

MEASURING THE IVORY TOWER: CAREER SATISFACTION
AMONG FACULTY OF COLOR

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MEASURING THE IVORY TOWER: CAREER SATISFACTION
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As the copyright holder of this work I, Kenyatta Y. Dawson, authorize duplication of this work, in whole or in part, for educational or scholarly purposes only.

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, Joshua E. Goodson.
He has shown me that through hard work, perseverance, and love –
all things are possible.

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ABSTRACT

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Factors that influence recruitment and retention of faculty of color are slowly being investigated as universities observe the increase of diversity within its student population. In spite of this, limited empirical evidence illustrates career satisfaction rates of faculty of color, explicitly rates of dissatisfaction that may lead to abandonment in a career of higher education. The purpose of this study was to investigate career satisfaction among faculty of color that embraces not only compositional diversity, but advocates for meaningful discourses in the creation of a diverse campus climate facilitated through the recruitment and retention of faculty of color.

Respondents (n=610) consisted of randomly selected tenured and tenure-track faculty from sixteen institutions of higher education in the state of Texas. Exploratory

factor analysis (EFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to examine the factors and relationships between career satisfaction and faculty of color. Two surveys were used in this study: a) the Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1994), and b) the Faculty of Color Themed Inventory (FOCTI), which was created by the researcher. The three-components (factors) found using EFA were labeled Individual Issues, Systemic Issues, and Support Systems by the researcher. Additionally, the researcher correlated the FOCTI to the FOCTI, JSS to the JSS, and lastly the FOCTI to the JSS. Numerical values represented correlations above .5 or below -.5 (moderately correlated) and statistical significance was set at the .05 level. The highest correlation was found at the .760 level between Individual and Systemic Issues (FOCTI). Lastly, the data analysis of EFA and SEM allowed for an initial explanation of the interactions among the latent and observed variables. The five observed variables found to affect career satisfaction among faculty of color were gender, identifying as a person of color, identifying if born in the U.S., tenure status, and overall job satisfaction.

Findings indicate that analyzing career satisfaction across disciplines can aid university departments, chairs, administrators, and deans to identify factors that contribute to the recruitment and retention of faculty of color. Thus, it is important for higher education to make a concentrated effort to change the practice, policies, and procedures of the academy to welcome and support the entire campus community.

Keywords: career satisfaction, culture, cultural competency, ethnicity, faculty of color, and race.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

As universities begin to document the changing demographics reflecting more minority students entering postsecondary institutions, scholars have identified the need for concentrated efforts to document the career satisfaction among faculty of color to reflect the ethnically and racially diverse student population (Banks, 2001; Smith, Turner, Osei-Kofi, & Richards, 2004; Tuitt, Hanna, Martinez, Salazar, & Griffin, 2009). This has commonly been done with enriching life stories and experiences through qualitative research. Furthermore, much of the current research highlights increasing campus diversity through compositional diversity. Compositional diversity is defined as the numerical representation of gender, race, and ethnic groups on university campuses (Brown, 2004). The term compositional diversity has, however, also been used by higher education as a broader term for promoting a diverse campus community by highlighting cultural programs and events, underrepresented student scholars and scholarships, and student/faculty demographics (Brown, 2004; Stanley, 2006). What is missing from the broader definition of compositional diversity is higher education's failure of decreasing contextual educational inequities, with special relevance to faculty of color (Brayboy, 2003). The gap between compositional diversity and a campus

climate embracing diversity is the inclusion of the fundamental aspects of being a person of color – the culture, politics, aesthetics, and world views. Even as mission statements, institutional policies, and programs materialize to acknowledge diversity in teaching and learning, faculty of color still remain underrepresented in academia (Stanley, 2006; Turner, 2003). In addition to the lack of representation in higher education, faculty of color are underserved – showing an insufficiency of resources to aid in successful recruitment and retention.

Since the 2003 Supreme Court ruling in *Grutter v. Bollinger* in which affirmative action admissions were upheld by the United States Supreme Court, institutions have utilized greater resources to create diverse learning environments (Sturm, 2006). With legislative support, universities began to strategically institute policies proclaiming their interests in creating a more diverse workforce with special emphasis on citizenry and preparing students for a global marketplace (Sturm, 2006). The responsiveness and commitment to campus diversity has resulted in new positions, departments, and/or centers devoted to promote institutional diversity efforts (Brown, 2004; Sturm, 2006). Regarding faculty of color, numerous strategies have been employed to respond to the low levels of compositional diversity in academic pipelines (Smith, Turner, Osei-Kofi, & Richards, 2004). However, little research has actually been conducted to quantify the levels of career satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction among faculty of color.

Three recent studies that researched faculty of color, primarily the African American faculty population, quantitatively addressed career satisfaction (Berrian, 2006; Holmes, 2006; McNeal, 2003). McNeal (2003) conducted a study that found a positive relationship between career satisfaction and productivity among African American

women nursing faculty. McNeal (2003) developed a two-part questionnaire made up of five-twelve subscales for the study that contained variables regarding: salary, tenure, productivity, information, socialization, environment, strategy, mission, and leadership. Berrian (2006) studied career satisfaction among African American and White faculty members at Predominantly White Institutions (PWIs) and Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs). Using a MANOVA method of quantitative analysis, she found that White faculty members had higher levels of career satisfaction than their African American counterparts. Instruments for this study included the Job Descriptive Index, used to measure job satisfaction, and the Department Support Scale, a 22 item scale that was created by Berrian (2006). Lastly, Holmes (2006) utilized a specific career satisfaction survey used at the institution of study, the Texas A&M Faculty Work-Life Satisfaction Survey. Within this survey, 39 items were used to measure faculty work-life satisfaction. Two additional scales were used to measure retention and self esteem. Using ANOVA, Holmes found that: (a) tenured faculty members reported higher levels of work-life satisfaction; and (b) those who reported higher levels of career satisfaction were more likely to be satisfied in arenas outside of their careers (self-esteem). Quantifying the experiences faculty of color encounter will add to a greater understanding of the development of multicultural learning communities on campuses alongside how the campus climate, recruitment, retention, and roles faculty of color acquire in higher education is linked towards career satisfaction (Wasson & Jackson, 2004).

Significance of Study

The findings gleaned from this study will contribute to the body of literature specific to faculty of color. Furthermore, the results of this study are expected to add to the existing professional development literature regarding how a concentrated effort aimed at faculty, primarily faculty of color, will aid in building a supportive and collegial community that values sustaining relationships that emphasizes worth, security, inclusion, and cultural competency for all those involved in enriching university life.

Statement of the Problem

Although faculty of color play a critical role in the university community, little research has been conducted documenting the levels of career satisfaction among faculty of color on university campuses (Camblin & Steger, 2000; Cox, 2004; Lowenstein, 2009; Ouellett, 2004; Recasner, 2009; Sciame-Giesecke, Roden, & Parkison, 2009).

Purpose of the Study

The present study aimed to examine career satisfaction among faculty of color. The specific aims of this research included: (a) to measure career satisfaction among faculty of color on the individual, departmental, and university levels; (b) to determine whether faculty members are aware of selected faculty of color issues in higher education; and (c) to determine if faculty member's race/ethnicity, sex, faculty rank, tenure status, years in faculty position, academic discipline, and salary affect career satisfaction.

Analytical Strategy

To gain a greater understanding of the factors (survey items) that have strong associations with career satisfaction, an exploratory factor analysis served as the analytic

tool for this study. The program used to analyze the data collected was the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are the factors affecting faculty of color's career satisfaction?
2. What is the relationship between the Faculty of Color Themed Inventory (FOCTI) and Job Satisfaction (Spector, 1997) for participating faculty members?
3. How is this relationship moderated by the following variables: factors affecting career satisfaction among faculty of color; race/ethnicity; sex; faculty rank; tenure status; years in faculty position; academic discipline; salary, and; job satisfaction?

Theoretical Viewpoint: Critical Race Theory

Critical race theory (CRT) was used as the theoretical framework to challenge dominant paradigms and explore ways of achieving and sustaining faculty diversity in higher education (Capper, 1998; Noddings, 2007). CRT is a framework that was constructed to acknowledge race and its intersections with racism as a first step to fight the daily oppressions of racial injustice. Within the field of education, its aim is to heighten awareness about racism and educational inequity as well as other forms of discrimination towards gender, class, and sexual orientation. It was developed in the 1970s among legal scholars such as Derrick Bell, Alan Freeman, Kimberley Crenshaw, and Richard Delgado (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Ladson-Billings & Donnor, 2007). This movement embraces the critique of ethnicity and color blindness, insisting that race (i.e. phenotypes) is, at times, immeasurable and indefinable due to the privilege of normative mainstream culture. Although race and ethnicity are placed in similar categories, critical race theory places ethnicity along with numerous social constructs in

comparison to the dominant culture (i.e. whiteness, privilege, power). There are at least five themes within the pedagogy of CRT in education:

1. CRT begins with the perspective that race and racism is a permanent and pervasive part of the socioeconomic structure. In education, CRT focuses how race relates to other types of subordination (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001).
2. CRT challenges traditional claims of the educational system such as objectivity, color-blindness, race neutrality, and equal opportunity (Delgado, 1995).
Furthermore, CRT argues that these traditional claims hide acts of self-interests, power, and privilege of dominant groups in U.S. society (Solórzano, 1997).
3. CRT acts to challenge social injustice while empowering groups that have been discriminated against (Solórzano, 1997).
4. CRT distinguishes the voices from People of Color and recognizes its strength in creating rich methods of data collection including: storytelling, genograms, biographies, scenarios, chronicles, and narratives (Solórzano and Delgado Bernal, 2001).
5. CRT is interdisciplinary. It draws its strength from historical and mainstream analysis by asking: a) What do we do? (addressing our/others actions); b) Why do we do it? (challenging our/others actions), and; c) How do we do it? (understanding experiences of People of Color) (Yosso, Villalpando, Delgado Bernal, & Solórzano, 2001).

Most Americans believe that society is fair and just with the legal system framing antidiscrimination law (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). However, critical race theorists assert that racism is deeply embedded in everyday life and institutions, thus becoming

institutionalized and undetected. If racism is indeed everywhere, this makes it invisible and difficult to confront. Social stereotypes have changed accordingly to facilitate society's obtaining what it wanted from the group in question (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001; Ladson-Billings & Donnor, 2007).

There are a number of strategies that can be employed to respond to the poor representation and retention rates of faculty of color in education and academia. Although isolated efforts of employing and engaging faculty of color have been established, methods towards retention seem to disregard the fact that systemic and social realities privilege some, while simultaneously disadvantaging others (Cox, 2001; Noddings, 2007; Turner, 2003). Contextually, CRT challenges the educational practice of monocultural methods and confronts "the traditional claims of the educational system and its institutions to objectivity, meritocracy, color and gender blindness, race and gender neutrality, and equal opportunity" (Solórzano, 1998, p. 122). Rather than focusing on the issue of recruitment and retention through normative paradigms, an innovative framework consisting of confronting the dominant discourse of educational policy and practice is needed (Capper, 1998; Cox, 2001; Noddings, 2007; Van Vught, 2008).

Critical race theorists have experimented with new modes of presenting their ideas such as counter storytelling that aims to expose the many myths and generalizations that enable people to be comfortable in a system in which only some share in the benefits and privileges. Its intent is to bring about conversation and change America's social problem that emphasizes central importance on power, economics, and narratives that are oppressive (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). A community approach based on the needs of different groups within the larger system allows higher education to reconceptualize

narrowly defined categories towards a unique community based upon a democratic structure built on “self-governance, freedom and an engaged citizenry” (McKnight & Block, 2010, p. 109). Therefore, through the lens of critical race theory, efforts to build a diverse campus climate based on creating an abundant community, that embodies diversity through valuing the society as a whole, can lead to an anticipatory effect of increasing career satisfaction among faculty of color (Capper, 1998; McKnight & Block, 2010; Prins & Drayton, 2010; Wiessner, Sheared, Lari, Kucharczky, & Flowers, 2010).

Key Terms

Career satisfaction. How content one is with their career/job position (Berrian, 2006; Spector, 1997).

Culture. Similar to ethnicity, will be defined as social behavior patterns, beliefs, and thought that is attributed to an individual passed on from generation to generation (Root, 1996).

Cultural competency. An evolving set of congruent behaviors, attitudes, and policies that simultaneously occurs and enables a system, agency, or professionals to work effectively in cross-cultural situations (Cross, Bazron, Dennis, & Isaacs, 1989; National Center for Cultural Competence, 1998).

Ethnicity. Cultural traits that are passed down from generation to generation. These cultural traits may include religion, language, humor, clothing, heritage, folklore, and shared ancestry along with social experiences (Root, 1996).

Faculty of color. For the purposes of this study, faculty members who self-identify as African-American or Black, Asian/Desi/Pacific Islander, Hispanic/ Latino(a), Native American, or other.

Race. A social construct produced by a dominant group in society to power over (authority) groups defined by biology as inferior.

Summary

Chapter Two provides a review of literature in which presents pertinent information regarding issues faculty of color undergo. The organization and sequence of headings follows themes found when reviewing literature. It starts with a historical overview of education in underserved communities and continues with specific factors that impact career satisfaction among faculty of color. The goal of this dissertation was to identify methods of transforming institutional practices towards program outcomes that yield increased structural and contextual diversity initiatives that enhance career satisfaction of faculty of color through quantitative measurements (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Brown, 2004; Wiessner et al., 2010; Van Vught, 2008).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter provides a review of the literature on the contextual implications of experiences and the physical and psychological environments faculty of color encounter in higher education. Although there is a small amount of significant qualitative research (i.e. interviews) relative to understanding the experiences of faculty of color, especially among African American faculty members, there is a lack of information addressing the broader context of how quantifiable experiences and the environment associate to career satisfaction (Antonio, 2002; Brown, 2004; Diggs, Garrison-Wade, Estrada, & Galindo, 2009; Kezar & Sam, 2010; Stanley, 2006). The chapter begins with a historical overview of education in underserved communities followed by a discussion regarding faculty diversity in higher education. The broader issues faculty of color experience are broken down into three categorical levels: individual, departmental, and university. These levels have been identified through the review of literature found pertaining to faculty of color and career satisfaction. Lastly, this chapter closes with an exploration of how faculty of color have created strategies for success towards retaining a career in higher education.

History of Education in Underserved Communities

Historically it has been common practice for communities of color to provide for themselves within their communities and education with intentionality due to inequities

and lack of shared resources (Stubblefield & Keane, 1994). The history of underserved communities in terms of education in the United States is centered on the African American experience. Prior to the Civil War, laws were put into place excluding slaves from learning basic skills such as writing and literacy as a defensive measure throughout the South (Stubblefield & Keane, 1994). As a result, not more than 10% of the African American population in the United States could read during the time of the Emancipation Proclamation (Ford, Harris, Tyson, & Trotman, 2002; Goldstone, 2006; Stubblefield & Keane, 1994). For the African American population, community education derived from churches where education was provided through leaders within the Black community and educators (missionaries) from northern-type common schools (Stubblefield & Keane, 1994). These infrastructures within communities aided both children and adults, imparting self-reliance through the support of elementary, adult education, and providing both educational and vocational programs that incorporated organizational development. An example of community owned organizational development includes the formation of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) in 1909 (Goldstone, 2006; Stubblefield & Keane, 1994).

For other underserved populations (such as Asian Americans, Hispanics, and Native Americans) exclusion acts, land acts, education taxes, and immigrant laws enforced educational inequities shared by African American communities (Goldstone, 2006; Stubblefield & Keane, 1994). White opposition to communities of color was formidable, as evidenced by school burnings, lynchings, and physical aggression. Often times White philanthropists who had come from Northern areas of the United States to teach underserved populations were harassed through aggressive tactics (Stubblefield &

Keane, 1994). During these years of reconstruction, African Americans and underserved populations alike were taught to be self-reliant and work towards equal rights by assimilating into mainstream culture (Stubblefield & Keane, 1994).

Gradually public schools, delegated through communities, allocated neglected facilities to serve as spaces for learning for underserved populations (Goldstone, 2006). Moreover, Northern missionary efforts lead to the establishments of colleges for freedmen in large parts of the country (Goldstone, 2006). Through various missionary, philanthropy, freemen's societies, and congressional efforts, colleges were developed to aid African American adult learners with literacy and vocational training (Stubblefield & Keane, 1994). However, insufficient financial support, inept administration, and politics lead to the demise of many higher educational facilities geared towards educating African Americans and underserved populations (Goldstone, 2006). Additionally, many federal government entities took a passive role in providing education that was "separate but equal" (Ford et al., 2002; Goldstone, 2006; Stubblefield & Keane, 1994).

In February 1951, Oliver Brown filed suit against the Topeka Board of Education on behalf of his nine-year-old daughter, Linda. Brown's suit focused on two central tenets. Brown's first tenant was that segregated schools posed an immediate threat to his daughter, who had to cross railroad tracks and a main industrial street to catch the school bus. Secondly, Brown's suit focused on "the humiliating fact of segregation." The suit eventually reached the Supreme Court, and on May 17, 1954, the Court held unanimously that separate educational facilities were inherently unequal. Chief Justice Earl Warren wrote in the *Brown v. Topeka Board of Education* that, "To keep black children segregated solely on the basis of race generates a feeling of

inferiority as to their status in the community that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone.” (Goldstone, 2006, p.36). The outcome of *Brown v. Topeka Board of Education* lead to racial integration of public schools including public colleges and universities. Gradually with the intentions of desegregation and re-allocation of ideals and resources, the overall numbers of minority students in higher education institutions across the nation has steadily increased as shown in higher educational demographics dating back to 1954 (Renn & Lunceford, 2004).

Faculty Diversity in Higher Education

Research suggests that within higher education, efforts to diversify faculty has been sluggish, especially when comparing efforts to diversify student populations (Brown, 2004; Turner, 2003). Even with the increase of doctoral degrees awarded to potential faculty of color within the past three decades, particularly in the field of education, universities and doctoral students continue to make very little progress towards racial parity on faculty positions (Lee, 2002). In 2007, White faculty members held 77% of the professoriate, while African American, Latino/a, Asian/Asian American, and North American Indian faculty members totaled 18.3% in four-year public institutions (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2010). This trend was not dissimilar to other degree granting institutions (i.e. private four-year and public two-year institutions). Furthermore, a trend most notable at four-year institutions showed proportionally low numbers of tenured faculty of color in academia when compared to White faculty members (NCES, 2010).

Despite percentages indicating a pessimistic outlook of maintaining a career in academia, Antonio (2002) found that faculty of color were 75% more likely than White

counterparts to choose a career in higher education due to the professorate's ability to effect change in society. Moreover, faculty of color reported high interests in experiential instruction, exploratory research, and developing theoretical perspectives and epistemologies that included community engagement (Antonio, 2002; Delgado Bernal & Villalpando, 2002). When entering the world of academia, faculty of color reported varying degrees of career satisfaction, highest when developing mentoring relationships with underrepresented students (Patton & Harper, 2003). However, due to higher education's historical legacy of exclusion, marginalization, isolation, lack of faculty mentorship and networks, low salaries, and poor representation among higher education's hierarchies (e.g. department chairs, deans, and administrators), faculty of color often relinquish their careers in postsecondary institutions (Brown, 2004; Delgado Bernal & Villalpando, 2002; Pinar, Reynolds, Slattery, & Taubma, 1995; Stubblefield & Keane, 1994). Additional factors that impede career satisfaction include: tokenism; occupational stress (e.g. formidable responsibilities and time constraints); tenure and promotion biases; and devaluation of "minority" (non-traditional) research (Stanley, 2006). Furthermore, faculty of color reported lower rates of work-life satisfaction due to marginalization among family and community members because of their connection to institutions that systemically devalue communities of color (Stanley, 2006).

There seem to be disconnections between actual educational practices and higher education's eagerness to create a heterogeneous framework that incorporates diversity (Bartell, 2003). In spite of this, researchers have found that the topic of diversity is usually presented as "add-on [...] knowledge" (Recasner, 2009, p. 20) when focusing on faculty recruiting, instituting programming, professional development, and work-life

improvements through human resources. As a result, the fight for inclusion requires further attention in order to combine diversity, community engagement, and increased career satisfaction in postsecondary education (Bartell, 2003; Recasner, 2009).

Institutional Fit

Institutional fit, a concept of work-life balance where an individuals' beliefs, values, and needs best fit their employment, has been a growing concern for many underrepresented faculty, staff, and students due to the increased percentages of diversification of both faculty and student populations in higher education (Banks, 2001; Hooker & Johnson, 2011). Deficit thinking has been applied towards career satisfaction and retention rates due to the lack of institutional support reported by both faculty of color and underrepresented students. This could be due to higher education being a poor fit for persons of color because of the lack of compositional diversity and lower rates of job satisfaction shown through low faculty of color retention rates (Hooker & Johnson, 2011; McCray, 2011; Patitu & Hinton, 2003).

The most recent Minorities in Higher Education Annual Status Report (2000) reported that only 13.8% of the professoriate was comprised of underrepresented faculty members (i.e. African American, Latino/as, Asian/Asian American, and North American Indians) noting that the proportion faculty of color at the professor and senior administrator levels was dismal. Despite numerous accounts of systematic engagement, thematic hires, and implementation of affirmative action policies, in 2005 a similar statement offered by the Annual Status Report of the American Council on Education (ACE) presented that 14% of postsecondary positions were held by faculty of color, indicating statistically insignificant increases in minority faculty hires (Stanley, 2006).

Similarly, the Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac (2007) stated that only 4% of professors and associate professors in the United States were African American. And as previously noted, the NCES (2010) stated that African American, Latino/a, Asian/Asian American, and North American Indian faculty members totaled 18.3% in four-year public institutions. This alarming number constitutes both Predominantly White Institutions (PWI's) (e.g. public, private, and community colleges) and Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU's) - where 58% of full-time faculty are faculty of color (primarily African American) and where 75% of African Americans earn their doctoral degrees (Jackson, 2002; Johnson, 2001). HBCU's are important to note in regards to increased career satisfaction rates due to the demystification of the tenure process and a diverse campus climate (Johnson, 2001). However, HBCU's are not without challenges. Faculty at HBCU's report having higher teaching, research, and overall work loads while balancing low salary and constant institutional criticisms regarding credibility (Jackson, 2002; Johnson, 2001).

The underrepresentation of faculty of color indicates continuing challenges in recruitment, retention, lack of institutional support, and barriers that dissuade people of color to pursue a career in higher education (Brown, 2004; Smith, Turner, Osei-Kofi, & Richards, 2004; Stanley, 2006; Turner, 2003). Consequently, once a faculty position is obtained, underrepresented faculty members report greater costs than benefits in the quality of work-life, career satisfaction, and morale (Brown, 2004; Stanley, 2006; Turner, 2003).

Universal Issues Effecting Career Satisfaction Among Faculty of Color

Universal obstacles, such as the lack of diversity and equity, have been topics of

discussion among faculty of color for over 30 years (Chen & Hune, 2011). Qualitative research literature has provided scholarship behind the explanations and verbalizations of oppression, stereotypes, and struggles within the academic pipeline. Here a respondent in Stanley's (2006) research explains their struggles as being a faculty member of color:

Unlike passing comments, misconceptions were the hardest obstacles to overcome because they put me at an uneven playing field. In every aspect of my career, I had to start by working harder to gain the respect and trust of my colleagues, students, patients, and staff. It seems that I am seen first as minority and second as a dentist, teacher, and researcher. My merits were not the only factor being judged. Over time, trust has been gained, relations have been built, and opportunities have been opened. However, all this required me first overcoming the barrier that existed based on my status as a unique minority (Stanley, 2006, p. 715).

The quote above, taken from Stanley (2006), is just one example of how navigating unjust barriers affect faculty of color. In the quote Jordan, a pseudonym, describes how the social construction of race (e.g. phenotype) manifests into marginalization. Life stories and narrations that describe intended and unintended barriers towards faculty of color, such as the one, are evident throughout much of the qualitative research in literature as of date (Capper, 1998; Chan, 2005; Diggs et al., 2009; Griffin, Pifer, Humphrey, & Hazelwood, 2011; Jean-Marie & Brooks, 2011; Price, Gozu, Kern, Powe, Wand, Golden, & Cooper, 2005; Stanley, 2006). Through the survey of literature, four themes are represented that were universal to faculty of color: issues regarding career satisfaction on the individual and departmental levels; organizational

climate and culture; challenges in recruitment and retention; and the need for faculty professional development.

Individual level

Foreign-born status. As in race, geographical location and origin allots for advantages and disadvantages to transpire into the workplace. Faculty of color who ascribe to being foreign born not only describe isolation but limited networking opportunities among their colleagues due to differences in culture, beliefs and values, and communication barriers due to language (Price et al., 2005). One respondent in Stanley's (2006) study describes cultural and communication differences and how it impacted their relationships with colleagues:

Collegiality is seen as necessary for faculty evaluations, and collegiality means the particular American personality type that is valued. Shyness and reserve are not appreciated, instead one has to be extroverted, outgoing, and friendly with an open and forthcoming style of communicating even with strangers. . . . If I do not talk or volunteer some general comments and observations at a faculty gathering I am seen as not very friendly or interested in participating. I am more familiar with Indian small talk and English banter, and therefore, I am sometimes at a loss when there are pressures to be collegial on campus with my American colleagues (Stanley, 2006, p. 715).

Due to communication and cultural barriers, faculty who identify with foreign-born status (i.e. not of United States citizenship) often experience disadvantages from students and peers alike with challenges to their authority (i.e. classroom and departmental), research interests/scholarship, and communication. Consequently,

individuals of foreign status are often left feeling ignored and given less responsibility and leadership through their home department (Griffin et al., 2011; Kezar & Sam, 2010; Price et al., 2005; Stanley, 2006).

Racism and discrimination. Issues regarding race and racism, as in the quote above from Diggs et al., (2009), present a topic of significant importance across the spectrum of literature pertaining to faculty of color and ones professional identity (Antonio, 2002; Diggs et al., 2009; Jackson, 2002; Tuitt, Hanna, Martinez, Salazar, & Griffin, 2009; Turner, 2003). This finding was not a new revelation due to the historical and socioeconomical state of how race is socially constructed in higher education as well as in the United States of America (Stubblefield & Keane, 1994). Here a respondent from Diggs et al., (2009) further responds to the issue of professional identity:

But if you don't sit down here and reflect upon your identity, then you will miss out on where you want to go with your writing. And everything should be connected to your identity; so the committees that you serve on, the service that you do, all that should go into the identity you are trying to establish for yourself or how you see yourself. Right now, my identity is changing. All of the assimilation just takes away from who I am, my identity. So I need to sit down and reflect. "Who Am I? What is my identity in this field?" (Diggs et al., 2009, p. 321).

Like racism, discrimination is visible in arenas of "teaching, research, service, and [the] overall experiences with the campus community" (Goldstone, 2006; Stanley, 2006, p. 705). One respondent stated that she was in "professional hell," a statement defined by

blatant racism, discriminatory microaggressions (i.e. automatic unconscious attitudes and stereotypes), hatred, and backbiting (McCray, 2011, p. 110).

Responses to racism can often lead to “schizophrenic” reactions, where both self-imposed discrimination and departmental racism are seen as both supportive and hurtful (Griffin et al., 2011, p. 511). Johnsrud and DesJarlais (1994) defined self-imposed and institutional racism as personal racism and structural racism, respectively. Structural racism regards a systems info-structure built upon a set of rules that privileges some while blocking others from succeeding through policies and unwritten rules. Personal racism was defined as racism and/or discrimination on an individual level. Throughout the literature, faculty of color reported both structural and personal racism through: (a) *tokenism*, being the only faculty of color in their department; (b) *code switching*, a process of adapting (assimilating and acculturating) to community and institutionalized beliefs, values, rites and rituals; and (c) being in the spotlight as *diversity experts*, an act of discrimination due to being treated (or regarded) as an expert simply because of ones race (phenotype); however, this position provides teaching, service, and outreach that may increase career satisfaction among faculty of color (Akroyd, Bracken, & Chambers, 2011; Hold, Mahowald, & DeVore, 2002; Griffin et al., 2011). Additionally, according to critical theory, women and faculty of color pose as both internal and external threats to white male privilege, giving them less proportion of employment in higher education (Akroyd, Bracken, & Chambers, 2011). For some faculty of color, the fatigue carried with racism and discrimination is enough to cause physical illness, loss of sleep, self-imposed marginalization, and in extreme cases abandonment of a career in higher education (McCray, 2011).

While safe spaces such as mentorship, ethnic organizations and departments, service to hiring committees to aid with compositional diversity, and service to off-campus communities may provide in solace, there is an increase in literature that advocates for universities to institute policies that annihilate issues of racism and discrimination where they permeate, both visible and hidden (Akroyd, Bracken, & Chambers, 2011).

Marginalization and isolation. In a profession where autonomy, along with collaboration, is a method of performing day-to-day activities (i.e. teaching and research) many faculty of color report desiring a home place, a physical space where personal and professional validation is met with social connections (Griffin et al., 2011; Hooker & Johnson, 2011; Stanley, 2006). In Griffin et al., (2011) faculty of color stated that issues with racism, discrimination, and marginalization often lead to isolation in the form of “absenteeism, psychological withdrawal, and lack of involvement” with the university (p. 497). In the same study, a respondent describes her need for a home space along with academic freedom:

I am still one of remarkably few black women in our department. I think we have two—in the largest department on campus, which is absurd. . . . The numbers are insane. . . . There are so few of us [women and faculty of color] on campus, you feel a certain degree of marginalization and not being a part of the networks (p. 510).

One’s academic identity, professional identity, is then called into question with regards to the unintended barriers placed on faculty of color navigating the tenure process. Laden and Hagedorn (2000) compares the faculty of color experience to the two

faced Greek God, Janus. The smiling face represents happy experiences through inclusionary practices, often through like-minded scholastic research among peers and mentorship. The sad face represents the struggles faculty of color experience through exclusionary practices such as tokenism, students and colleagues discrediting research interests, credentials and qualifications, and in general – the barriers of moving through the academic pipeline. As this duality of academic identity exists, faculty of color are demanded to juggle unbalanced workloads, personal and institutional demands regarding teaching, research, and service while managing personal and structural racism, discrimination, marginalization, and isolation (Dewey & Duff, 2009; Stanley, 2006).

Gender. Implications of diversifying faculty is of growing concern as more women enter the professoriate. At the university level, the underrepresentation of women faculty members, especially among faculty of color, are given special attention as they face covert and overt racism, sexism, ageism, xenophobia, and homophobia (Griffin et al., 2011; McCray, 2011; Stanley, 2006). Sexism is often supported and deeply rooted in the male dominated, or machismo, environment higher education encompass (Griffin et al., 2011). The exclusionary practices of the “old boys club” only acts to sustain the status quo of male dominance and increases levels of discrimination across many areas of the university in such areas like teaching, research, service, and experiences throughout the campus community (Jean-Marie & Brooks, 2011).

Women of color face additional discrimination through the double bind syndrome (i.e. racism and sexism), primarily in PWIs, in which the work-life imbalance and sacrifices for family and other nonacademic commitments create (un)intended barriers in career satisfaction and navigating the tenure process successfully (Akroyd, Bracken, &

Chambers, 2011; Diggs et al., 2009; Griffi et al., 2011; Kezar & Sam, 2010; Jean-Marie & Brooks, 2011; Stanley, 2006). One interviewee in Stanley's (2006) research describes the isolation, ageism, and the double bind syndrome that exists within her home department:

At the time I joined the college, I was the only African American woman in the department of over forty colleagues. . . . The majority of the faculty had offices on the eighteenth floor. My office was on the nineteenth floor. It was also located down a little alcove off the main hallway. Many students—and some faculty—had difficulty finding me. It was tiny. It was dark. It had no windows. . . . I was one of four women, one of two African Americans. The other women had straight long hair; I wore my hair in a short, natural style. I was twenty-eight and my colleagues were primarily in their forties and older. I did not wear a suit, preferring to wear dress pants and a sweater or blouse. I was different. I did not fit the mold. Not fitting that mold meant that peers treated me differently. I wasn't like the others. I was "Other." (Stanley, 2006, p. 715).

Women who identify as faculty of color are encouraged to create networks with alike individuals in gender, academic field, and in some formats (formal mentoring), supportive networks (e.g. mentorship) that are of the same ethnicity (Akroyd, Bracken, & Chambers, 2011; Jean-Marie & Brooks, 2011). These mentoring networks are created on both the informal and formal level to enhance socialization and retention. Mentoring plays an important role in all career pipeline tracks in that the assimilation and acculturation that occurs through collegial support heightens the levels of emotional, cultural, and social adjustments junior faculty members experience (Akroyd, Bracken, &

Chambers, 2011; Jean-Marie & Brooks, 2011; Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004; Patton & Harper, 2003; Savage, Karp, & Logue, 2004; Tillman, 2001).

Departmental level

Teaching and advising. Faculty of color have reported that both teaching and service increase career satisfaction in higher education (Stanley, 2006; Tuitt et al., 2009). Many faculty of color have stated that teaching has become a method of social activism where reaching out to students, primarily students of color, aids in the progression of recruitment, increasing retention, and graduation rates of underserved and underrepresented students (Dawson, 2010). Furthermore, this method of social justice towards students supports the facilitation of mentorship and positive coping mechanisms between student and faculty member in a system that upkeeps its status quo. Often times, faculty of color become unofficial representatives of underserved students through advising, support, and guidance (Dawson, 2010; Tuitt et al., 2009). Although the rapport between student, faculty of color, and teaching have been primarily reported to be positive coping strategies that aid in retention for both populations, it has also been stated that teaching can add stress to faculty of color (Dawson, 2010; Tuitt et al., 2009).

Here Janus (the two faced Greek God) appears again where the smile represents the rewards of teaching and building relationships. The frown represents student hostility towards faculty of color. Discriminatory actions towards faculty of color have been increasingly documented throughout scholarly literature (Diggs et al., 2009; Smallwood, 2007). Hostile actions from students towards faculty of color have chiefly been through actions of challenging authority, where faculty of color are seen as the authority. “Proving oneself” through the continuous questioning of abilities and authority has been

an acting component of the constant struggle faculty of color experience in both arenas of teaching and scholarship (Diggs et al., 2009). In the teaching realm, hostile actions have made media headlines in recent years by showcasing racism, stereotyping, to even hangman's nooses being tied on the doors of faculty of color (Smallwood, 2007). Furthermore, faculty of color, primarily African American faculty, can often be overwhelmingly engaged with unassigned student outreach that it is often to the detriment of completing research that is required for tenure (Dawson, 2010; Tuitt et al., 2009).

Service. As in teaching, civic engagement and service to the university have served as coping mechanisms and sources of networking for faculty of color. For some, positive associations regarding service towards the university comes through service to students, committee work, and serving off-campus communities (Dawson, 2010). Perhaps acting as *diversity experts*, especially regarding race-related issues, all three methods of service aid in representing and providing voice for not only the faculty of color who are involved, but for those voices that may not be heard. For example, two respondents in Griffin et al., (2011) describes their experiences of choosing to serve on a hiring committee:

One of the reasons I felt compelled to stay on [a specific Oceanside committee] was to be kind of a presence for faculty of color . . . remarkable things could get said sometimes that I found intolerant. And if you're not there to kind of catch them, things just go unchallenged. . . . It's necessary for somebody to kind of be there watching what goes on. [...] I was there and they couldn't be so blatant and discriminate (p. 515).

As a function of service, faculty of color combat structural racism through establishing relationships and acting as change agents by addressing underrepresentation and discriminatory practices. Many faculty of color view service as an obligation to act as a resource for students, future academics, and creating a diverse campus climate (Chan, 2005; Delgado Bernal & Villalpando, 2002; Mayhew & Grunwald, 2006; Park & Denson, 2009). However, much like teaching, service can contribute to time taken away from research and other pre-tenure responsibilities (Dawson, 2010; Diggs et al., 2009; Griffin et al., 2011). However, as a dynamic coping mechanism, service, a measurable pre-tenure responsibility, has reaped more rewards than punishments as stated by a faculty member in Griffin et al., (2011), “there’s a love and a caring that’s difficult to put your finger on it, and they [students] kept me sane . . . they wanted me to be successful” (p. 516).

Research and tenure. The National Center for Educational Statistics stated in their November 2010 *Employees of Postsecondary Institutions (2010)* report that 81% of full-time faculty with tenure were White. According to this report, only eight percent, five percent, and four percent of Asian, Native Hawaiian, or Pacific Islander, Black, and Latino/a professors, respectively, held tenure (Knapp, Kelly-Reid, & Grinder, 2010). The percentages highlight the need for more advancement towards successful recruitment and sustainable resources for faculty of color to aid with the tenure process.

As previously stated, teaching and service are two avenues faculty of color cope with an institution that upkeeps its status quo by following the “good ol’ boys club”, primarily made up of White male members. Along with the status quo, research is held at the highest value as more four-year public universities strive to become research-based

institutions. The strong focus on research can become a detriment for faculty of color who report that research was not a compelling reason for entering a career in higher education (Dawson, 2010; Griffin et al., 2011). This is a common hurdle that faculty of color must overcome along with barriers of racism, discrimination, marginalization, and isolation. Nevertheless, some faculty members have used this as a method of motivation to prove skeptics wrong:

I do stand my ground. I'm not shaken. . . . When I think of Fanny Lou Hamer saying, 'I'm sick and tired of being sick and tired,' I really reach back and stretch out to whom I call my ancestors, people who fought for me, died for me, to be where I'm at today. I don't take disrespect and racism and sexism very lightly at all (Griffin et al., 2011, p. 514).

However, not all faculty and departments share the same levels motivation. In the same study, Griffin et al., (2011), in response to race and community-based research, a respondent stated that:

Some of them [faculty of color] are in departments where their research is not as valued as the research agenda of somebody else. So they have to have a lot of publications and a lot of good publications. . . . Because your work is viewed by your colleagues as being less important than comparable areas . . . you have to be much more pointed and rigorous in what you do . . . especially for racial minority African American faculty. . . . We work on issues about race . . . that kind of work, at least in this environment, could be viewed as less than rigorous. You have to be twice as good as people who work in other areas, and you have to publish in places that are twice as high [in status], and you have to do more of it.

(p. 514).

The ethnocentric measurement of quality research has lead many faculty of color to work towards being without fault, which could be deemed impossible (Griffin et al., 2011). In an environment that promotes inclusiveness, progressiveness, and democracy, the academy of higher education is filled with written and unwritten rules regarding recruitment, retention, tenure, and promotion (Diggs et al., 2009; Griffin et al., 2011; Patitu & Hinton, 2003; Stanley, 2006). Here a respondent from Patitu & Hinton (2003) expresses her experience with unwritten rules in the academy:

It has been my experience that there are a lot of “unwritten” rules about a tenure-track position. Collegiality and citizenship, whether universities want to admit it or not, play a large role, in that some colleagues will either support you or not, based on triviality, and not on your academic work. Some senior faculty like to say that the rules for tenure have not changed since they went through the process. I find this statement to be an insult to one’s intelligence. The rules of the tenure game keep changing. As a faculty of color, I hoped and prayed that I had every “I” dotted and every “T” crossed while going through the process for promotion and tenure. I did not want to give my colleagues an opportunity to question anything in my dossier. I want to be tenured because the scholarly evidence was there, because I worked my tail off, and I deserved it (p. 86).

The presence of discriminatory actions towards research may come to a shock for faculty of color who were recruited out of graduate school where their research was indeed race based (Dewey & Duff, 2009). This shock during the tenure process of finding certain research interests are not valued can be devastating as many faculty in

general come into university with a systematic plan of topics to research based on prior interests (Dewey & Duff, 2009; Stanley, 2006). Many of these topics include community engagement, affirmative action, diversity, culture, and ethnicity (Stanley, 2006).

Unfortunately, many of these nonmainstream topics are not supported by the academy, thereby affecting the tenure process. In addition to questioning the value of these topics of interests, faculty of color who are up for tenure receive questions on reputable sources.

As one respondent from Griffin et al., (2011) explains:

I came up a year early, and I was initially actually denied tenure . . . not on my work, but based on the fact that too many of my outside referees were black. Then my case was sent back to the ad hoc committee with the explicit instructions to solicit more letters from white people (p. 510).

Due to personal or professional obligations, “the longer road to tenure may be in part due to large amount of time faculty of color report spending in advising and mentoring students of color, serving on institutional committees or participating in community services” (Laden & Hagedorn, 2000, p. 59). An additional setback is age(ism). Many junior faculty of color up for tenure are younger than their White colleagues. In fact, the NCES reports that faculty of color tend to be younger than White faculty with 28% of faculty of color younger than 40 years of age (NCES, 2010). Correspondingly, only 22% of those 28% held tenure-track positions (NCES, 2010). Age coupled with career possibilities outside the realm of higher education adds to the reasons faculty of color to leave a life in academia in pursuit of a career with less hostility, career dissatisfaction, and increased social ties to the community than that at the university.

Collegiality. Collegiality, a major theme found in Stanley's (2006) research showed to be one of the founding reasons for faculty of color to decide to stay at university, change campuses, and/or leave academia completely. Positive experiences with collegiality came from strong networks that were departmental and/or within a supportive campus climate (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004; Tillman, 2011). Here faculty of color reported being in an inclusive environment where not only their research efforts were welcomed but also their outreach to students, teaching, and off-campus communities (Dawson, 2010; Laden & Hagedorn, 2000; Turner, 2003). Universities that showed commitment to not only compositional diversity, but also creating a diverse campus climate also welcomed positive networking, formal mentoring, and increased inclusive policies (e.g. creation of a division of institutional equality) increase the positive outlook of career satisfaction for faculty of color (Tuitt et al., 2009). While this type of inclusiveness may sound like an illusory utopia, faculty of color have reported that efforts to act upon inclusionary practices, and not only provide them within the mission statement, was of great value and a strong enough intention to maintain retention in academia (Diggs et al., 2009).

Due to the dynamic interplay of collegiality, a nebulous concept of inner-campus community engagement, faculty members learn to not only acculturate into a life of academia, but also learn the unwritten rules (e.g. examine rules of "race, ethnicity, nationality, sexual orientation, religion, and age") of how to navigate through the process of survival (Stanley, 2006, p. 714). A respondent in Stanley's (2006) study responded to the unwritten rules as a process of decoding messages:

I found the academic culture largely impervious to "border crossing." Decoding

ambiguous messages from various institutional levels, especially the department level, represented an immediate challenge compounded by the need to ascertain a trustworthy colleague I could consult to assure I was decoding information as accurately as possible. A senior department colleague frequently reminded me that only thirty percent of tenure-line faculty were awarded tenure at our institution. I did not know how to decode this message. While the message may have been intended to inform, its effect was to incrementally ratchet up my stress level (p. 714).

Realistically, a university that upholds policies and embraces cultural, ethnic, and racial diversity to *all* has yet to be established. Consequently, as with the history of education, communities and subgroups have created resources for themselves to prolong survival (Stubblefield & Keane, 1994). Avenues integrating collegial ideals through professional development have been mainly sought through developing external relationships through formal and informal mentorship (Renn, 2008; Stanley & Lincoln, 2005; Tillman, 2001). This facilitation of faculty professional growth allowed mentor-protégé relationships, matriculation, career development, and learning communities to develop within a faculty-to-faculty relationship (Jackson, 2004; Savage, Karp, Logue, 2004; Stanley & Lincoln, 2005).

Tillman (2001) found that with the emergence of mentoring, with cross-racial and same-race mentorship, there were also reports of higher rates of African American recruitment and hire within junior and senior faculty lines. Stanley (2006) found that “some faculty of color benefited from cross-race mentoring, while others described same-race mentoring experiences. The gender of the mentor did not seem to matter; many

shared their experiences with mentors who were both female and male’’ (p. 711).

I had a mentor, a White female, who gave much of her time to listen and advise me during the difficult times of my early years. . . . She was the person who helped me change my habit of initially thinking people’s responses were because of who I was (p. 118).

However, this is not always the case. Some interviewees remarked on how cross-cultural and gender mentorship hindered career development:

Upon my arrival at the university I elected to participate in a mentoring program offered by the university. I was assigned a mentor— a woman in the sciences, albeit a different college, who had already achieved the rank of full professor. During our few encounters, she admitted that I already knew more than she could possibly teach me. My true mentoring would come from an external network that I strategically created for myself. Networking was an invaluable tool during my first three years [at the university]. I found people who would nurture, collaborate, and provide me with feedback I needed to improve my research, teaching, and progress. I approached African American faculty members I already knew in my discipline, leading scholars that I met at conferences as well as administrators within my university system and other colleges and universities throughout the country (Stanley, 2006, p. 713).

Johnson-Bailey and Cervero (2004) categorized six issues facing faculty of color involved in mentoring relationships: (a) trust between mentor and protégé; (b) acknowledged and unacknowledged racism; (c) visibility and risks pertinent to minority faculty; (d) power and paternalism; (e) benefits to mentor and protégé; and (f) the double-

edged sword of “otherness” in the academy. The six issues Johnson-Bailey and Cervero (2004) mention in their research, reflect a “one size fits all” model of mentorship that is usually performed, highlighting a hierarchical relationship where the mentor is an expert. However, in a dynamic mentorship-protégé relationship, both are equal learners. The best example of a mentorship-protégé relationship can be reflected in Hermann Hesse’s *Magister Ludi*, where both Dion, the elder healer, takes in Joseph, the younger healer in need of support, reflection, and life-long learning (Yalom, 2002). Joseph, seeks Dion – his rival, after growing spiritually ill. Dion takes him into his home as a servant and increases his status to full collegueship. Later it is revealed that Dion was also seeking the wisdom of Joseph because he too felt empty, spiritually dead, and alone. Though this tale of friendship and mutual respect, mentorship too has been commonly known to be built upon successful recruitment, retention, and career satisfaction for faculty of color.

University level

A growing issue that concerns faculty of color is the overwhelming need for a campus that incorporates diversity not only within its mission and vision, but also into the actions and policies. Cultural competency has been a growing concern for many underrepresented faculty, staff, and students due to the increased percentages of diversification of both faculty and student populations in higher education (Banks, 2001). With this then, concentrated efforts of building a supportive community has been created by appointing committees, centers, resource groups, and official administrative roles focusing on diversity (Hooker & Johnson, 2011; Patitu & Hinton, 2002). Many of these positions and programs require intentionality amongst those who value diversity and sustaining relationships that foster a curriculum that emphasizes worth, security, and

cultural competency for all those involved in enriching university life. These responses that higher education exhibited towards diverse populations of ethnic and racial categories have been both welcoming and reactive -welcoming in the sense that communities are being heard, and actively advocated for - reactive that these outreach methods are on superficial levels. Scholars, such as Evelyn Hu-Dehart (2003), have criticized these programs by stating that these “band aid” programs do not address deeper levels of identity and issues minorities face, and in fact enhance assimilation into the status quo environment that higher education practices (Holt, Mahowald, & DeVore, 2002; Hu & Kuh, 2003; Hu-DeHart, 2003). Keeping contextual discourses celebratory, scholars note that “corporate or liberal multiculturalism” voids any significance to the social contexts that multicultural students and faculty of color will ultimately be engaged in (Hu-DeHart, 2003; Renn, 2003).

The danger with this then is that higher education may continue to perpetuate celebratory and contextual diversity without ever contextually engaging in developmental processes needed to build a community that brings voice, history, and focused representation towards multicultural experiences. Since career satisfaction is heavily dependent on one’s surrounding space, colleges and universities have an enormous amount of responsibility when aiding faculty of color to successfully move through the pipelines of academia; something that higher educational institutions have the ability to do through given resources and existing support systems, like centers, human resources, faculty professional development, and community organization networks (Hu & Kuh, 2003; Hu-DeHart, 2003; Renn, 2003). However, with the informal collaborative efforts brought about through staff, faculty, and community advocates, the question remains as

to why critical discourses and formal support systems are slow to develop for faculty of color? Beyond being costly and time consuming, scholars report that the disengagement with faculty of color issues could be due to an educational system that symbolizes monocultural viewpoints and values a homogeneous structure, despite changing demographics, and places deficit models on multicultural students, staff, and faculty; creating more of a hindrance for faculty of color to fully develop in higher education (Hu-DeHart, 2003; Renn, 2003; Shultz, 2007). Consequently, this creates a chilly learning environment (campus climate) where the lack of acculturation generates a lack of cultural knowledge (Absher, 2009; Hooker & Johnson, 2011; Patitu & Hinton, 2002).

Professional development: Multicultural and cultural competency. In 1985, minority students comprised roughly thirteen percent of the student population within higher education entities and grew to twenty-seven percent by 1997 (Renn & Lunceford, 2004). The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) projects that by the year 2012 there will be a 15% increase in the number of minority students enrolled in degree-granting institutions (U.S. Department of Education, 2007). One way higher education administration has responded to the changing student demographics has been through hiring more diverse faculty members to mirror the student population (Brunsma & Rockquemore, 2001). Furthermore, there have also been both community and scholastic efforts (i.e. round tables, conferences, and community organizations) aimed at bringing self-reliance, racial pride, and personal/group empowerment (functional, psychological, and critical) into higher education within practice, research, and policy making for multicultural populations (Gazel, 2007; Jolivette, 2010). However, perceptions of in-service multicultural professional development for university faculty members reflect

negative perceptions that diversity training and professional development are geared towards teaching tolerance rather than acceptance (Cox, 2001). Furthermore, at the university level, diversity topics within professional development focus on workplace rapport among colleagues rather than the implementation of multicultural education into classroom and work environments (i.e. pedagogy) (Gazel, 2007; Hu-DeHart, 2003; Recasner, 2009).

When researching faculty populations that would be most receptive to cultural competency training, Park and Denson (2009) found that marginalized university faculty members (i.e. new/junior faculty, women, African American, Asian American, Latino/a, and Native Hawaiian faculty) were more likely to become diversity advocates. Recasner (2009) found similar data in that not only were underrepresented faculty members more likely to acknowledge culturally diverse classrooms, but those faculty members who served as teaching assistants and/or went through critical pedagogy training to be certified as graduate instructors were more likely to use culturally competent teaching. In addition, when studying the globalization of education, Bartell (2003) and Dewey and Duff (2009) found that the need for developing multicultural curriculum was overshadowed by the pressures for faculty to publish and barriers involving the lack of administration support for university service, deficiency in knowledge of student life, and time constraints. Three possible pressure points exist for university faculty members by which institutions fail to foster professional development: (1) professional development is an impairment to time dedicated to research and teaching, (2) professional development positioned as a task performed only by staff (para-professionals/professional staff

members), and (3) most faculty members are not required to take continuing education credits (CEU's) to fulfill their title as faculty (Bartell, 2003; Dewey & Duff, 2009).

Professional development: Existing multicultural professional development.

Recasner (2009) found that graduate programs that prepared graduate instructors to be academics marginalized cultural competency by presenting it as “add-on [...] knowledge” (p. 20). hooks (2006) summarizes the prominence of negative responses to multicultural professional development and post-racial ideology within pedagogy to provide reasons of why cultural competency is absent within critical discourses:

The discourses on democracy, diversity, and civil rights in this country have often taken place on a philosophical level, but the moment they're engaged in forcing change, and in forcing power to change hands and generating agency for nonwhites, people stop and say, “Well, we really don't need to do that because we have already accomplished that.” In other words, we've already talked about it – we don't need to do it. (p. 55)

The post-racial belief that diversity and critical discourses within pedagogy is of no use due to racism being in the distant past is one of the problems in reversing inactive participation in multicultural professional development and curriculum change in university environments (Banks, 2001). One common belief on campuses that believe are post-racial campuses is that everyone is multicultural in some respects (race, ethnicity, culture, ability/disability, sexual preference, etc.), which allows multiculturalism to interlace into the contexts of higher education (Burant, Quiocho, & Rios, 2002; Renn, 2000). However, underserved faculty, staff, and students have reported a lack of cultural competency in their professional environments, which has lead

to decreased student graduation rates and fewer minority faculty promotions and tenure (Coker-Kolo, 2002). Coker-Kolo (2002) states the paradox between administrations support for multicultural education and professional development followed by the failure to execute substance and financial backing to college deans, department chairs, and professional development centers. Perhaps the lack of in-service multicultural professional development coupled with the lack of faculty interest allows higher education administration to push issues of diversity and critical pedagogy by the wayside. When issues of diversity and teaching are contextualized, the emergence of a deficit model is often utilized, emphasizing the need for multicultural competency when working with marginalized students to aid in retention efforts (Depalma, 2010; Lowenstein, 2009; Recasner, 2009).

Although there is literature that is supportive of providing multicultural professional development for university faculty, much of what has been researched purports that cultural competency involves more of an integration of self-awareness rather than the useful application of bridging multicultural professional development into the classroom (i.e. pedagogy) (Chan, 2005; Cole, 2007; Mayhew & Grunwald, 2006). While there has been sufficient evidence that critical self-reflection and reflexive practice have aided faculty to confront their biases, little has been researched to support the actual act of transferring cultural competency into university classrooms to better support the growing number of multicultural students (Recasner, 2009; Wasson & Jackson, 2002). Moreover, much of the scholastic research involving in-service multicultural professional development and its application to classroom environments has been geared towards secondary education as one of the primary ways teachers obtain continuing education

credits (CEU's) (Bergquist, & Phillips, 1975; Lowenstein, 2009). Therefore, the gap of knowledge experienced in the search of supportive literature pertains to finding out the types of multicultural professional development that is offered to university faculty and their application of the knowledge acquired through professional development to the curriculum and the classroom, aiding to curriculum change that creates campus climate transformation.

Summary

Although faculty play a critical role in the university community, little research has been conducted documenting career satisfaction and its relationship to cultural competency among faculty members in higher education (Coker-Kolo, 2002; Lowenstein, 2009; Park & Denson, 2009; Recasner, 2009). The overwhelming majority of literature suggests that faculty of color tend to be dissatisfied with their current state of career satisfaction in the academe due to language and perception(s), racism, discrimination, sexism, ageism, marginalization, and isolation. Additionally, alongside negative characteristics and stereotypes that are associated with the experiences of being faculty of color, personal motivation and formal/informal social networks provide resources that lead to transformative change in order to create a more inclusive campus climate (Stanley, 2006). However, Diggs et al., (2009) state that the creation of a more inclusive campus and work towards increasing diversity by providing diversity-related professional development can aid in demystifying the process of inclusion, multicultural curricula, administrative red tape, collegiality, and tenure-ship will not always be satisfying.

There are a number of strategies that can be employed to respond to the poor representation and retention rates of faculty of color in education and academia. Although isolated efforts of employing and engaging faculty of color have been established, methods towards retention seem to disregard the fact that systemic and social realities privilege some, while simultaneously disadvantaging others (Turner, 2003). Contextually, CRT challenges the educational practice of monocultural methods and confronts “the traditional claims of the educational system and its institutions to objectivity, meritocracy, color and gender blindness, race and gender neutrality, and equal opportunity” (Solórzano, 1998, p. 122). Rather than focusing on the issue of recruitment and retention through normative paradigms, an innovative framework consisting of confronting the dominant discourse of educational policy and practice is needed (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Capper, 1998; McKnight & Block, 2010; Noddings, 2007; Stoecker, 2005; Van Vught, 2008). Gaining an understanding of the factors that influence career satisfaction among faculty of color presents a comprehensive task of understanding how African American, Asian Pacific Americans, Latino/a, and/or Native American faculty members view their individual, departmental, and institutional experiences.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The aim of this quantitative, non-experimental study was to explore career satisfaction among faculty of color. The research design employed was exploratory factor analysis for the purposes of determining the relationships between additional factors faculty of color experience that may affect career satisfaction. This chapter describes the quantitative methodology and accompanying epistemological perspectives. I will also discuss how structural equation modeling (SEM) characterized observed and measurable variables. To guide this study, three research questions have been presented:

Research Question #1: What are the factors affecting faculty of color's career satisfaction?

Research Question #2: What is the relationship between the Faculty of Color Themed Inventory (FOCTI) and Job Satisfaction (Spector, 1997) for participating faculty members?

Research Question #3: How is this relationship moderated by the following variables: factors affecting career satisfaction among faculty of color; race/ethnicity; sex; faculty rank; tenure status; years in faculty position; academic discipline; salary, and; job satisfaction?

Overview of Epistemology and Analytic Method

The epistemology of this study was critical race theory. Merriam (2009, p. 34) defined critical research as a “critique and challenge, to transform and empower,” which allows for multiple realities to exist allowing researchers to investigate the realities of power and privilege. Regarding higher education, the perspective critical race theory establishes is the acknowledgement of how institutions maintain the status quo at the expense of others (Solórzano, 1998). However, due to this perseverance, diversity initiatives versus the implementation of diversity policies come into question. The line of reasoning becomes how can the value of diversity and its explicit message of inclusivity become not only acknowledged, but practiced? The critical race paradigm seeks change “by detecting and unmasking beliefs and practices that limit human freedom, justice, and democracy” (Scott & Morrison, 2005, p. 47).

Therefore, the use of critical race theory and exploratory factor analysis (EFA), a theory-based approach to research, was used in determining the significance of faculty of color by developing an instrument to determine the factors that influence career satisfaction (Costello, & Osborne, 2005; Cudeck, 2000). Factor analysis is a method of “explaining the correlations among variables in terms of more fundamental entities called factors” (Cudeck, 2000, p. 265). EFA has been matched with critical race theory due to its ability to not assume a fixed set of factors. EFA provides avenues for exploring and discovering factors that may present themselves within critical analysis. Costello and Osborne (2005) suggested three steps within the process of EFA: (a) researcher makes observations; (b) researcher searches for patterns within observations; and (c) researcher makes tentative conclusions or about patterns observed. For this study, observations have

been made through the use of a literature review, questionnaire, and interviews. Patterns and conclusions were derived from the data collected and analyzed from the sample population.

Structural Equation Modeling

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is a covariance based modeling approach that “attempts to minimize the differences between the sample covariance and those predicted by the theoretical model” (Chin & Newsted, 1999, p. 309). Ullman (2007) defined SEM as “a collection of statistical techniques that allow a set of relationships between one or more IVs [independent variables], either continuous or discrete, and one or more DVs [dependant variables], either continuous or discrete, to be examined” (p. 676). Broadly defined, SEM is a statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory (i.e., hypothesis-testing) approach to the analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon (Byrne, 2010). SEM provides a structural modeling component that serves to test the path relationships between the latent variables. Through modeling, SEM lends itself as a statistical technique that utilizes a confirmatory approach to investigate the structural hypothesis believed to influence an occurrence or event (Byrne, 2010).

SEM was used in this study to simultaneously examine the relationships between the moderators and the outcome variables in the model. In other words, SEM was used in this study to model and predict relationships between constructs. Through the use of SEM, the researcher was able to view the relationships moderated by observed variables: gender, color, faculty status, and overall job satisfaction (JSS) with the three identified latent constructs within the Faculty of Color Themed Inventory (FOCTI) (i.e. Individual Issues, Systemic Issues, and Support Systems).

Population and Sample

Convenience sampling for this study was clustered from four-year public institutions in the state of Texas. Participants for this study included African American or Black, Asian American/Desi/Pacific Islander, Hispanic/Latino(a), Native American, and White faculty employed at four-year universities in Texas. The sample under investigation included both female and male, tenured and tenure-track faculty. The state of Texas has 43 universities that are comprised within seven university systems. The university systems included within the State of Texas are: (a) University of Houston System (four universities); (b) University of North Texas System (three universities); (c) University of Texas System (13 universities); (d) Texas A&M University System (12 universities); (e) Texas State University System (four universities); (f) Texas Tech University System (three universities); and, (g) Independent public universities (four universities). These institutions were selected due to the comparative student population size, course curriculums, and convenience.

Due to the use of SEM, a relatively large sample was needed. Based on the number of questions in the questionnaire, the minimum adequate sample size for this study was 300 (Gorsuch, 1997). In this study, the researcher distributed 3,000 surveys with an estimated response rate of 20%, or 600 responses. Out of the 43 universities included in the seven university systems, universities and participants were selected at random. The surveys were sent to faculty members at random from the following universities: Angelo State University, A&M – College Station, A&M – Prairie View, Lamar University, Midwestern State University, Sam Houston State University, Sul Ross State University, Tarleton State University, Texas Southern University, Texas State

University – San Marcos, Texas Tech – Lubbock, Texas Woman’s University, University of Texas at Austin, University of Houston, University of North Texas, and the University of San Antonio. Survey participants were given a link to complete the survey, which included a consent form, survey questionnaire, and demographic questionnaire (see Appendix A). Anonymity was ensured through the use of numerical identification codes assigned to each individual who completed the survey and demographic information.

Instrumentation

The survey contained four sections: consent form, Spector’s (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), the Faculty of Color Themed Inventory (FOCTI), and sociodemographic profile questions. The sociodemographic profile questionnaire was developed by the researcher. The questionnaire surveyed participants’ race/ethnicity, sex, faculty rank, tenure status, years in faculty position, academic discipline, and salary. A pilot study was conducted that involved running the survey to test for user error. The survey was distributed, out of convenience, to 30 tenured or tenure-track faculty members in a centrally located university in the state of Texas. Out of the 30 surveys distributed, five were returned with no user error. As a result of the pilot study, the researcher chose to add two demographic questions pertaining to the years employed in ones current position and faculty rank due to the potential changes faculty may undergo through changing of universities.

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), developed by Spector (1997) in 1985, was used to test nine job factors: pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication. The JSS consists

of 36 items that were originally normed to assess job satisfaction within the human service, nonprofit, and public sector. Table 1 displays what Spector (1997) found when the JSS was normed for higher education and further establishes a comparative population to the one being researched in this study. Blau (1999) reported reliabilities (coefficient alpha) as .89. Spector (1997) and Blau (1999) found that in the overall score, job satisfaction was positively correlated with the nine factors and that the nine factors were intercorrelated.

Table 1

Norms of Higher Education U.S.

Factors	Mean	Weighted Mean	Standard Deviation of Sample Means
Salary	11.9	12.3	1.8
Promotion	11.5	11.9	1.6
Supervision	18.9	18.7	1.6
Benefits	15.3	15.1	1.4
Contingent Rewards	14.1	14.2	1.4
Operating Procedures	13.6	13.7	1.1
Co-Workers	18.1	18.2	1.5
Nature of Work	19.7	19.7	1.3
Communication	14.6	14.6	2.1
Total	137.2	137.2	8.1

Note. Number of samples = 14. Total sample size = 3764.

Each factor within the JSS assessed four items with six choices per item ranging from “Strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The items fall into the subscales as follows:

Pay: 1, 10, 19, 28

Promotion: 2, 11, 20, 33

Supervision: 3, 12, 21, 30

Fringe Benefits: 4, 13, 22, 29

Contingent Rewards: 5, 14, 23, 32

Operating Conditions: 6, 15, 24, 31

Coworkers: 7, 16, 25, 34

Nature of Work: 8, 17, 27, 35

Communication: 9, 18, 26, 36

Total Satisfaction: 1-36

Table 2

Items of the Modified Job Satisfaction Survey

Indicators	Items
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do. (Pay)
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job. (Promotion)
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job. (Supervision)
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive. (Fringe Benefits)
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive. (Contingent Rewards)
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult. (Operating Conditions)
7	I like the people I work with. (Coworkers)
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless. (Nature of Work)
9	Communications seem good within this bank. (Communication)
10	Raises are too few and far between. (Pay)
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted. (Promotion)
12	My supervisor is unfair to me. (Supervision)
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer. (Fringe Benefits)
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated. (Contingent Rewards)
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape. (Operating Conditions)
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with. (Coworkers)
17	I like doing the things I do at work. (Nature of Work)
18	The goals of this bank are not clear to me. (Communication)
19	I feel unappreciated by the bank when I think about what they pay me. (Pay)
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places. (Promotion)
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates. (Supervision)
22	The benefit package we have is equitable. (Fringe Benefits)

Table 2 cont.

23	There are few rewards for those who work here. (Contingent Rewards)
24	I have too much to do at work. (Operating Conditions)
25	I enjoy my coworkers. (Coworkers)
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on within the bank. (Communication)
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job. (Nature of Work)
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases. (Pay)
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have. (Fringe Benefits)
30	I like my supervisor. (Supervision)
31	I have too much paperwork. (Operating Conditions)
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be. (Contingent Rewards)
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion. (Promotion)
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work. (Coworkers)
35	My job is enjoyable. (Nature of Work)
36	Work assignments are not fully explained. (Communication)

Note. From the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) by Paul E. Spector, 1994. Adapted with permission of the author.

The prior reported reliabilities for the JSS is as follows (Spector, 1997):

The coefficient alpha of Pay is .75.

The coefficient alpha of Promotion is .73.

The coefficient alpha of Supervision is .82.

The coefficient alpha of Fringe Benefits is .73.

The coefficient alpha of Contingent Rewards is .76.

The coefficient alpha of Operating Procedures is .62.

The coefficient alpha of Coworkers is .60.

The coefficient alpha of Nature of Work is .78.

The coefficient alpha of Communication is .71.

The coefficient alpha of Total of all factors is .91.

In 1969 Smith, Kendall, and Hulin developed a multitrait-multimethod analysis of the JSS and Job Descriptive Index (JDI) that provided evidence for discriminant and

convergent validity (Spector, 1997). The validity correlations among work, pay, promotion, supervision, and co-workers from both instruments were significantly larger than zero. When the JSS was analyzed using principal components, all nine eigenvalues were greater than 1.0 (Spector, 1997).

Faculty Of Color Themed Inventory (FOCTI)

For this study, I designed a survey focusing on faculty of color using 20 items to describe faculty of color experiences. Through the review of literature, I found that faculty of color were affected on the individual, departmental, and university levels. Within these levels, I discovered 27 themes that were discussed throughout the literature through coding: racism, discrimination, marginalization, isolation, sexism, ageism, tokenism, being assigned the/a “diversity expert,” code switching/assimilation, acculturation, foreign-born status, communication barriers, love for teaching, student hostility, love for research, research being questioned, hazing, needing to “prove oneself,” formal mentorship, informal mentorship, cross-cultural mentorship, homogeneous mentorship, positive collegiality, negative collegiality, inclusionary university policies and practices, exclusionary university policies and practices, and multicultural faculty professional development.

The researcher distributed the survey via email to 40 faculty members through a convenience sample at a university in central Texas within the College of Liberal Arts to triangulate the data regarding the 27 themes found in the literature review. The survey was not anonymous, though confidentiality was garnered through grouping of the results. Out of the 40 surveys, 22 were completed and returned for scoring. The survey questions included the 27 themes found within the review of literature and asked participants to

check off any themes that were experienced within their workplace on a personal, departmental, and/or university level(s). From the faculty responses, the 27 themes found in the literature review were narrowed down to 20. Table 2 illustrates the responses generated from the 22 completed surveys.

Table 3

Themed Survey Check List

Theme	Responses	Themes	Responses
Racism	22	Love for research	17
Discrimination	22	Research being questioned	22
Marginalization	22	Hazing	10
Isolation	22	Needing to “prove oneself”	22
Sexism	22	Formal mentorship	19
Ageism	22	Informal mentorship	22
Tokenism	22	Cross-cultural mentorship	22
“Diversity expert”	22	Homogeneous mentorship (race/ethnicity/gender)	18
Code Switching/ Assimilation	22	Positive collegiality	22
Acculturation	22	Negative collegiality	22
Foreign-born status	3	Multicultural faculty professional development	4
Communication barriers	22	Inclusive university policies and practices	18
Love for teaching	21	Exclusionary university policies and practices	22
Student hostility	22		

To further triangulate the data found in the literature review regarding the themes faculty of color experience, a qualitative section of this study consisted of administering

individual interviews to four self-identified faculty of color who previously surveyed the list of 27 themes via email at a university in central Texas. These four faculty members volunteered by providing three possible meeting times to be interviewed at the end of their survey. The purpose of these questions was to further establish the validity of the 27 found themes and to identify any specific themes faculty of color experience. An interview session of about 20 minutes duration took place at each site by the researcher. The responses were annotated. The questions asked were the following:

1. Are there any other themes and/or traits that you have experienced working in higher education?
2. What issues or special considerations, if any, do faculty of color go through during the tenure process?
3. Is there anything else you would like to add that was not addressed in the themes and or questions asked?

The first and strongest theme that integrated all the narratives was the topic of exclusionary practices by departments and the university at large. These inequitable practices included racism, marginalization, isolation, negative collegiality, and challenges faced with student behaviors when questioning authority.

I never dreamed that teaching and being faculty would present constant challenges. Because of my race and gender, I've always given more of myself. That was the way I was brought up – to expect the “isms” and be my own self-advocate. In my day, you questioned authority with respect and treated colleagues as you'd like to be treated. Now-a-days, it seems that everyone draws on reactive practices rather than neutral or pragmatic qualities that create a

positive work environment. You really begin to question yourself and ask, “What am I *really* doing here?”

Another interviewee shared their experience regarding the tenure process and additional barriers experienced by faculty of color:

In my experience and for many of my colleagues who are of color have experienced resistance to scholarship that critiques white privilege. There is a refusal to acknowledge that unconscious racism that shapes individual, departmental, and institutional perceptions and decision-making. Within the institution of higher education, there is an underling sense of having permission to be disrespectful and inhospitable to Black people. In general [this institution] and its departments will hire Black people but are not interested in Black politics, aesthetics, or worldviews.

The themes were narrowed down to 20 items the use of the survey and interviews. The remaining 20 items are represented in the FOCTI (see Table 4).

Table 4

Items of the Faculty Of Color Themed Inventory (FOCTI)

Items	
1	Racism
2	Sexism
3	Ageism
4	Tokenism (appointing a token number of people from underrepresented group to deflect criticism or comply with affirmative action rules)
5	Discrimination
6	Marginalization
7	Isolation
8	Hazing
9	Students challenging my authority
10	Formal and informal mentoring
11	Being asked to speak for my entire race (e.g. Diversity Expert)
12	Needing to prove oneself
13	Research being unreasonably questioned by others
14	Communication barriers based on personal background (age, gender, race, and culture)
15	Issues with maintaining work-life/life-work balance
16	Issues with receiving tenure based on my personal background (age, gender, race, and culture)
17	Issues with collegiality at the department level
18	Issues with collegiality at the university level
19	Issues with inclusionary practices and policies on the university level
20	Multicultural Professional Development

EFA was conducted to test the empirical validity of the FOCTI subscales by using all 20 items represented in the Likert scale. EFA is a method of analyzing a newly developed scale or test (Gorsuch, 1997). Therefore, EFA was also utilized to explore solutions within the themes by computing linear factors that may explain the theoretical maximum amount of common variance in a correlational matrix, which determined the underlying factor model that best fits the data (Bryant & Yarnold, 2004).

A scree plot, a plot of descending order of magnitude, was used to visualize the relative importance of themes. It was utilized as a cutoff criterion to estimate the number

of themes to extract (Cattell, 1966; Johnson & Christensen, 2008). The scree plot further shows the fraction of total variance represented by the component number (x-axis). The utilization of the eigenvalue greater-than-one criterion is common practice for the use of scree plots (Cattell, 1966). Through the use of scree plots, eigenvalues (y-axis) was examined for solutions that were appropriate for theoretical cohesiveness.

Method of Analysis

As the goal of this study was to determine the relationship between themes that affect career satisfaction among faculty of color, a test for correlation of the factors within the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) and the Faculty of Color Themed Inventory (FOCTI) was conducted. The variables that were investigated are listed below in Table five along with its corresponding levels of measurement:

Table 5

Variables and Levels of Measurement

Variable Name	Levels of Measurement
Themes affecting career satisfaction among faculty of color	Interval
Race/Ethnicity	Nominal
Sex	Nominal
Faculty rank	Nominal
Tenure status	Nominal
Years in faculty position	Nominal
Academic discipline	Nominal
Salary	Nominal
Job satisfaction	Interval

EFA procedures provide more accurate results when individual common factors are represented by multiple measured variables in the analysis (Gorsuch, 1997).

Regression analysis was conducted with the factors and demographic data to see if there

was any statistical significance to the population and the surveys. Furthermore, a t-test was utilized to test against the mean on the JSS found by Spector (1997) when norming the survey in higher education (Table 1). Data were analyzed and tested for statistical significance through version 18.0 of SPSS and AMOS software. Moderate correlations were set at above .5 or below -.5 and statistical significance at the .05 level.

The methods of data analysis included EFA and structural equation modeling (SEM). SEM was utilized to assess goodness-of-fit measures to determine the strength of the correlation between the variables within the study. Three categories were included within the goodness-of-fit measures, which included: absolute fit measures, incremental fit measures, and parsimonious fit measures. Absolute fit measures examine the degree goodness-of-fit assesses structural and measurement models. Incremental fit measures compare hypothesized models. And parsimonious fit evaluates parsimony ratios by comparing the goodness-of-fit and corrects overfitting of the models (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). Definitions for the use of symbols used in the structural equation modeling are shown in Figure 1. Figure 2 illustrates the structural equation model used to determine the FOCTI constructs and observed variables (i.e. demographics).

Symbol	Definition
	A rectangle represents a variable that can be observed.
	An ellipse represents a latent variable, in this model the latent variables are error terms for the endogenous variables.
	A single-headed arrow defines a regression path between variables.
	A double-headed arrow represents a correlation or covariance between exogenous variables.

Figure 1. Definitions for symbols used in the path analysis model (Arbuckle, 2009).



Figure 2. Conceptual structural equation model. Latent constructs are shown in ellipses and observed variables are shown in rectangles.

Variables in the Study

The demographic variables in this study included exogenous independent variables (observed variables) such as the results of the FOCTI survey; race/ethnicity; sex; faculty rank; tenure status; years in faculty position; academic discipline; salary, and; job satisfaction. The FOCTI and job satisfaction were based on self-reported data collected by the FOCTI survey and the JSS (Spector, 1997), respectively. The variables of race/ethnicity; sex; faculty rank; tenure status; years in faculty position; academic discipline; and salary were based on self-reported data from a demographic questionnaire attached to the survey. The outcome variables were included to determine what, if any,

moderating effect they had on the endogenous/dependent variable (outcome) of the themes affecting career satisfaction among faculty of color. Themes affecting career satisfaction among faculty of color were determined using EFA.

Assumptions and Limitations

There were three main assumptions associated with this study that may be of threat to internal validity. The main assumption was that the scores obtained through EFA may have been normally distributed. If the responses from the scores from the EFA were not normally distributed, it would become a limitation. Secondly, the main assumption was that faculty of color would report less career satisfaction than white counterparts due to additional discriminatory factors stated in the literature review. Third, geographical differences in the universities participating in this study may have had differences in campus climate, socioeconomics, sociopolitical views and policies, and differences in the number of faculty of color. The primary limitation was external generalizability where results based in the state of Texas may not be generalizable to other universities where career satisfaction among faculty of color are measured.

In accordance with the Texas State University's Institutional Review Board (IRB), all participants were treated ethically. There was little risk with participating in this study. However, there were several considerations to consider: uncomfortableness that may have been created through self-assessment, and pressure for participants to complete the survey. To ensure confidentiality, informed consent was given to participants (see Appendix A). All individual results were reported as group results. Individual identifiers were removed and replaced with numeric identifiers.

Summary

The chapter presented the quantitative methodology that was used for this study. The lack of quantifiable research involving measuring career satisfaction among faculty of color prevents verification of the various factors that may impact retention rates at the university level. This research study was designed to provide empirical data relating to the qualitative experiences faculty of color have reported, stated in Chapter II. To guide this study, three research questions have been presented.

Research Question #1: What are the factors affecting faculty of color's career satisfaction?

Research Question #2: What is the relationship between the Faculty of Color Themed Inventory (FOCTI) and Job Satisfaction (Spector, 1997) for participating faculty members?

Research Question #3: How is this relationship moderated by the following variables: factors affecting career satisfaction among faculty of color; race/ethnicity; sex; faculty rank; tenure status; years in faculty position; academic discipline; salary, and; job satisfaction?

The sample for this study was drawn from four-year public institutions in the state of Texas. Participants were selected at random, based on convenience, and encompassed tenured and tenure-track faculty members. EFA and SEM were used to determine how the themes faculty of color experience may influence career satisfaction (Costello, & Osborne, 2005; Cudeck, 2000).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents sample demographics, statistical analysis, and results related to the research questions. The data collected from this survey were analyzed using the statistical software from EXCEL, SPSS 18.0, and AMOS 6.0. The methods of data analysis included exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM). A total of 3,017 surveys were distributed, and 610 responses were collected. The response rate was 20%.

Research Question 1

What are the factors affecting faculty of color's career satisfaction?

The Faculty of Color Themed Inventory (FOCTI), designed by the researcher, used 20 items, or constructs, to describe faculty of color experiences. Responses for each item could be given using a six-point Likert scale, ranging from “disagree very much” to “agree very much”. Factor analysis was conducted with results including one to four components. The researcher chose the results found within the three-component analysis due to similarities with what was found in the literature review. The themes that faculty of color experience within the individual, departmental, and university levels within higher education aided with the naming of the three factors found in the three-component analysis of the FOCTI. The three-components (factors) were labeled Individual Issues,

Systemic Issues, and Support Systems by the researcher. Individual Issues were defined with experiences faculty of color encountered on an individual level. Systemic Issues were defined as problems experienced within the organization of higher education. Support Systems were defined as formal and/or informal structures that provide aid in sustaining career satisfaction to faculty of color in higher education.

Figure 3, a scree plot, shows the relative importance of themes. As the scree plot exemplifies Table 7, the total variance explained, the total variance is represented by the component number (x-axis). Without rotation, Factor I accounts for 43.9% of the variance, while the other factors account for less than 10%. When the factors were rotated into the chosen analysis that included three factors shown in Appendix B, the first three factors account for 56.7% of the variance with the first factor contributing 28.9%, the second contributing 20.4%, and the third factor 7.4%.

The three factors within the 20 items (themes) were labeled as: Individual Issues, Systemic Issues, and Support Systems. The results of the analysis of descriptive statistics for the FOCTI, presented in Appendix B, show the breakdown of themes, FOCTI questions, and three factors. Through the use of principal component analysis, the FOCTI questions fell into the subscales as follows:

Table 6

FOCTI Subscales

Factors	FOCTI Items (Themes)
Factor I: Individual Issues	(1) Racism
	(2) Sexism
	(3) Ageism
	(4) Tokenism (appointing a token number of people from underrepresented groups to deflect criticism or comply with affirmative action rules)
	(5) Discrimination
	(6) Marginalization
	(7) Isolation
	(8) Hazing
	(11) Being asked to speak for my entire race (e.g. Diversity expert)
	(14) Communication barriers based on personal background (age, gender, race, and/or culture)
Factor II: Systemic Issues	(16) Issues with receiving tenure based on personal background (age, gender, race, and/or culture)
	(9) Students challenging my authority
	(12) Needing to prove oneself
	(13) Research being unreasonably questioned by others
	(15) Issues with work-life/life-work balance
	(17) Issues with collegiality at the departmental level
Factor III: Support Systems	(18) Issues with collegiality at the university level
	(19) Issues with inclusionary practices and policies on the university level
	(10) Formal and informal mentoring
	(20) Multicultural professional development for faculty members

Within Factor I, labeled by the researcher as Individual Issues, 1-Racism (.796), 5-Discrimination (.786), and 4-Tokenism (.740) were the highest experienced. Other themes experienced within Factor I included: 2-Sexism (.692); 3-Ageism (.687); 11-Being asked to speak for one's entire race (.645); 16-Receiving tenure based on personal background (.610), and; 8-Hazing (.512). However, 6-Marginalization, 14-Communication barriers based on personal background, and 7-Isolation shared both factors of Individual Issues and Systemic Issues. The sharing of two factors may indicate

that issues within higher education affect the individual level and/or vice versa. For example, 7-Isolation, ranging at .554 on Individual Issues (Factor I) and .547 in Systemic Issues (Factor II), suggest that faculty of color experience isolation on the individual level through systemic practices of exclusion in higher education. The same example could be expressed within Factor II. 13-Research being unreasonably questioned by others shares both components of Individual and Systemic Issues. Being both a systemic issue within higher education as research that ascertains white privilege goes unquestioned, faculty of color may begin to doubt the importance of their work on an individual level (Price et al., 2005; Stanley, 2006).

Future adaptations of the FOCTI would include deleting question number nine, Students Challenging My Authority, due to there being no analysis made for the question, and adding more questions to the Support Systems factor to gauge a more detailed analysis of the factors contributing to support systems within higher education.

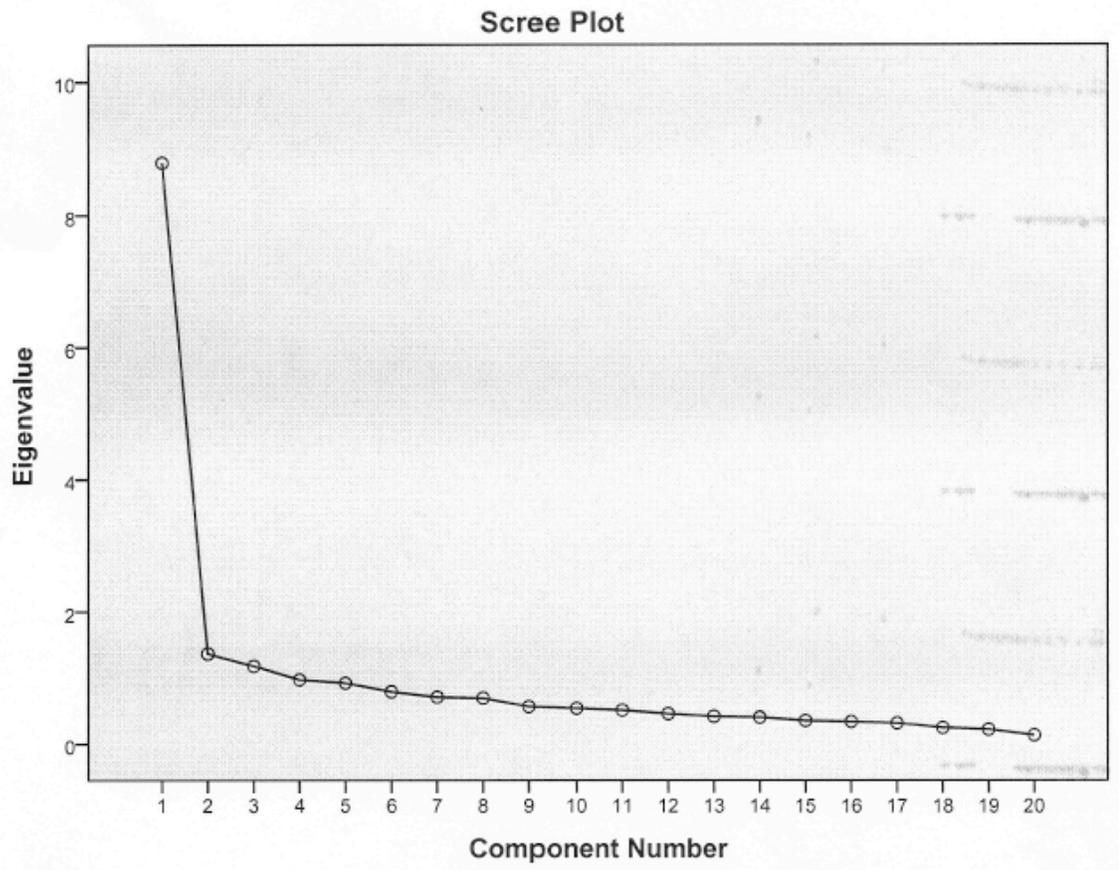


Figure 3. Scree plot.

Table 7

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.786	43.928	43.928	5.777	28.885	28.885
2	1.371	6.857	50.785	4.08	20.402	49.287
3	1.186	5.932	56.717	1.486	7.43	56.717
4	0.979	4.895	61.611			
5	0.929	4.646	66.258			
6	0.798	3.988	70.246			
7	0.716	3.578	73.824			
8	0.701	3.506	77.33			
9	0.568	2.84	80.17			
10	0.544	2.718	82.888			
11	0.514	2.571	85.459			
12	0.46	2.302	87.761			
13	0.42	2.102	89.863			
14	0.405	2.025	91.889			
15	0.356	1.778	93.666			
16	0.341	1.706	95.373			
17	0.319	1.594	96.967			
18	0.249	1.246	98.213			
19	0.222	1.108	99.321			
20	0.136	0.679	100			

Research Question 2

What is the relationship between the Faculty of Color Themed Inventory (FOCTI) and Job Satisfaction (Spector, 1997) for participating faculty members?

Within Spector's (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), pay and job satisfaction were adapted within his 36-item, nine-factor scale. The nine factors are pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Each factor is assessed into four items, with six choices per item ranging from "disagree very much" to "agree very much".

The researcher correlated the FOCTI to the FOCTI, JSS to the JSS, and lastly the FOCTI to the JSS. Table 8 summarizes the results from the correlation test. Note that the bolded numerical values represent correlations above .5 or below -.5 (moderately correlated) and statistically significant at the .05 level. When it came to the SEM, the researcher treated the JSS as a uniformed construct (measurement). The complexity of including the nine subscales was beyond the scope of the current study.

The highest correlation was found at the .760 level between Individual and Systemic Issues (FOCTI). The next grouping of high correlations was that of contingent rewards (JSS) when correlated with Individual Issues (-.615), Systemic Issues (-.606), pay (.678), promotion (.630), and supervision (.634). Communication showed the most correlation with the following FOCTI and JSS factors: Individual Issues (-.533), Systemic Issues (-.588), promotion (.556), supervision (.574), contingent rewards (.679), coworkers (.601), and nature of work (.516). The three least correlated factors, that showed little to no statistical significance, was: Support Systems and operating (-.066),

Support Systems and nature of work (-.181), and Support Systems and supervision (-.197).

Table 8

FOCTI/JSS Correlations

		Individual Issues	Systemic Issues	Support Issues
Individual Issues	Pearson Correlation	1	.760	0.181
	Sig. (2 tailed)		.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Systemic Issues	Pearson Correlation	.760	1	.109
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000		.007
	N	610	610	610
Support Issues	Pearson Correlation	0.181	.109	1
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.007	
	N	610	610	610
Pay	Pearson Correlation	-422	-466	-249
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
		Pay	Promotion	Supervision
Individual Issues	Pearson Correlation	-422	-439	-.519
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Systemic Issues	Pearson Correlation	-466	-435	-452
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Support Systems	Pearson Correlation	-249	-230	-.197
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Pay	Pearson Correlation	1	.504	.392
	Sig. (2 tailed)		.000	.000
	N	610	610	610

Table 8 cont.

		Fringe	Contingent	Operating
Individual Issues	Pearson Correlation	-.362	-.615	-.369
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Systemic Issues	Pearson Correlation	-.366	-.606	-.499
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Support Systems	Pearson Correlation	-.201	-.255	-.066
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.102
	N	610	610	610
Pay	Pearson Correlation	.514	.678	.398
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
		Coworkers	Nature	Communication
Individual Issues	Pearson Correlation	-.557	-.415	-.533
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Systemic Issues	Pearson Correlation	-.602	-.438	-.588
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Support Issues	Pearson Correlation	-.241	-.181	-.277
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Pay	Pearson Correlation	.374	.346	.497
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610

Table 8 cont.

		Individual Issues	Systemic Issues	Support Issues
Promotion	Pearson	-.439	-.435	-.230
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
Supervision	N	610	610	610
	Pearson	-.519	-.452	-.197
	Correlation			
Fringe	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
	Pearson	-.362	-.366	-.201
Contingent	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Operating	Pearson	-.615	-.606	-.255
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
Coworkers	N	610	610	610
	Pearson	-.369	-.499	-.066
	Correlation			
Nature	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.102
	N	610	610	610
	Pearson	-.557	-.602	-.241
Communication	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Nature	Pearson	-.415	-.438	-.181
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
Communication	N	610	610	610
	Pearson	-.533	-.588	-.277
	Correlation			
Communication	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
	Pearson			

Table 8 cont.

		Pay	Promotion	Supervision
Promotion	Pearson	.504	1	.481
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000		.000
	N	610	610	610
Supervision	Pearson	.392	.481	1
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	610	610	610
Fringe	Pearson	.514	.348	.229
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Contingent	Pearson	.678	.680	.634
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Operating	Pearson	.398	.296	.286
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Coworkers	Pearson	.374	.434	.564
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Nature	Pearson	.346	.419	.431
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Communication	Pearson	.497	.556	.574
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610

Table 8 cont.

		Fringe	Contingent	Operating
Promotion	Pearson	.348	.630	.296
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Supervision	Pearson	.229	.634	.286
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Fringe	Pearson	1	.461	.377
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)		.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Contingent	Pearson	.461	1	.456
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000		.000
	N	610	610	610
Operating	Pearson	.377	.456	1
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	610	610	610
Coworkers	Pearson	.256	.584	.381
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Nature	Pearson	.260	.519	.332
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Communication	Pearson	.419	.679	.467
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610

Table 8 cont.

		Coworkers	Nature	Communication
Promotion	Pearson	.434	.419	.556
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Supervision	Pearson	.564	.431	.574
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Fringe	Pearson	.256	.260	.419
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Contingent	Pearson	.584	.519	.679
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Operating	Pearson	.381	.332	.467
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Coworkers	Pearson	1	.511	.601
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)		.000	.000
	N	610	610	610
Nature	Pearson	.511	1	.516
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000		.000
	N	610	610	610
Communication	Pearson	.601	.516	1
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	610	610	610

Research Question 3

How is this relationship moderated by the following variables: factors affecting career satisfaction among faculty of color; race/ethnicity; sex; faculty rank; tenure status; years in faculty position; academic discipline; salary, and; job satisfaction?

Through path analysis of the FOCTI with the factors affecting career satisfaction of color; race/ethnicity; sex; faculty rank; tenure status; years in faculty position; academic discipline; salary, and; job satisfaction, five variables were observed to have a direct relationship with the three factors found in the FOCTI. The five observed variables found were gender, identifying as a person of color, identifying if born in the U.S., tenure status, and overall job satisfaction.

Tables 9 through 12 provide the descriptive statistics for the sample used in the analysis. Among the 610 respondents who participated in the survey, 90 individuals self-identified as African-American or Black, 43 self-identified as Asian/Desi/Pacific Islanders, 65 self-identified as Hispanic/Latino(a), 12 self-identified as Native American, 397 self-identified as White, and 24 respondents self-identified as other. Respondents were allowed to click multiple categories for race. A total of 330 respondents (54.1%) were female, and 277 (45.4%) respondents were male. Three individuals chose not to answer this demographic question. The results of the participants' gender characteristics are shown in Table 9. A person of color was defined as a person who self-identified their race being anything other than White. The results showed that out of the 610 respondents, 184 (30.2%) self-identified themselves as a person of color. Five individuals chose not to answer this demographic question. The results of the participants' answer to whether or not they self identified as a person of color are reflected in Table 10. Whether or not a respondent was born in the U.S., table 11, was determined by self-identification. There were 506 (83%) respondents who self-identified with being a U.S. citizen, while 103 (16.9%) self-identified with being born outside of the U.S. One individual chose not to answer this demographic question. The majority of respondents were of tenured status (i.e.

a faculty member who has undergone their tenure review and passed), 393 (64.4%), while 184 (30.2%) reported to be junior faculty. There were 33 respondents who chose not to answer this demographic question. The path analysis model shown in figure 4, describes the observed variables found. The standard estimates for the path analysis model, described in Table 14, describe the following: a) Gender (i.e. GENDER) is higher when male; b) Identifying as a person of color (i.e. COLOR) is higher when White; c) Identifying if born in the U.S. (i.e. BORNUS) is higher when the individual self-identifies with being born in the U.S., and; d) Tenure status (i.e. STATUS) is higher when tenured.

Table 9

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	330	54.1	54.4	54.4
	Male	277	45.4	45.6	100.0
	Total	607	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	.5		
Total		610	100.0		

Table 10

Do you consider yourself a person of color?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	184	30.2	30.4	30.4
	No	421	69.0	69.6	100.0
	Total	605	99.2	100.0	
Missing	System	5	.8		
Total		610	100.0		

Table 11

Were you born in the U.S.?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	506	83.0	83.1	83.1
	No	103	16.9	16.9	100.0
	Total	609	99.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.2		
Total		610	100.0		

Table 12

Tenure Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Tenured	393	64.4	68.1	68.1
	Tenure-track	184	30.2	31.9	100.0
	Total	577	94.6	100.0	
Missing	System	33	5.4		
Total		610	100.0		

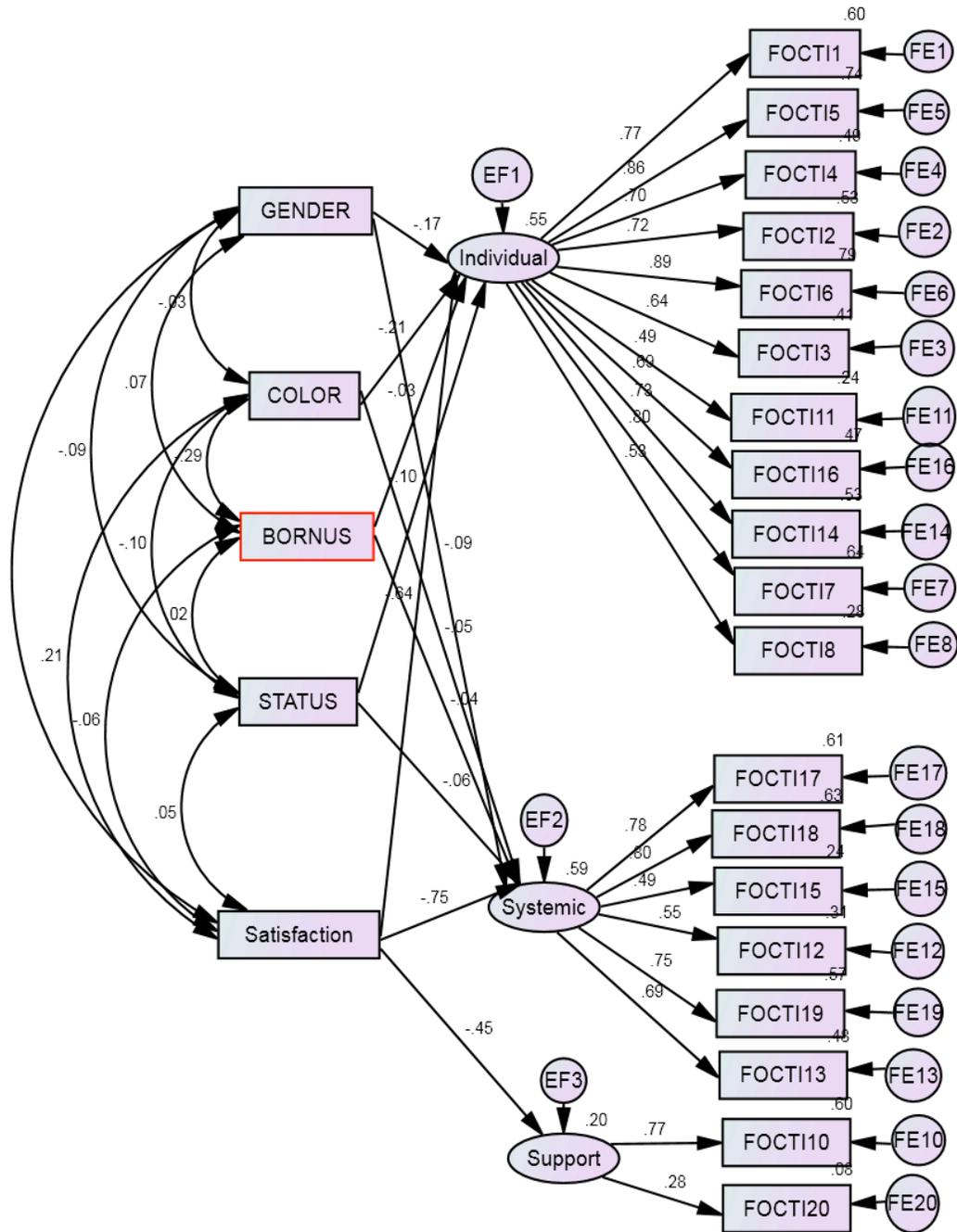


Figure 4. Path analysis model.

Table 13 shows the regression weights among the data found within the FOCTI, the three variables found within the FOCTI, and observed variables through EFA. The coefficients are significant at the .05 level (bolded). Overall satisfaction was shown to be related to all of the factors found within the FOCTI (Individual Issues, Systemic Issues, and Support Systems). Gender was shown to have a relationship with both Individual and Systemic Issues. Self-identifying as a person of color and tenure status was shown to have a significant relationship with Individual Issues.

Table 13

Regression Weights

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Std'd Est
Individual <--- Satisfaction	-.032	.002	-16.934	<.001	-.643
Systemic <--- Satisfaction	-.039	.002	-16.580	<.001	-.746
Support <--- Satisfaction	-.017	.004	-4.567	<.001	-.451
Individual <--- GENDER	-.522	.093	-5.635	<.001	-.175
Systemic <--- GENDER	-.281	.101	-2.792	.005	-.090
Individual <--- COLOR	-.659	.106	-6.218	<.001	-.206
Systemic <--- COLOR	-.161	.114	-1.413	.158	-.048
Individual <--- BORNUS	-.125	.125	-1.007	.314	-.032
Systemic <--- BORNUS	-.175	.137	-1.276	.202	-.042
Individual <--- STATUS	-.327	.098	-3.338	<.001	-.103
Systemic <--- STATUS	-.199	.107	-1.855	.064	-.060
FOCTI1 <--- Individual	.924	.044	20.797	<.001	.773
FOCTI4 <--- Individual	.844	.046	18.171	<.001	.697
FOCTI2 <--- Individual	.934	.049	19.100	<.001	.725
FOCTI6 <--- Individual	1.114	.044	25.355	<.001	.889
FOCTI3 <--- Individual	.703	.043	16.369	<.001	.641
FOCTI11 <--- Individual	.517	.043	12.032	<.001	.492
FOCTI16 <--- Individual	.728	.041	17.825	<.001	.687
FOCTI7 <--- Individual	.975	.045	21.843	<.001	.801
FOCTI17 <--- Systemic	.901	.047	19.054	<.001	.783
FOCTI15 <--- Systemic	.535	.047	11.393	<.001	.492
FOCTI12 <--- Systemic	.615	.048	12.931	<.001	.553
FOCTI19 <--- Systemic	.805	.044	18.262	<.001	.754
FOCTI13 <--- Systemic	.769	.046	16.546	<.001	.691

Table 13 cont.

		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Std'd Est
FOCTI10	<--- Support	1.110	.225	4.936	<.001	.772
FOCTI20	<--- Support	.402	.082	4.936	<.001	.278
FOCTI5	<--- Individual	1.044	.043	24.171	<.001	.860
FOCTI14	<--- Individual	.846	.044	19.249	<.001	.729
FOCTI18	<--- Systemic	.820	.042	19.378	<.001	.795
FOCTI8	<--- Individual	.432	.033	12.973	<.001	.526

Table 14

Covariances

		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Std'd Est
Satisfaction	<--> STATUS	.728	.591	1.232	.218	.052
Satisfaction	<--> BORNUS	-.729	.478	-1.525	.127	-.064
Satisfaction	<--> COLOR	2.919	.600	4.866	***	.209
BORNUS	<--> STATUS	.004	.007	.562	.574	.024
COLOR	<--> STATUS	-.021	.009	-2.285	.022	-.096
GENDER	<--> STATUS	-.022	.010	-2.194	.028	-.093
COLOR	<--> BORNUS	-.051	.008	-6.615	***	-.289
GENDER	<--> BORNUS	.014	.008	1.752	.080	.074
GENDER	<--> COLOR	-.007	.010	-.749	.454	-.031
Satisfaction	<--> GENDER	.209	.629	.332	.740	.014

The results of the SEM for job satisfaction among faculty of color suggest that the SEM of satisfaction was a good model to fit the sample data. Table 15 and 16 presents goodness-of-fit results. Table 15 indicates that the NFI (normed fit index) and CFI (comparative fit index), which are among the most frequently reported. The NFI is also called the descriptive fit index, which describes the proportion of improvement of the overall fit (Ullman, 2007). The CFI, a descriptive fit index, is like the NFI; however, is less affected by the sample size. For both of the NCI and CFI, the values closer to 1 are generally a good indicator of fit. The reported values of NFI (.791) and CFI (.817) suggest

that the model is a good fit. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) index indicates how a model fails to fit the data per degree of freedom (Ullman, 2007). A bad fit is indicated by a number greater than 0.1. The RMSEA for this study was .096, implying a good fit.

Table 15

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.791	.756	.818	.786	.817
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Table 16

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.096	.092	.101	.000
Independence model	.208	.204	.212	.000

Summary

In summary, this chapter presents the results of the analysis to answer the three research questions. The first research question asked what are the factors affecting faculty of color's career satisfaction? After performing an EFA over the data obtained through the FOCTI, three factors were labeled by the researcher: Individual Issues, Systemic Issues, and Support Systems. A correlation test was conducted to show the relationship between the FOCTI and the JSS (Spector, 1997) for participating faculty members. The third and final research question asked how is this relationship moderated by the following variables: factors affecting career satisfaction among faculty of color; race/ethnicity; sex; faculty rank; tenure status; years in faculty position; academic

discipline; salary, and; job satisfaction? The data analysis of both the EFA and SEM allowed for an initial explanation of the interactions among the latent and observed variables. The five observed variables found were gender, identifying as a person of color, identifying if born in the U.S., tenure status, and overall job satisfaction. Additional discussion regarding significant results and the sample are further explained in Chapter 5. Finally, study limitations and suggestions for future research will be highlighted.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The final chapter of this dissertation considers the implications of the relationships among the Faculty of Color Themed Inventory (FOCTI), the three factors found within the FOCTI, Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and observed variables. Given that there is a limited amount written about job satisfaction among faculty of color, this dissertation aims to contribute to the body of literature by supporting the need to increase job satisfaction among all faculty, focusing on faculty of color (Hooker & Johnson, 2011).

There are several studies that have discussed the sparse representation of faculty of color in higher education in the United States (Antonio, 2002; Brown, 2004; Renn & Lunceford, 2004). Although there have been reports of satisfaction among faculty of color, many experience lower levels of job satisfaction when compared to their White colleagues (Stanley, 2006). As noted in career development studies, when an individual is not satisfied with their position, there is a higher likelihood that they will leave their current position for something more satisfactory (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011).

Quantitative data are needed to validate qualitative claims of job dissatisfaction among faculty of color in order to motivate institutions of higher education to build and sustain support systems, both formal and informal, and allow for multicultural discourses

to begin. The present study generated data that can be utilized to evaluate claims of job dissatisfaction/satisfaction as they apply to the institutional approach of integrating diversity into campus climate.

Review of the Research Study

This study provided an initial look to the factors that affect job satisfaction among faculty of color. This research utilized a noninvasive (survey) approach to investigate any potential causal relationships between endogenous independent variables, which had the potential to serve as moderators of the dependent variables. The primary focus of the research involved observed variables (i.e. gender, identifying as a person of color, identifying if born in the U.S., tenure status, and overall job satisfaction), which had the potential to serve as a moderator of the dependent variables found within the FOCTI: Individual Issues, Systemic Issues, and Support Systems.

The sample consisted of tenured and tenure-track faculty (n=610) from sixteen universities serving in the seven university systems in Texas. The Texas public university system provided a randomized sample to keep anonymity of the participants. Although this study was focused on faculty of color, the majority of the respondents were White due to randomization, the institution of higher education, and geography (Texas). This uncontrolled variable had the potential to skew score distributions.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM), known as path analysis, served as the analytic methods. EFA allowed for the evaluation of the FOCTI and the three factors that came about from the study (i.e. Individual Issues, Systemic Issues, and Support Systems). SEM allowed for the simultaneous evaluating of the moderating effects of the exogenous and endogenous variables. A correlation analysis

was conducted to see if there were any relationships with the FOCTI and the JSS (Spector, 1997). Lastly, the calculation of goodness-of-fit was examined with the model.

Review of the Literature Findings

With increased access to higher education, the diverse student body on university campuses has increased. As the student body has increased in diversity, attention has been drawn to diversifying faculty on university campuses. In addition to recruitment, retention of faculty of color has become an issue of equity and inclusion. Job satisfaction has been one of the issues that is still lacking among the conversations in higher education, particularly job satisfaction pertaining to faculty of color.

Much of the research of job satisfaction has been within industrial and organizational settings (Pearson & Seiler, 1983). Pearson and Seiler (1983) stated, “this area has not received attention because a high level of job satisfaction generally has been presumed to exist in a university setting” (p. 36). The presumed notion of high job satisfaction among faculty members may be one cause for little research to be done in this area. With the little research that has been conducted on the career satisfaction among faculty, the majority of previous job satisfaction studies have focused on the qualitative nature of how faculty/faculty of color have been dissatisfied with their job settings (August & Waltman, 2004; Diggs et al., 2009; Stanley, 2006). From the research that has been conducted on job satisfaction among faculty of color, variables such as race, gender, salary, collegial relationships, and rank and tenure have impacted job satisfaction (Diggs et al., 2009; Stanley, 2006). Sources of job dissatisfaction specifically impacting faculty on an individual and departmental level include worker “morale, rank, tenure status, increased work hours on administrative tasks, lack of university support,

university structure, and the institutional reward system” (Hooker & Johnson, 2011, p. 169). More specifically to the institution of higher education (university level), others have noted institutional fit, institutional support, autonomy, and promotion and tenure opportunities as sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Hooker & Johnson, 2011). With all of these themes influencing job satisfaction, faculty of color have additional barriers to contend with including: racism, sexism, marginalization, discrimination, lower salaries, lack of professional recognition, institutional type (e.g. HBCUs), socialization process, and high amounts of bureaucracy (Diggs et al., 2009).

Harsh variables such as the ones listed above may lead to the lack of ethnically diverse faculty opportunities for recruitment and retention. According to Blackburn, Wenzel, and Bieber (1994), “higher education institutions, as well as national research centers, need to focus on the experiences of faculty of color if we hope to understand the work environments needed to support creative talents” (p. 280). In order to improve job satisfaction among faculty of color, attention needs to be drawn on the individual, departmental, and university levels to truly transform institutional culture in an intentional way. Sustainable change with the needs of faculty of colors’ retention in mind needs “senior administrative support, collaboration, and visible action” for transformational change to occur in higher education (Harper & Hurtado, 2007, p. 20-21).

Discussion of the Results

The discussion of results provides a general overview of the results followed by a discussion of each result that was statistically significant. The findings generated from this research study were revealing and insightful in many respects. Most significantly, it was determined:

- There were three factors affecting faculty of color's career satisfaction based on the FOCTI. Those factors were Individual Issues, Systemic Issues, and Support Systems.
- There were several moderately correlated relationships between the FOCTI and JSS. The correlations were statistically significant on the .05 significance level.
- There were five observed variables moderated by the relationship between the FOCTI and JSS. Those five observed variables found were gender, identifying as a person of color, identifying if born in the U.S., tenure status, and overall job satisfaction.

Research Question 1

Throughout the literature review, the researcher focused on the themes of individual, departmental, and university issues when describing what issues faculty of color undergo. These themes matched what was found when asked what are the factors affecting faculty of color's career satisfaction? The FOCTI's factor analysis resulted in three author-identified constructs (factors) labeled Individual Issues, Systemic Issues, and Support Systems. As described in the results section, Individual Issues were defined with experiences faculty of color encountered on an individual level. Systemic Issues were defined as problems experienced within the organization of higher education. And Support Systems were defined as formal and/or informal structures that provide aid in sustaining career satisfaction to faculty of color in higher education.

Within Individual Issues, the four themes that scored the highest, in ranking order are racism, discrimination, tokenism, and sexism. While these four themes are part of the greater society and are evidenced within the institution of higher education, they are

internalized themes that, through a critical race theory lens, are built within the relationships of race and power in U.S. systems. The “isms” in U.S. society are extended from the social realm to then be lived through on a day-to-day basis by women and persons of color.

In ranking order, marginalization, communication barriers based on personal background (i.e. age, gender, race, and/or culture), and isolation scored in constructs one and two (i.e. Individual Issues and Systemic Issues). This could be due to the stagnant campus climate of higher education in relation to diversifying faculty along all fields and curriculum (Gazel, 2007). Campus climate has been shown to have high predictors on levels of performance and job satisfaction among faculty members (Harper & Hurtado, 2007). If a faculty of color has been experiencing isolation, for example, on the individual level, it is likely that they have also experienced it on a departmental and university level due to how isolation may be embedded into the institutional make-up of higher education – from how offices are assigned to policies and mission statements.

The same could be said with themes that were shared when analyzing the Factor II, Systemic Issues. While issues with collegiality at the department level, university level, and issues with work-life/life-work balance scored high within Systemic Issues; issues with inclusionary practices and policies on the university level and research being unreasonably questioned by others were shared with both Individual and Systemic Issues. Faculty have reported mixed levels of support from departmental and school leadership (Harper & Hurtado, 2007). When the support from an organization (i.e. systemic systems) falters, an individual within that organization may lack the motivation on an individual level to persist.

Research Question 2

The second research question asked what is the relationship between the Faculty of Color Themed Inventory (FOCTI) and Job Satisfaction (Spector, 1997) for participating faculty members? For the purposes of the discussion, I will focus on the correlations between the FOCTI and JSS. All of the statically significant values were negatively correlated. The highest correlations were between Individual Issues, Systemic Issues (FOCTI) and contingent rewards (JSS) at -.615 and -.606, respectively. Contingent rewards regarded feeling appreciated and receiving rewards and job recognition. The higher Individual (e.g. racism and discrimination) and Systemic Issues (e.g. issues with collegiality) were being experienced, the lower contingent rewards was experienced, which would lead to job dissatisfaction. Rewards and recognition can be tied with promotion and tenure. While many faculty of color enter higher education for service and teaching, many are often dismayed due to the expectations of research and grant writing (Jackson, 2002). As noted by one respondent in Bennett, Tillman-Kelly, Shuck, Viera, and Wall (2011, p. 51) “it’s supposed to be 33 1/3 [%], 33 1/3 [%], 33 1/3 [%], research, teaching and service. But be clear--99 1/3 [%] of it should be research. And that’s just the way it is.”

Issues with Individual and Systemic Issues regarding coworkers showed statistically significant results with -.557 and -.602, respectively. While Individual and Systemic Issues increase, relations with coworkers decreased. This could be reflected in the discussion of departmental engagements faculty of color experience. A sense of equality seems to be an important predictor when regarding relationships with coworkers (Stanley, 2006). Scholars have suggested that faculty of color have experienced

occupational stress associated with being isolated in both formal and informal ways (Kezar & Sam, 2010; Stanley, 2006). Formal methods of isolation and inequality, for example, have included being assigned office space away from the main department and being left out of committees. Informal methods of exclusion have resulted from feelings of alienation from having been mismatched with faculty mentors and being excluded from informal networks from respective departments (Stanley, 2006). Such interactions with coworkers and social networks are an essential precursor for engagement and creating a sustainable community that retains the talents faculty of color contribute to higher education.

Issues regarding communication can be heavily linked to coworker relations. As Individual (-.533) and Systemic Issues (-.588) increased, communication decreased. Communication showed to be more significant within Systemic Issues, hinting at the notion that while recruitment for faculty of color is on the rise, faculty of color are still undervalued (Laden & Hagedorn, 2000). Some studies have suggested that while Individual Issues related to race and discrimination have persisted in higher education, the real issue at large is the historical injustice people of color have experienced in the academy. This systemic issue of injustice and underrepresentation of faculty from diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds has affected the components that have built higher education into an institution. As a result, the ramifications of historic disparities have led to improper communication between members of the university and faculty of color.

Lastly, Individual Issues and its relationship with supervision was statistically significant (-.519). This phenomenon could encompass the issues of contingent rewards, relationships with coworkers, and communication combined. Through the review of

literature, discussions of supervisory relationships noted that university administrators make an attempt in regards to recruitment and retention of faculty of color, but it is not a priority (Harper & Hurtado, 2007). One respondent in a research study noted the issue of protection when discussing faculty of color:

We [departments] spend a lot of money to make sure they [faculty of color] come...why not spend the time to make sure they stay? [...] Good department chairs help you to make that decision [to not serve on every diversity committee]. Fantastic department chairs say 'I will protect you, and you won't have to make that decision.' Good fantastic department chairs, that want to keep you won't saddle you, or overwork you with all those extra committees. They say 'I will protect his or her time' (Bennett, et. al., 2011, p. 52).

Research Question 3

The third and final research question asked how the relationship between the FOCTI and JSS was moderated by the following variables: factors affecting career satisfaction among faculty of color; race/ethnicity; sex; faculty rank; tenure status; years in faculty position; academic discipline; salary, and; job satisfaction. Through regression analysis, five observed variables were found: gender, identifying as a person of color, identifying if born in the U.S., tenure status, and overall job satisfaction.

Gender. Gender was the third biggest predictor to the variance weighing in at 3% of the variance in Individual Issues (-.175) and 1% of the variance in Systemic Issues (-.090). Furthermore, it had a strong interaction with overall job satisfaction (.014). Due to many universities implementing diversity hires, it is increasingly likely that retiring senior faculty will begin to be replaced with younger faculty members who are women,

underrepresented minorities and/or foreign-born scholars (Bender & Heywood, 2006). With regards to job satisfaction, it has been reported that female faculty members express lower levels of job satisfaction when compared to male counterparts (Callister, 2006). Academic fields seem to play a large part of this role as women in STEM fields report significantly less satisfaction than male faculty members (Callister, 2006). Unsurprisingly, these reports are not new within the literature on gender and job satisfaction. With previous studies, female faculty members have had a combination of institutional, personal, and career obstacles. While female faculty members have shown to have career satisfaction among variables like service, opportunities for advancement, and intellectual challenge; dissatisfaction among extrinsic factors have caused dissatisfaction. These extrinsic factors include the glass ceiling effects such as: lower salary and benefits, sexism, work-life/life-work balance, and devaluing expertise (Callister, 2006). Such findings mirror those found within the three factors of Individual Issues, Systemic Issues, and Support Systems found within the FOCTI. As Individual Issues (e.g. sexism and marginalization), Systemic Issues (e.g. issues with work-life/life-work balance), and lack of Support Systems (e.g. formal/informal mentoring) increase, career satisfaction decreases.

Identifying as a person of color. Although a number of personal attributes can affect job satisfaction, those who identify as faculty of color, and/or are perceived as such, report being less satisfied with their career in higher education when compared to White counterparts (Bennett et al., 2011; Chen & Hune, 2011; Medina & Luna, 2000; Stanley, 2006). Identifying as a person of color, as expected, was a strong predictor of Individual Issues weighing in at 4% of the variance (-.206). However, it was not a predictor of Factor II, Systemic Issues (-.048). This highlights how systems have been put into place by

institutions (e.g. affirmative action and equal opportunity employer (EOE)) to lessen discrimination among faculty of color. However, on individual levels, discrimination is alive and well. Biases and individual attitudes against faculty of color are uneasy to penetrate and manage systemically.

Many of the “isms” (i.e. racism, sexism, and ageism), along with discrimination and marginalization, are apparent under the factor of Individual Issues within the FOCTI that can lead to job dissatisfaction. Turner and Myers (2000) explore institutional issues (Systemic Issues), indicating that:

[...] challenges to the successful recruitment, retention, and development of faculty of color include significant barriers within academia itself that discourage people of color from becoming productive and satisfied members of the professoriate. Our findings and analyses show that the predominant barrier is racial and ethnic bias resulting in unwelcoming and unsupportive work environments for faculty of color (p. 3).

[...] The conflict now seethes at a deeper level. No longer legally sanctioned as institutional policy, bias and enmity take the form of campus racial incidents, hate speech, and hostility to multicultural curricula (p. 11).

Individual, systemic and support issues can be both overt and subtle. However put, issues of discrimination are common issues faced by faculty of color.

Identifying if born in the U.S. As stated in the literature review, foreign-born faculty members have additional communication and cultural barriers (Price et al., 2005; Stanley, 2006). The majority of respondents (n=506) reported being born in the U.S. Navigating differences in culture, beliefs and values, and communication for a citizen

raised in the U.S. is more straightforward than for faculty of foreign-born status due to knowledge of sociocultural norms and practices; which in turn, increases job satisfaction on the individual and systemic levels (Price et al., 2005).

Tenure status. Given that tenure is a condition of continued employment, it seems straightforward that it is a determinant of job satisfaction on all FOCTI constructs (Individual Issues, Systemic Issues, and Support Systems) (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011). Tenure implies senior status and job security. If an employee were to constantly worry about the status of their job on a day-to-day basis, lower job satisfaction would likely be reported. The same could be said regarding tenured-track faculty members. The daily stresses of teaching, publishing, and advising add to the struggles of retaining faculty members. In addition to daily struggles, issues of discrimination, racism, and marginalization are a few of the additional barriers faculty of color experience, which decrease retention rates of faculty of color. Due to the nature of faculty employment in higher education, the struggles and challenges to receive tenure would be a determinant of job satisfaction due to the criteria and nature of receiving tenure (e.g. teaching, service, and research/publishing), institutional and collegial/departmental support, and work-life/life-work balance (Stanley, 2006).

Overall job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a multidimensional concept. For the purposes of this research, overall job satisfaction (i.e. total satisfaction) stems off of the nine factors of Spector's (1997) JSS. Those nine factors include: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Overall job satisfaction was the biggest predictor of job

satisfaction among faculty of color at 40% of the variance in the Individual Issues (-.643), 56% of Systemic Issues (-.746), and 20% of Support Systems (-.451).

Job satisfaction has mainly been examined in industrial organizations such as businesses, government, professional agencies, and the military (August & Waltman, 2004). Not surprisingly, workers report that they want some degree of autonomy, recognition from peers and supervisors, time off for leisure, and fair pay (Jackson, 2004). Within the institution of higher education, other factors come into play that stem off of job satisfaction: time allocations regarding teaching, research, and service; pay equity; promotion and advancement (tenure); and departmental and campus climate (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995). In whole, the actual and perceived content of work occurring around the institutions mission statement determines faculty job satisfaction.

Limitations of the Study

A number of issues and challenges arose in this study relative to data collection, and the nature of quantitative methodology.

1. The data used during this study was generated from four-year public institutions of higher education in Texas. These institutions were located in both rural and urban settings. However, given the fact that these institutions were in the state of Texas, generated findings from this study may not readily transfer to colleges or universities located outside of the geographical location.
2. The researcher received several emails from potential participants who self-identified as faculty of color questioning their anonymity. A few stated that they were the only faculty of color within their department/college and that they feared

that, somehow, the results of their survey would be linked to them. This shows a greater concern of retribution that should be furthered researched.

Implications for Future Research

While studies regarding faculty of color have increased in recent years, much research still needs to be conducted on the topic of recruitment, retention, and overall job satisfaction of faculty of color. The goal of this study was to investigate the factors that may influence job satisfaction among faculty of color. The research and analysis of findings of this study lead the researcher to make the following recommendations.

1. The study results suggest that support needs to be given to faculty of color on the individual, departmental, and institutional levels. For example, on the individual level, all faculty members should exercise inclusionary practices in order to decrease the levels of “isms” faculty of color attribute to job dissatisfaction on university campuses. On the departmental level, interdepartmental committees, workshops, and/or programs could encourage informal/formal networking opportunities among faculty members (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011). Lastly, same and/or cross-cultural faculty mentorships could aid in building a diverse campus climate on the institutional level (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004). Additionally, increased quantitative measures need to occur to study job satisfaction among all faculty to ensure that both the individual and institution are playing their part in making an exultant campus climate in which all parties feel welcomed.
2. More research is needed about community colleges, HBCUs, and Hispanic and Asian serving institutions regarding the job satisfaction of faculty of color. There

is a lack of literature about community college efforts to diversify and retain faculty of color. Furthermore, literature pertaining to how HBCUs and other largely diverse campuses retain their faculty exists; however, more current research is needed that reflects the current processes, practices, and rationales used.

3. More research is needed regarding faculty of color in STEM fields and Ethnic Studies. Support, both soft (e.g. mentorship) and hard (e.g. providing computers and/or lab equipment), are different in various academic disciplines. Researching STEM fields and Ethnic Studies could add to the greater literature regarding faculty of color by appealing to communities of practice (CoP). CoP is of common interest in both fields due to the increased attention given to diversify faculty in order to share ideas and to build upon their community (discipline) with intentionality (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Appendix C shows the breakdown of academic disciplines respondents identified with. Respondents were allowed to check all that applied.
4. It is recommended that future researchers utilize critical race theory (CRT) as an analytical tool to examine, investigate, and challenge recruitment and retention practices. Current studies have addressed the “isms” associated with faculty of color and the difficulties of increasing job satisfaction; however, an authentic address to racism and diversity within institutional practices are needed to begin a discourse on how faculty of color have been effected and how diversity can become sustainable on university campuses.

5. Providing funding and support for faculty professional development targeting both faculty of color and the broader campus community can be important to the retention of faculty of color (Tuitt et al., 2009). Funding could include travel to conferences, release time from teaching and course load responsibilities, and sabbatical leaves for research opportunities. Support can include collaborations with the offices of professional development to create methods (e.g. workshops, symposiums, and/or classes) of intellectual and collegial stimulation for faculty of color to create networks within their own community to increase job satisfaction, worker morale, and educate the campus on such issues regarding the recruitment and retention of faculty of color.

Summary and Conclusion

This chapter addressed the study's results and included the researcher's conclusions. This study was designed to provide insight into the complexity of job satisfaction among Faculty of Color. Much of the research regarding job satisfaction among faculty of color has been qualitative, focusing on dissatisfaction (Johnson-Bailey & Cervero, 2004; Laden & Hagedorn, 2000; Medina & Luna, 2000; Stanley, 2006). This study provided information on which factors influence overall job satisfaction in addition of a new survey to quantify job satisfaction among faculty of color. Based on the findings of this study, constructs affecting faculty of colors' job satisfaction include Individual Issues, Systemic Issues, and Support Systems. Several relationships between variables displayed statistical significance within the correlations of the FOCTI and JSS. Those correlations involved Individual and Systemic Issues (FOCTI) being correlated with supervision, contingent rewards, coworker relationships, and communication (JSS).

Individual Issues, Systemic Issues, and Support Systems moderated factors including gender, identifying as a person of color, identifying if born in the U.S., tenure status, and overall job satisfaction.

Analyzing satisfaction levels across disciplines can help university department chairs, administrators, and deans identify factors that contribute to the satisfaction/dissatisfaction among faculty of color. Knowledge of satisfaction of faculty can affect institutional factors such as collegial and student relationships, leadership and support, and increasing the satisfaction of campus climate and culture. In order to improve the satisfaction of faculty of color, it is necessary to transform the institutional culture on the individual, departmental, and university levels in an intentional way. For this reason, it is important for higher education to make a concentrated effort to change the practice, policies, and procedures of the academy to welcome and support the entire campus community.

APPENDIX A

SURVEY

Career Satisfaction Survey

Consent Form

IRB Approval EXP2012O7008

Introduction

As a faculty member of a Texas higher education institution, you have been selected to participate in this study. This research study is aimed at collecting and analyzing information concerning career satisfaction among tenured/tenure-track faculty of color in higher education. This research project is being carried out by: Kenyatta Y. Dawson (kd1109@txstate.edu) and Robert F. Reardon, Ph.D. (rreardon@txstate.edu) of the College of Education at Texas State University-San Marcos. If you have questions about the research you may contact any of the investigators at any time.

Procedures

The questionnaire consists of demographic questions and 56 survey questions and will take approximately 15 minutes or less to complete. Questions are designed to explore the themes mentioned in the introduction above. This questionnaire will be conducted with an online survey. Please complete the full survey: Job Satisfaction Survey and the Faculty of Color Themed Inventory.

Risks/Benefits/Compensation

Risks are minimal for involvement in this study. There are no direct benefits for participants other than greater awareness of ones career satisfaction. There is no direct compensation for completing this survey, although your participation is greatly appreciated.

Anonymity

All data obtained from participants will be kept confidential and only be reported in aggregate format (by reporting only combined results and not individual ones). All questionnaire answers will be concealed with no one other than the investigators listed above allowed to have access to them. The data collected will be stored in the SNAPS database that can only be accessed by the investigators. The data will be deleted following aggregation and analysis within six months of collection. If requested, the research results will be provided to participants after project completion by contacting either of the investigators above.

Participation

Participation in this research study is completely voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any time or refuse to participate entirely without jeopardy. If you desire to withdraw, please close your Internet browser.

Questions about your Rights as Research Participants

Pertinent questions about the research, research participants' rights, and/or research-related injuries to participants should be directed to the IRB chair, Dr. Jon Lasser (512-245-3413; lasser@txstate.edu), or to Ms. Becky Northcut, Compliance Specialist (512-245-2102; bnorthcut@txstate.edu) at Texas State University-San Marcos.

By continuing this survey, you are giving consent to participate in this research study. Please print this page if you would like to have a copy of this consent form for your records.

Demographic Information

Gender

- Female
 Male

Age**Race (check all that apply):**

- African-American or Black
 Asian/Desi/Pacific Islander
 Hispanic/Latino(a)
 Native American
 White
 Other

Do you consider yourself a person of color?

- Yes
 No

Were you born in the U.S.?

- Yes
 No

Did you immigrate to the U.S.?

- Yes
 No

If you did immigrate to the U.S., at what age? (leave blank if answer to #62 was no)

Mother: Highest degree obtained

--Click Here-- ▾

Less than high school
 High school/GED
 Some college
 2-year college degree (Associates)
 4-year college degree (BA, BS)
 Master's Degree
 Doctoral Degree
 Professional degree (JD, MD)

Father: Highest degree obtained

--Click Here-- ▾

Less than high school
 High school/GED
 Some college
 2-year college degree (Associates)
 4-year college degree (BA, BS)
 Master's Degree
 Doctoral Degree
 Professional degree (JD, MD)

Type of institution currently employed

--Click Here-- ▾

Asian American and Native American Pacific Islander Serving Institution
 Hispanic Serving Institution
 Historically Black Colleges and University
 Native American Serving Non-Tribal Institution
 Predominantly White Institution

Faculty Rank

--Click Here-- ▾

Assistant Professor
 Associate Professor
 Professor
 Professor Emeritus

Tenure Status

- Tenured
- Tenure-track

Years in faculty position at institution currently employed

--Click Here-- ▾

0-5
 6-10
 10-15
 15-20
 20-25
 25+ years

Academic discipline (check all that apply):

- Architecture*
- Business*
- Communications*
- Education*
- Engineering*
- Fine Arts*
- Geosciences*
- Health Professions*
- Information*
- Law*
- Liberal Arts*
- Natural Sciences*
- Nursing*
- Pharmacy*
- Public Affairs*
- Social Work*
- Other*

Academic demands per year (e.g. teaching load (2/2, 2/3, 4/4, etc.), administrative assignments, research/service/university committees, etc.)

Tenure/tenure-track department faculty size

--Click Here--	▼
0-10	
10-15	
15-20	
20-25	
25+	

Number of tenured/tenure-track faculty in your department of your ethnic origin

What is your gross annual income?

--Click Here--	▼
<i>Less than \$30,000</i>	
<i>\$30,000 - \$39,000</i>	
<i>\$40,000 - \$49,000</i>	
<i>\$50,000 - \$59,000</i>	
<i>\$60,000 - \$69,000</i>	
<i>\$70,000 - \$79,000</i>	
<i>\$80,000 - \$89,000</i>	
<i>\$90,000 - \$99,000</i>	
<i>\$100,000 - \$149,000</i>	
<i>More than \$150,000</i>	

What is your total household income?

--Click Here--	▼
<i>Less than \$30,000</i>	
<i>\$30,000 - \$39,000</i>	
<i>\$40,000 - \$49,000</i>	
<i>\$50,000 - \$59,000</i>	
<i>\$60,000 - \$69,000</i>	
<i>\$70,000 - \$79,000</i>	
<i>\$80,000 - \$89,000</i>	
<i>\$90,000 - \$99,000</i>	
<i>\$100,000 - \$149,000</i>	
<i>More than \$150,000</i>	

You have completed this survey. Thank you for your time.

Please click SUBMIT.

This research study is aimed at collecting and analyzing information concerning career satisfaction among faculty of color in higher education. This research project is being carried out by: Kenyatta Y. Dawson (kd1109@txstate.edu) and Robert F. Reardon, Ph.D. (rreardon@txstate.edu) for the College of Education at Texas State University-San Marcos. If you have questions about the research you may contact any of the investigators at any time. Thank you.

APPENDIX B

ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX

Factors	FOCTI Questions	Component (Factors)		
		1	2	3
Factor I: Individual Issues	(1) Racism	0.796		
	(5) Discrimination	0.786		
	(4) Tokenism (appointing a token number of people from underrepresented groups to deflect criticism or comply with affirmative action rules)	0.74		
	(2) Sexism	0.692		
	(6) Marginalization	0.687	0.451	
	(3) Ageism	0.66		
	(11) Being asked to speak for my entire race (e.g. Diversity expert)	0.645		
	(16) Issues with receiving tenure based on personal background (age, gender, race, and/or culture)	0.61		
	(14) Communication barriers based on personal background (age, gender, race, and/or culture)	0.604	0.493	
	(7) Isolation	0.554	0.547	
	(8) Hazing	0.512		

	(17) Issues with collegiality at the departmental level		0.749
	(18) Issues with collegiality at the university level		0.734
	(15) Issues with work-life/life-work balance		0.68
Factor II: Systemic Issues	(12) Needing to prove oneself		0.643
	(19) Issues with inclusionary practices and policies on the university level	0.475	0.587
	(13) Research being unreasonably questioned by others	0.526	0.554
	(9) Students challenging my authority		
Factor III: Support Systems	(10) Formal and informal mentoring		0.787
	(20) Multicultural professional development for faculty members		0.599

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

APPENDIX C

ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE STATISTICS

		Academic discipline: Architecture	Academic discipline: Business	Academic discipline: Communications	Academic discipline: Education
N	Valid	1	44	16	173
	Missing	566	523	551	394
Mean		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Median		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Minimum		1	1	1	1
Maximum		1	1	1	1
Std. Deviation			.000	.000	.00
Std. Error of Skewness			.357	.564	.185
Std. Error of Kurtosis			.702	1.091	.367

		Academic discipline: Engineering	Academic discipline: Fine Arts	Academic discipline: Geosciences	Academic discipline: Health Professions
N	Valid	10	27	3	41
	Missing	557	540	564	526
Mean		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Median		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Minimum		1	1	1	1
Maximum		1	1	1	1
Std. Deviation		.000	.000	.000	.000
Std. Error of Skewness		.687	.448	1.225	.369
Std. Error of Kurtosis		1.334	.872		.724

		Academic discipline: Information	Academic discipline: Law	Academic discipline: Liberal Arts	Academic discipline: Natural Sciences
N	Valid	10	14	135	32
	Missing	557	553	432	535
Mean		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Median		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Minimum		1	1	1	1
Maximum		1	1	1	1
Std. Deviation		.000	.000	.000	.000
Std. Error of Skewness		.687	.597	.209	.414
Std. Error of Kurtosis		1.334	1.154	.414	.809

		Academic discipline: Nursing	Academic discipline: Pharmacy	Academic discipline: Public Affairs	Academic discipline: Social Work
N	Valid	13	1	10	9
	Missing	554	566	557	558
Mean		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Median		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Minimum		1	1	1	1
Maximum		1	1	1	1
Std. Deviation		.000		.000	.000
Std. Error of Skewness		.616		.687	.717
Std. Error of Kurtosis		1.191		1.334	1.400

		Academic discipline: Other
N	Valid	83
	Missing	484
Mean		1.00
Median		1.00
Minimum		1
Maximum		1
Std. Deviation		.000
Std. Error of Skewness		.264
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.523

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