiority, second-class citizen and assumption of criminality, microinvalidations, exoticization or assumptions of similarity, environmental microaggressions, workplace and school microaggressions, job satisfaction, and employee motivation). According to George and Mallery (2016), Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients of .7 or higher

indicate acceptable reliability. Table 6 displays the reliability coefficients. All of the subscales demonstrated acceptable reliability except employee motivation ($\alpha = .48$). I examined individual items for employee motivation to determine if removing any items could improve the reliability; however, the reliability could not be improved by removing any items. Therefore, the results for employee motivation should be interpreted with caution. Composite scores were computed according to each instrument's scoring instructions. Table 7 presents descriptive statistics for the composite scores.

Table 6

Reliability Coefficients for Study Variables

Variable	No. of items	Cronbach's alpha
Assumptions of inferiority	8	.91
Second-class citizen and assumption of criminality	7	.88
Microinvalidations	9	.90
Exoticization/assumptions of similarity	9	.83
Environmental microaggressions	7	.75
Workplace and school microaggressions	5	.91
Job satisfaction	5	.70
Employee motivation	6	.48

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*
Assumptions of inferiority	0.61	0.38
Second-class citizen and assumption of criminality	0.49	0.37
Microinvalidations	0.54	0.36
Exoticization/assumptions of similarity	0.37	0.31
Environmental microaggressions	0.83	0.24
Workplace and school microaggressions	0.52	0.43
Job satisfaction	3.69	0.76
Employee motivation	3.86	0.59

Null Hypothesis 1

Null Hypothesis 1 states that there is no significant relationship between perceived level of microaggressions and job satisfaction among AA faculty and other faculty of color. I tested this hypothesis by conducting a multiple linear regression analysis. The predictor (independent) variables in this analysis were assumptions of inferiority, second-class citizen and assumption of criminality, microinvalidations, exoticization/assumptions of similarity, environmental microaggressions, and workplace and school microaggressions. The outcome (dependent) variable in this analysis was job satisfaction. Standard multiple linear regression was used, meaning that all of the predictors were entered into the regression model at the same time. I determined statistical significance using a significance level of .10.

Prior to the analysis, I tested the assumptions of multiple linear regression. These assumptions included normality, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity. The assumption of normality was tested by examining a normal P-P plot (see Figure 1). The

data did not strongly deviate from the normal line, so this assumption was met. I tested the assumption of homoscedasticity by examining a scatterplot of standardized residuals plotted against standardized predicted values (see Figure 2). The data were equally distributed around 0, so this assumption was also met. I tested multicollinearity using VIFs. Stevens (2009) suggested VIF values higher than 10 suggest the presence of multicollinearity. All VIF values were less than 10 (see Table 8), so this assumption was also met.

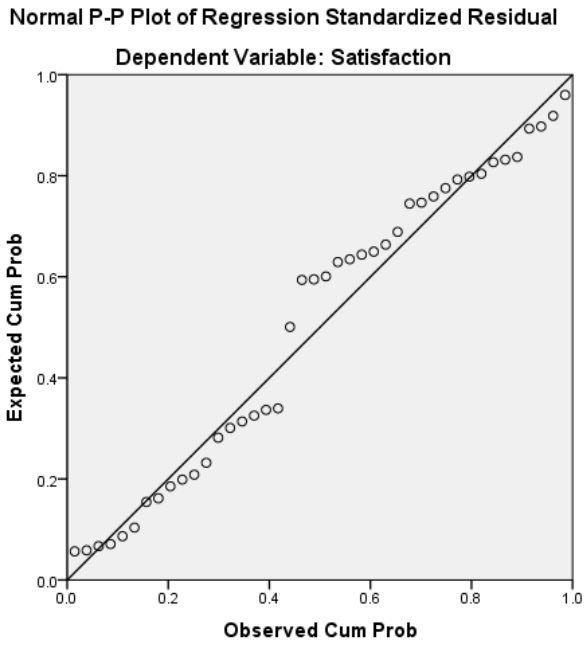

Figure 1. Normal P-P plot for Null Hypothesis 1.

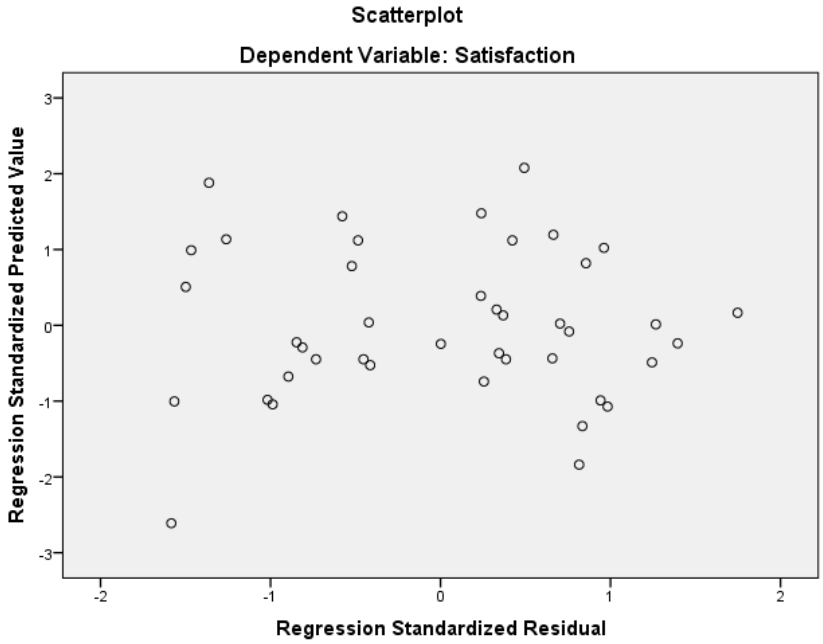

Figure 2. Scatterplot of residuals vs. predicted values for Null Hypothesis 1.

Table 8

Multiple Linear Regression Predicting Job Satisfaction

Independent variable	*B*	Std. error	Beta	*t*	*p*	90% CI *B*	VIF
Assumptions of inferiority	-0.41	0.68	-0.21	-0.60	.550	[-1.56, 0.74]	5.24
Second-class citizen and assumption of criminality	0.60	0.53	0.29	1.13	.266	[-0.30, 1.50]	3.06
Microinvalidations	-1.16	0.58	-0.55	-2.00	.053	[-2.14, -0.18]	3.51
Exoticization/ assumptions of similarity	0.49	0.54	0.20	0.91	.369	[-0.42, 1.41]	2.19
Environmental microaggressions	-0.39	0.52	-0.12	-0.76	.454	[-1.26, 0.48]	1.20
Workplace and school microaggressions	-0.04	0.52	-0.02	-0.08	.938	[-0.91, 0.83]	3.87

Note. $F(6, 35) = 1.78$, $p = .132$, $R^2 = .23$.

The overall regression model was not significant, $F(6, 35) = 1.78$, $p = .132$, $R^2 = .23$, indicating no significant relationship existed between perceived level of microaggressions and job satisfaction. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 1 was not rejected. Table 8 includes the full results of the regression. To determine if bivariate relationships existed between the microaggressions subscales and job satisfaction, I conducted Pearson correlations. Table 9 presents the results of the Pearson correlations. Assumptions of inferiority were significantly negatively correlated with job satisfaction ($r = -.33$, $p = .036$), meaning that participants who scored higher in assumptions of inferiority tended to score lower in job satisfaction. Additionally, microinvalidations were significantly negatively correlated with job satisfaction ($r = -.40$, $p = .010$), meaning that participants who scored higher in microinvalidations tended to score lower in job satisfaction.

Table 9

Pearson Correlations Between Microaggressions and Job Satisfaction

Variable	Correlation with job satisfaction	*p*
Assumptions of inferiority	-.33*	.036
Second-class citizen and assumption of criminality	-.13	.405
Microinvalidations	-.40*	.010
Exoticization/assumptions of similarity	-.14	.396
Environmental microaggressions	-.07	.677
Workplace and school microaggressions	-.25	.115

Note. *$p < .10$.

Null Hypothesis 2

Null Hypothesis 2 stated that there is no significant relationship between perceived levels of microaggressions and employee motivation among AA faculty and

other faculty of color. I tested this hypothesis by conducting another multiple linear regression analysis. The predictor variables in this analysis were the same as in the previous analysis: assumptions of inferiority, second-class citizen and assumption of criminality, microinvalidations, exoticization or assumptions of similarity, environmental microaggressions, and workplace and school microaggressions. The outcome variable in this analysis was employee motivation. As with the previous analysis, I used a standard multiple linear regression. Statistical significance was determined using a significance level of .10.

Prior to the analysis, I tested the assumptions of multiple linear regression in the same way as the previous analysis. The Normal P-P plot (see Figure 3) showed the data did not strongly deviate from the normal line, so the assumption of normality was met. The scatterplot of standardized residuals plotted against standardized predicted values (see Figure 4) showed the data were equally distributed around 0, so the assumption of homoscedasticity was also met. All VIF values were less than 10 (see Table 10), so multicollinearity was not present in the data.

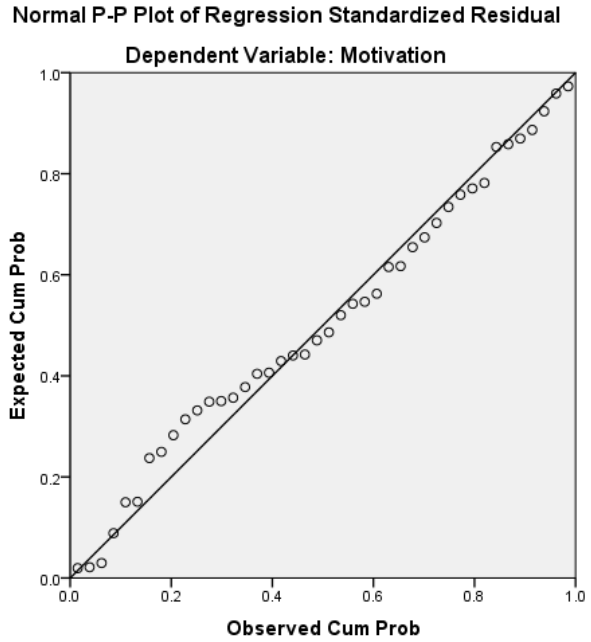

Figure 3. Normal P-P plot for Null Hypothesis 2.

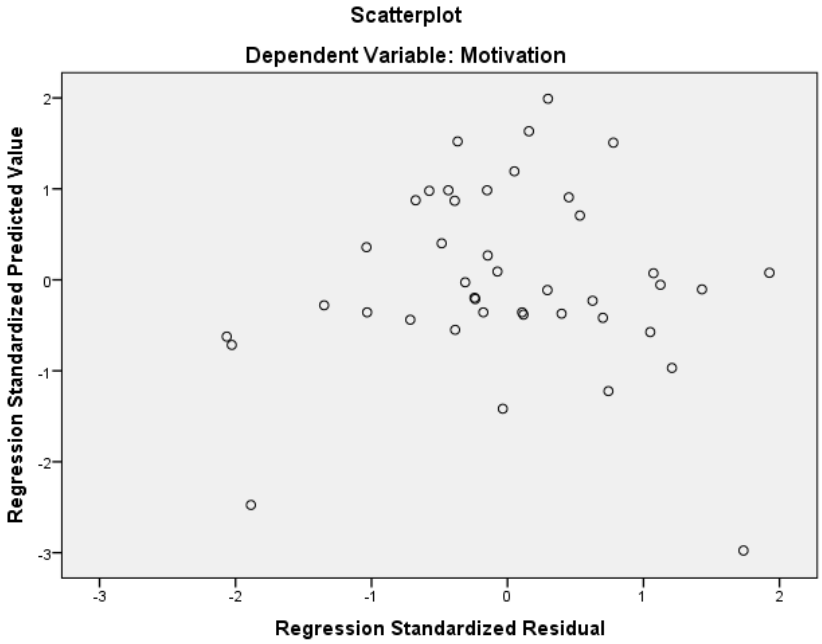

Figure 4. Scatterplot of residuals vs. predicted values for Null Hypothesis 2.

Table 10

Multiple Linear Regression Predicting Employee Motivation

Independent variable	*B*	Std. error	Beta	*t*	*p*	90% CI *B*	VIF
Assumptions of inferiority	-0.84	0.56	-0.54	-1.51	.139	[-1.78, 0.10]	5.24
Second-class citizen and assumption of criminality	0.58	0.44	0.36	1.33	.194	[-0.16, 1.31]	3.06
Microinvalidations	-0.35	0.47	-0.22	-0.74	.463	[-1.15, 0.45]	3.51
Exoticization/assumptions of similarity	0.01	0.44	0.01	0.02	.981	[-0.74, 0.76]	2.19
Environmental microaggressions	-0.27	0.42	-0.11	-0.63	.531	[-0.98, 0.45]	1.20
Workplace and school microaggressions	0.33	0.42	0.24	0.78	.443	[-0.39, 1.04]	3.87

Note. $F(6, 35) = 1.12$, $p = .373$, $R^2 = .16$.

The overall regression model was not significant, $F(6, 35) = 1.12$, $p = .373$, $R^2 = .16$, indicating no significant relationship existed between perceived level of microaggressions and employee motivation. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 2 was not rejected. Table 10 includes the full results of the regression. To determine if bivariate relationships existed between the microaggressions subscales and job satisfaction, I conducted Pearson correlations. However, none of the Pearson correlations were significant. Table 11 presents the results of the Pearson correlations.

Table 11

Pearson Correlations Between Microaggressions and Employee Motivation

Variable	Correlation with employee motivation	*p*
Assumptions of inferiority	-0.24	.130
Second-class citizen and assumption of criminality	-0.03	.870
Microinvalidations	-0.22	.170
Exoticization/assumptions of similarity	-0.10	.526
Environmental microaggressions	-0.15	.354
Workplace and school microaggressions	-0.08	.613

Summary

This chapter included the data analysis and findings for the research question and hypotheses. I tested Null Hypothesis 1 by conducting a multiple linear regression analysis. The results of the analysis indicated no significant relationship existed between perceived level of microaggressions and job satisfaction. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 1 was not rejected. This means that, collectively, the six microaggressions subscales were not significantly related to job satisfaction among faculty. The alternative hypothesis (i.e., There is a significant relationship between perceived level of microaggression and job satisfaction among AA and other faculty of color) was not supported. However, a bivariate Pearson correlation analysis showed assumptions of inferiority and microinvalidations were significantly, negatively correlated with job satisfaction. Null Hypothesis 2 was tested by conducting a second multiple linear regression analysis. The results of the analysis indicated no significant relationship existed between perceived level of microaggressions and employee motivation. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 2 was

not rejected. This means that, collectively, the six microaggressions subscales were not significantly related to employee motivation among faculty. The alternative hypothesis (i.e., There is a significant relationship between perceived levels of microaggression and employee motivation among AA and other faculty of color) was not supported. Chapter 5 will include a discussion of these results in relation to the literature and theory guiding the study. Chapter 5 will also include suggestions for future research.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

Several scholars have noted that AA faculty face challenging climates at institutions that are predominantly Caucasian (Levin et al., 2015). In particular, encounters with racism can be frustrating and hurtful, deterring AA scholars from entering academia as well as leading to early departure from the institution or, more significantly, from the academic field altogether. Previous researchers have demonstrated the negative effects that racism, racial oppression, and educational inequities may have on individuals' motivation and job satisfaction (Levin et al., 2015). The concept of racial microaggressions intersects with comparable constructs of ambiguous or surreptitious racism, such as everyday discrimination (Nadal et al., 2014; Pittman, 2012; Sue, 2010), perceived discrimination (Torres et al., 2012), racial battle fatigue (Allen, 2012), and race-related traumatic stress (Goodman et al., 2015). The effect that racism-related stress has on psychological distress is more significant for AAs relative to the effect of life stress (Marks et al., 2015).

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to understand the relationship, if any, between perceived racial microaggressions and job motivation and job satisfaction for AA faculty and other faculty of color in southeastern colleges and universities. I investigated the relationship between perceived racial microaggressions toward AA faculty and other faculty of color and their employee motivation and job satisfaction using a quantitative methodology. Although numerous researchers have examined the effects of microaggressions in the public sphere, few researchers have examined microaggressions in universities. A literature gap exists regarding issues that are

unique or specific to various racial or ethnic groups and to faculty women of color. Specifically, few researchers measured AA faculty's perceptions of racial microaggressions in university settings.

The specific organizational problem is that it is unknown what relationships, if any, exist among perceived racial microaggressions, job satisfaction, and employee motivation among AA and other faculty of color in colleges and universities in the southeastern part of the United States. The results of the analysis indicated no significant relationship existed between perceived level of microaggressions and job satisfaction, and no significant relationship between perceived level of microaggressions and employee motivation. This chapter presents an interpretation of the research findings, study limitations, recommendations for further research, implications for positive social change, and study conclusions.

Interpretation of Findings

The results from existing research have suggested that a relationship may exist among perceived racial microaggression, job satisfaction, and employee motivation for AA faculty and other faculty of color in colleges and universities in the southeastern part of the United States (Allen, 2012; Gagné et al., 2015; Goodman et al., 2015; Marks et al., 2015; Nadal et al., 2014; Paposa & Kumar, 2015; Pittman, 2012; Sue, 2010; Torres et al., 2012). Because of this, the findings of this study were somewhat surprising. Therefore, it is important to explore possible reasons that racial microaggression, job satisfaction, and employee motivation were unrelated in this investigation. According to the literature presented in Chapter 2, these results are most likely because only 20% of AA faculty

apply for positions at predominantly Caucasian institutions, which reaffirms the need for stronger active recruitment efforts to attract underrepresented minority faculty members.

Data collection occurred during a 6-month period from August 2016 to February 2017. During that period, a total of 137 individuals responded to the survey. Six respondents did not agree to the informed consent form. Of the respondents, 61% were screened out of the survey because they did not meet the eligibility criteria for the study. An additional 28 respondents were excluded because they did not complete the REMS-14, the JDS, or both instruments. As a result, the final total of participants included in the data analysis was 42.

Research Question 1

The central research question driving the study was, What are the relationships, if any, among perceived racial microaggression, job satisfaction, and employee motivation among AA faculty and other faculty of color? I measured several variables to answer the research questions. To determine racial-microaggression patterns among AA faculty and other faculty of color in southeastern colleges and universities, I collected information on three different forms of racial microaggression—(a) microassault, (b) microinsult, and (c) microinvalidation—and evaluated differences between levels of these variables. I then divided the 45 microaggression incidents into six major subscales for this study: (a) assumptions of inferiority, (b) second-class citizen and assumption of criminality, (c) microinvalidations, (d) exoticization/ assumptions of similarity, (e) environmental microaggressions, and (f) workplace and school microaggressions.

The results of the analysis indicated no significant relationship existed between perceived level of microaggressions and job satisfaction, and no significant relationship

existed between perceived level of microaggressions and employee motivation. This result is different from the results of previous studies, such as that of Paposa and Kumar (2015). Paposa and Kumar noted one cannot assume that productivity and satisfaction are always connected because people experience job satisfaction for a variety of emotional and behavioral reasons. Satisfaction is a highly complex feeling, which makes it difficult to determine why satisfaction exists for some individuals but not for others (Paposa & Kumar, 2015). Dulebohn et al. (2012) noted the question is not work expectations; the question is how important the concept of job satisfaction is. Some social scientists have suggested researchers over-study the subject of satisfaction, leading to confusion and unneeded redundancy (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

As with many other constructs of business and management, the complex challenges associated with satisfying employees are experienced by organizations around the world. Globalization, multinational corporations, expansion, and job satisfaction are national as well as international issues for present-day organizations. For example, "surveys show that workers around the globe are experiencing unprecedented levels of anxiety in the workplace" (Bruce, 2003, p. 133). Corporations in Europe, Asia, and India are working to increase worker satisfaction. Nations are reprioritizing staff motivation. Regardless of where a company operates, effective human capital is a mainstay. Oprescu and Militaru (2012) highlighted a job-satisfaction study performed in Australia, Thailand, Singapore, and China that showed 50% of those surveyed admitted to being unmotivated and dissatisfied in their current job.

Whereas job satisfaction focuses on how much individuals enjoy their jobs, employee motivation focuses on workers' desires or inspiration to work toward a given

objective. Recent researchers have indicated employee motivation is a complex subject because it is based on workers' cognitive, emotional, and behavioral needs. Motivation and employee motivation are not the same (Petri & Govern, 2004). Petri and Govern (2004) defined motivation as the concept one uses to describe the forces acting on or in an organism to initiate and direct behavior. Employee motivation, in contrast, aligns closely with the needs and desires of employees regarding meeting their goals and objectives. Numerous theoretical frameworks and models pertain to employee motivation. Application of these frameworks relates to retention, morale, and organizational commitment. Specifically, Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's (1966) hygiene theory are prominent in the recent literature. The findings of this study may be a result of a low sample size (n = 42). Because of low statistical significance, further studies need to be conducted to support this finding.

Increasingly, many inequities in education result from lower expectations, stereotypes, and a hostile, suppressive environment for people of color, women, and those who are LGBT (Sue, 2010). Many scholars have extended the term *racial microaggressions* to explore and measure the influence that microaggressions have on other races and ethnicities (Nadal, 2013; Nadal et al., 2012; Torres-Harding et al., 2012) as well as other social identities, such as those related to gender (Basford et al., 2013; Lewis et al., 2013), gender identity (Nadal, 2013), and sexual identity (Shelton & Delgado-Romero, 2013). However, the low representation of minority faculty may also be the result of these functions of aversive forms of racism. Furthermore, such forces may operate in subtle ways in an educational institution, thereby affecting how schools hire teachers, staff, and administrators (Sue, 2010). Such forces may exist despite that the

results of this study imply no significant relationship exists between perceived level of microaggressions and job satisfaction. Furthermore, with no significant relationship between perceived level of microaggressions and employee motivation, more research is needed to identify alternative variables, such as gender or personality constructs, that may also contribute to ongoing issues in these relationships.

Implications

This quantitative study has sociological and psychological implications in addition to offering valuable insight into the implementation of strategies and knowledge to formally advance and influence policy, and, in turn, build diverse and inclusive higher education communities. The findings may help educational leaders understand the detrimental effects of racial microaggressions on current AA faculty and other faculty of color. Deans, department heads, and campus administrators can use the information from studies, such as those presented in this literature review, in their management and policymaking. As for practical implications, intervention strategies can be implemented that focus on building an individual's sense of ethnic identity and general self-efficacy. Ethnic identity and general self-efficacy can be important buffers in the face of unfair treatment. According to Torres and Taknint (2015), the idea that traumatic stress is an indicator of an emotional stress response further supports the conceptualization of the severity of psychological injury associated with covert forms of discrimination.

Although it did not appear in this study that microaggressions were perceived as a problem for some faculty, efforts should be increased to better educate leaders in the area of racial microaggressions and their influence on employee relationships. Further, the topic of microaggressions in multicultural settings should not be the only subject of

discussion; issues related to diversity should be intentionally included in professional development. In addition to educating leaders about racial microaggressions, efforts should be made to ensure that faculty advisors and department chairpersons are aware of the issues minority faculty and doctoral students face in programs.

Finally, educational leaders should create a safe, supportive environment where minority faculty can openly discuss their concerns and experiences. For example, educational leaders could initiate genuine conversations with faculty of color about their perceptions of what is going on within the department and institution. Institutions of higher learning across the United States should increase their efforts to hire and retain more AA faculty and faculty of color. As the students served by educational institutions become more diverse, it is necessary that faculty become more diverse as well.

Implications for Positive Social Change

This study holds implications for positive social change in that the results may affect policies and practices that will help educational leadership address the challenges of racial conflict and begin dialogues about racial microaggressions. Linking research and practices can create a holistic approach to the eradication of disparities, particularly for people of color in the United States, and can offer opportunities for everyone to succeed. Positive social change and social purpose are focused primarily on equity issues, although their working definitions, both implicit and explicit, reflect a spectrum of meanings ranging from simple activism regarding race, gender, and poverty, to understanding the effect of technological developments, diversity, globalization, and the ecological environment. Scholars have identified many of the same changing influences on society and concepts of social change. Many have postulated that the social context in

which higher education operates in the 21st century calls for universities to be responsive in a number of ways to their constituent societies. A social change mission involving goals of equity, scholars have discussed, includes equitable access to the credentials needed for individuals to participate as equals in new societal realities and guarantees of autonomy and freedom.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations arose in this study. The most notable limitation was the sample size of 42. Though various ethnic-minority groups experience microaggressions, the focus of the present study was on perceived racial microaggressions toward AA faculty and other faculty of color in the selected region. This population was highly selective, and as such, the number of potential participants was inherently small. Nationwide, about 5% of faculty are AA (SREB, 2012). Therefore, identifying participants for this study was challenging. The small sample size may have influenced the lack of statistical significance between the variables.

The study was limited to AA faculty and other faculty of color who worked in southeastern universities and colleges and who took the online survey. Participants from other regions of the United States may have afforded a broader sampling. The confinement of the study to one specific region of the United States made it possible to overlook possible variations in the assumed set of perceptions that comprised inherent racial microaggressions. Essentially, this is a broader version of the aforementioned limitation.

In addition to the small sample size, those who participated in the survey may have had a vested interest in furthering their knowledge of issues related to race and

ethnicity. Consequently, their level of awareness regarding issues related to race, such as racial microaggressions, may have been higher than that of their peers. This heightened awareness may have influenced how the participants responded to the instrument items, particularly the REMS, as this instrument includes 45 scales to measure the level of existence of racial and ethnic microaggressions. However, more studies are needed to determine whether this scale is sound.

Recommendations

This is the first study to focus on AA faculty and other faculty of color in southeastern colleges and universities as the targets of microaggressions. More studies on the experiences of AA faculty and faculty of color are needed to understand the issues present in higher education settings, which may, in turn, lead to educational leaders being able to better serve their faculty and students. Several areas and departments within institutions should be considered.

The first recommendation is for the current study to be duplicated with a larger sample. Supervisors from all institutional programs, as well as full-time, part-time, and adjunct faculty, should be included to increase the sample size. Specifically studying supervisors may offer a broader perspective regarding the dynamics in the supervisory relationship. Future studies could also include the use of a different measure of racial identity to produce one global score for racial identity. Using a global score for racial identity would reduce the number of variables in future studies and, with a smaller sample size, would yield more significant findings. Faculty at all levels of the professoriate and supervisors should be included in future studies to compare the groups for significant differences.

In addition to duplicating the study, future researchers should consider using alternate forms of methodology, such as face-to-face interviews and direct observations. Gabriel (2013) stated successfully working within an organization where there are diversity issues relates to whether managers understand the issues and are able to address these difficult topics directly. Further, Gabriel postulated being able to categorize conflicts within a workplace may help employees recognize effective ways to manage conflict and benefit the organization.

Future research should also include the use of focus groups, personal interviews, and other qualitative methods to identify the coping mechanisms used by AA faculty and faculty of color when facing racial microaggressions. Specifically, focus groups can be used to explore positive and negative coping mechanisms to determine what needs to be done to fully understand the perceptions and experiences of this population. This information will add breadth to the current data, offering information to future leaders that may be beneficial as they matriculate through their careers and life.

Finally, a need exists for future research on the intersection of hierarchical and identity-based microaggressions (Young et al., 2015). Torres and Taknint (2015) recommended future researchers examine the various aspects of stress responses as they relate to the experience of different types of ethnic microaggressions. Intervention strategies that pertain to building one's sense of ethnic identity and general self-efficacy can be an important practical implication in buffering unfair treatment in real time. According to Torres-Harding and Turner (2015), the current literature findings suggest individuals report immediate distress in response to these experiences. However, the

significance and long-term effect of this stressful response in racially diverse individuals requires attention in future research to eliminate these offenses completely.

Conclusion

Racial microaggressions have been found to be present in nearly every aspect of life for people of color. This study represents a first step toward identifying the influence of perceived racial microaggressions and job motivation and job satisfaction for AA faculty and faculty of color in southeastern universities. It is important to understand how microaggressions affect the dynamics of the various aspects of responses of AA faculty and faculty of color in relation to the experience of different types of ethnic microaggressions. Although the results of the study are informative, a number of areas still need to be explored further to determine other factors that affect AA faculty and faculty of color. I hope the findings of this study will have a significant effect on the field of management, and most importantly, on the lives of AA faculty and faculty of color.

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Appendix A: Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale

(Nadal, 2011)

Racial and Ethnic Microaggressions Scale (REMS)

Kevin L. Nadal, PhD

John Jay College of Criminal Justice- City University of New York

Instructions: Think about your experiences with race. Please read each item and think of how many times this event has happened to you in the **PAST SIX MONTHS**.

1 = none of the time
2 = a little bit of the time
3 = some of the time
4 = a good bit of the time
5 = most of the time
6 = all of the time

1. I was ignored at school or at work because of my race.
2. Someone's body language showed they were scared of me, because of my race.
3. Someone assumed that I spoke a language other than English.
4. I was told that I should not complain about race.
5. Someone assumed that I grew up in a particular neighborhood because of my race.
6. Someone avoided walking near me on the street because of my race.
7. Someone told me that she or he was colorblind.
8. Someone avoided sitting next to me in a public space (e.g., restaurants, movie theaters, subways, buses) because of my race.
9. Someone assumed that I would not be intelligent because of my race.
10. I was told that I complain about race too much.

11. I received substandard service in stores compared to customers of other racial groups.
12. I observed people of my race in prominent positions at my workplace or school.
13. Someone wanted to date me only because of my race.
14. I was told that people of all racial groups experience the same obstacles.
15. My opinion was overlooked in a group discussion because of my race.
16. Someone assumed that my work would be inferior to people of other racial groups.
17. Someone acted surprised at my scholastic or professional success because of my race.
18. I observed that people of my race were the CEOs of major corporations.
19. I observed people of my race portrayed positively on television.
20. Someone did not believe me when I told them I was born in the US.
21. Someone assumed that I would not be educated because of my race.
22. Someone told me that I was “articulate” after she/he assumed I wouldn’t be.
23. Someone told me that all people in my racial group are all the same.
24. I observed people of my race portrayed positively in magazines.
25. An employer or co-worker was unfriendly or unwelcoming toward me because of my race.
26. I was told that people of color do not experience racism anymore.
27. Someone told me that they “don’t see color.”

28. I read popular books or magazines in which a majority of contributions featured people from my racial group.
29. Someone asked me to teach them words in my “native language.”
30. Someone told me that they do not see race.
31. Someone clenched her/his purse or wallet upon seeing me because of my race.
32. Someone assumed that I would have a lower education because of my race.
33. Someone of a different racial group has stated that there is no difference between the two of us.
34. Someone assumed that I would physically hurt them because of my race.
35. Someone assumed that I ate foods associated with my race/culture every day.
36. Someone assumed that I held a lower paying job because of my race.
37. I observed people of my race portrayed positively in movies.
38. Someone assumed that I was poor because of my race.
39. Someone told me that people should not think about race anymore.
40. Someone avoided eye contact with me because of my race.
41. I observed that someone of my race is a government official in my state
42. Someone told me that all people in my racial group look alike.
43. Someone objectified one of my physical features because of my race.
44. An employer or co-worker treated me differently than White co-workers.
45. Someone assumed that I speak similar languages to other people in my race

Appendix B: The Job Diagnostic Survey

Job Diagnostic Survey

Section 1

This part of the survey asks you to describe your job, as objectively as you can. Please do *not* use this part of the survey to express whether you like or dislike your job. Questions about that will come later. Instead, try to make your descriptions as accurate and as objective as you possibly can. Select the number which is the most accurate description of your job on the scale provided under each question.

1. To what extent does your job require you to work closely with other people (either clients or people in related jobs in your own organization)?

   - 1: Very little; dealing with other people is not at all necessary in doing the job.
   - 2
   - 3
   - 4: Moderately; some dealing with others is necessary.
   - 5
   - 6
   - 7- Very much; dealing with other people is an absolutely essential and crucial part of doing the job.

2. How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?

   - 1: Very little; the job gives me almost no personal say about how and when the work is done.
   - 2
   - 3

- 4: Moderate autonomy; many things are standardized and not under my control, but I can make some decisions about the work.
- 5
- 6
- 7- Very much; the job give me almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when work is done.

3. To what extent does your job involve doing a whole and identifiable piece of work? That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is it only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or by automatic machines?
   - 1. My job is only a tiny part of the overall piece of work; the results of my activities cannot be seen in the final product or service.
   - 2
   - 3
   - 4: My job is a moderate-sized chunk of the overall piece of work; my own contribution can be seen in the final outcome.
   - 5
   - 6
   - 7- My job involves doing the whole piece of work, from start to finish; the results my activities are easily seen in the final product or service.

4. How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extend does the job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?

- 1: Very little; the job requires me to do the same routine things over and over again.
- 2
- 3
- 4: Moderate variety.
- 5
- 6
- 7- Very much; the job requires me to do many different things, using a number of different skills and talents.

5. In general how significant or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?
   - 1: Not very significant; the outcomes of my work are not likely to have important effects on other people.
   - 2
   - 3
   - 4: Moderately significant.
   - 5
   - 6
   - 7- Very much; the job is set up so that I get almost constant feedback as I work about how well I am doing.

Section 2

Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe a job. You are to indicate whether each statement is an accurate or an inaccurate description of your job. Once again, please try to be as objective as you can in deciding how accurately each statement describes your job; regardless of whether you like or dislike your job.

Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

How accurate is the statement in describing your job?

1	2	3	4	5	
Very Inaccurate	**Slightly**	**Uncertain Inaccurate**	**Mostly**	**Very Accurate**	**Accurate**

_____ 1. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.

_____ 2. The job requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.

_____ 3. The job is arranged so that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.

_____ 4. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.

_____ 5. The job is quite simple and repetitive.

_____ 6. The job can be done adequately by a person working alone; without talking or checking with other people.

_____ 7. The supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me any "feedback" about how well I am doing in my work.

_____ 8. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.

_____ 9. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.

_____10. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.

_____11. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.

_____12. The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.

_____13. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.

_____14. The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.

Section 3

Now please indicate how you personally feel about your job. Each statement below is something that a person might say about his or her job. You are to indicate your personal feelings about your job by marking how much you agree with each of the statements.

Write a number in the blank for each statement, based on this scale:

How much do you agree with the statement?

1	2	3	4	5
Disagree Strongly	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Agree Strongly**

_____ 1. It's hard, on this job, for me to care very much about whether or not the work gets done right.

_____ 2. My opinion of myself goes up when I do this job well.

_____ 3. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.

_____ 4. Most of the things I have to do on this job seem useless or trivial.

_____ 5. I usually know whether or not my work is satisfactory on this job.

_____ 6. I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well.

_____ 7. The work I do on this job is very meaningful to me.

_____ 8. I feel a very high degree of personal responsibility for the work I do on this job.

_____ 9. I frequently think of quitting this job.

_____10. I feel bad and unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly on this job.

_____11. I often have trouble figuring out whether I'm doing well or poorly on this job.

_____12. I feel I should personally take the credit or blame for the results of my work on this job.

_____13. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.

_____14. My own feelings generally are not affected much one way or the other by how well I do this job.

_____15. Whether or not this job gets done right is clearly my responsibility.

Section 4

Now please indicate how satisfied you are with each aspect of your job listed below. Once again write the appropriate number in the blank beside each statement.

How much do you agree with the statement?

1	2	3	4	5
Extremely Strongly	**Dissatisfied**	**Neutral**	**Satisfied**	**Extremely Satisfied**

_____ 1. The amount of job security I have.

_____ 2. The amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive.

_____ 3. The amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job.

_____ 4. The people I talk to and work with on my job.

_____ 5. The degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from my boss.

_____ 6. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing my job.

_____ 7. The chance to get to know other people while on the job.

_____ 8. The amount of support and guidance I receive from my supervisor.

_____ 9. The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this organization.

_____10. The amount of independent thought and action I can exercise in my job.

_____11. How secure things look for me in the future in this organization.

_____12. The chance to help other people while at work.

_____13. The amount of challenge in my job.

_____14. The overall quality of the supervision I receive in my work.

Section 5

Now please think of the other people in your organization who hold the same job you do. If no one has exactly the same job as you, think of the job which is most similar to yours. Please think of how accurately each of the statements describes the feelings of those people about the job. It is quite all right if your answers here are different from when you described your own reactions to the job. Often different people feel quite differently about the same job.

Once again, writ a number in the blank for each statement, based on this scale:

How much do you agree with the statement?

1	2	3	4	5
Disagree Strongly	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Agree Strongly**

_____ 1. Most people on this job feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when they do the job well.

_____ 2. Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job.

_____ 3. Most people on this job feel that the work is useless or trivial.

_____ 4. Most people on this job feel a great deal of personal responsibility for the work they do.

_____ 5. Most people on this job have a pretty good idea of how well they are performing their work.

_____ 6. Most people on this job find the work very meaningful.

_____ 7. Most people on this job feel that whether or not the job gets done right is clearly their own responsibility.

_____ 8. People on this job often think of quitting.

_____ 9. Most people on this job feel bad or unhappy when they find that they have performed the work poorly.

_____10. Most people on this job have trouble figuring out whether they are doing a good or a bad job.