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**RACIOETHNIC DIFFERENCES IN JOB SATISFACTION:
A TEST OF ORTHOGONAL CULTURAL IDENTIFICATION THEORY
AND SELF-CATEGORIZATION THEORY**

**A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the
requirements for the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION**

by

Shawnta Shajuan Friday

1997

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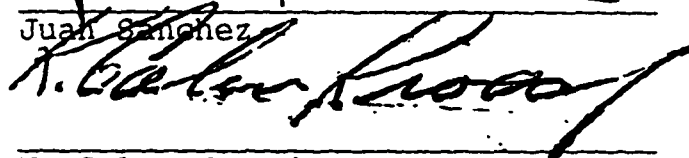
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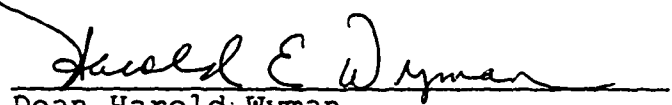
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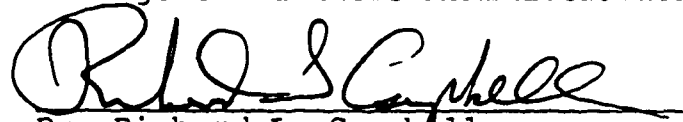
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I dedicate this dissertation to my parents (Dr. Earnest and Mildred Friday), my brother (Nikita Friday), and my sister (Natasha Friday). Your support, understanding, patience, unselfish assistance, and unconditional love provided me with the strength to accomplish this goal. Thank you all from the bottom of my heart.

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

**RACIOETHNIC DIFFERENCES IN JOB SATISFACTION:
A TEST OF ORTHOGONAL CULTURAL IDENTIFICATION THEORY
AND SELF-CATEGORIZATION THEORY**

by

Shawnta Shajuan Friday

Florida International University, 1997

Professor Sherry E. Moss, Major Professor

The theories of orthogonal cultural identification and self-categorization are offered as links in examining the possible racioethnic differences in job satisfaction. It is posited that racioethnicity (Cox & Blake, 1991) is multidimensional with at least three conceptually distinct dimensions. Since there is a need for consistent terminology with respect to these distinct dimensions, the following *new terms* are offered to differentiate among them: "*physioethnicity*" refers to the physiological dimension of racioethnicity; "*socioethnicity*" refers to the sociocultural dimension; and "*psychoethnicity*" refers to the psychological dimension.

Results showed that for the dominant group (Hispanics in this case) 1) bicultural and multicultural individuals were more satisfied with coworkers than acultural and monocultural individuals and 2) individuals with higher strength of psychoethnicity were more satisfied with coworkers, the work itself, and supervision than those with lower strength of psychoethnicity. The findings suggest racioethnic differences within the dominant group and between groups beyond race.

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CHAPTER I

IMPETUS FOR THIS RESEARCH

Job-related attitudes are important to researchers and practitioners, especially in an increasingly culturally diverse work force (cf. Cox, 1993; Fine, 1995; Lankau & Scandura, 1996). With a culturally diverse work force, differences in attitudes, beliefs, values, and behaviors are bound to exist (Fine, 1995). All of these are likely to influence levels of motivation, and ultimately, one's level of productivity (Lankau & Scandura, 1996).

Job satisfaction is the most researched job-related attitude in the literature (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992). With the American work force becoming increasingly diverse, it is important to examine the differences in levels of job satisfaction among individuals of different racioethnic groups. This research is taken a step further by not just examining racioethnicity as a physical or descriptive variable, but also as a variable with psychosocial and psychological salience to the individual. It is posited that psychosocial and psychological saliences along with race/national origin may explain more variance in job satisfaction among individuals of different racioethnic groups than what has been previously recognized. This would

suggest that the multifaceted construct of racioethnicity, which will be operationalized using the variables of physioethnicity, socioethnicity, and psychoethnicity, may provide more explanatory power than just the physical or descriptive demographic variable of race/national origin. The physical variable is the one included in most survey research. This research can help to determine if race/national origin as a variable is too simplistic.

Although this research represents only one subcategory (racioethnicity) under the broad umbrella of diversity research, it has a high degree of importance to organizations. The importance of this research is fourfold. One, new terminology is offered to reduce the possible confusion of current terminology used in various bodies of literature. Two, if it is true that the construct of racioethnicity is multifaceted with psychosocial, psychological, and physical dimensions, then some of the confusion in the job satisfaction and racial differences literature may be reduced by determining the impact of the three different dimensions of racioethnicity. Three, understanding the dimensionality of racioethnicity and how it influences the attitudes of individuals in an increasingly diverse work place can help practitioners manage diversity more effectively. And four, it extends

orthogonal cultural identification theory (a psychosocial process), self categorization theory (a psychological process) and their possible impact on job satisfaction to organizational literature. The examination of orthogonal cultural identification theory and self-categorization theory is only in its infancy within the organizational literature.

The need to understand the dimensionality of racioethnicity not only has important implications within the organizational setting, but it also has broader significance to society. The Bureau of the Census is debating how to create new racial and/or ethnic categories for the 2000 Census (Seligman, 1995). Currently, the Bureau considers race and ethnicity as two different demographic characteristics. The four racial groups currently listed are whites, blacks, Asian and Pacific Islanders, and native Americans. Hispanic is considered an ethnic category rather than a racial category (Crispell, 1991; Sandor, 1994). On the other hand, for Affirmative Action purposes, race consists of five categories: white (non-Hispanic), black (non-Hispanic), Hispanic, Asian and Pacific Islander, and native American. Although there is a lack of consensus with respect to racial/ethnic labeling between the two federal agencies, there is consensus on the fact that racial and

ethnic data are needed (Sandor, 1994). This means that the government needs to find a uniform racioethnic classification scheme that the multicultural public deems relevant because the current classifications have been widely criticized (Evinger, 1996; Sandor, 1994). To date, a uniform racioethnic classification scheme has not been developed.

With the widespread racioethnic diversity among Americans, there is no easy way to capture the complex ways Americans identify themselves, which does not always coincide with the Census or Affirmative Action labels (Asamoah, 1991; Evinger, 1994; Orlans, 1989). Orlans (1989) argues that surveys must give participants the latitude to choose the racioethnic group to which they belong. Americans are living in a more multicultural environment than ever, and valid assessments are needed to better understand how and why multiculturalism impacts the attitudes of individuals (Sedlacek & Kim, 1995). Therefore, this research is timely in that it may offer some alternative ways of assessing and understanding racioethnicity in this multicultural society.

INTRODUCTION

Scholars as well as practitioners have acknowledged the changing demographics in the American work force due to dramatic increases in the number of women and people of color entering the labor market (Fine, 1995; Offerman & Gowing, 1990). The dynamic impact of this increasingly diverse work force has been the focus of much research attention (e.g., Cox, 1993; Fine, 1995; Lankau & Scandura, 1996; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). The very definition of diversity implies variety and differences. Therefore, it follows that diversity in the work force would affect various organizational outcomes. If diversity is left unmanaged, it may lead to increased dissatisfaction within the organization and its subgroups (Milliken & Martins, 1996).

Research also suggests that some other potential disadvantages of diversity include possible reductions in group cohesiveness, the lowering of employee morale, and difficulty in communication (Cox, 1993). On the other hand, it has also been argued that organizations can realize enhanced creativity and improved problem solving by capitalizing on the valuable insights and experiences of employees with various backgrounds if they can learn to

effectively manage diversity within the work force (Cox, 1993; Lankau & Scandura, 1996). However, before this learning and the application of this learning can take place, a better understanding of how and why diversity (racioethnic differences in particular) influences work-related attitudes is not only useful, but necessary.

Until recently, racioethnicity has been conceptualized as a physical or descriptive characteristic of an individual in organizational research. Thus, it has been considered a discrete variable that can be observed and measured objectively (Nkomo, 1992). This has resulted in a myriad of comparative analyses examining the relationships between the demographic variable race and a broad range of issues in organizational behavior research. This research, which used the physical dimension of racioethnicity, is indicative of what Milliken and Martins (1996) term, "the observable type of diversity." They make the distinction between observable and nonobservable types of diversity; which are not mutually exclusive. The nonobservable types of diversity may also lead to racioethnic differences in job-related attitudes.

Two possible nonobservable attributes of racioethnicity are psychosocial and psychological in nature. Therefore, the premise for this research stems from two additional perspectives of racioethnicity: 1) an individual's

psychosocial awareness of his/her cultural identification [socialization with a particular racioethnic group] and 2) the psychological salience and strength of an individual's self-categorization [self-selecting into a particular racioethnic group]. An individual's psychosocial awareness of his/her cultural identification with a particular racioethnic group is reflective of the socioethnicity dimension of racioethnicity. And, the individual's psychological salience and strength of identifying with a particular racioethnic group is reflective of the psychoethnicity dimension of racioethnicity.

The literature has no record of the impact that the psychosocial and psychological dimensions of racioethnicity may have on job attitudes. By disregarding the psychosocial dimension of racioethnicity, researchers are not accounting for the distinctive cultural characteristics with which an individual identifies. And by overlooking the psychological dimension of racioethnicity, researchers are not accounting for an individual's personal racioethnic classification of self.

Previous research has examined racial and ethnic differences in such areas as job satisfaction (e.g., Lankau & Scandura, 1996; Moch, 1980), organizational commitment (e.g., Lankau & Scandura, 1996), career outcomes (Greenhaus,

Parasuraman & Wormley, 1990), and turnover intentions (Lankau & Scandura, 1996). This research has characterized and examined racial or ethnic differences as an observable variable by asking the participants to indicate their race or national origin without considering what explanatory power their psychosocial and psychological salience may provide. With regard to the job satisfaction literature within the last few decades, research on racial differences has resulted in conflicting findings. Examining the psychosocial and psychological dimensions of racioethnicity may add value in explaining racioethnic differences in job satisfaction as opposed to just examining the physical dimension. By examining these additional dimensions, consensus within this body of literature may be reached.

At this point, it is necessary to clarify the term racioethnicity, which will be used throughout this paper. The term racioethnicity is used because it encompasses a broad spectrum of individuals of differing races and ethnicities (Cox & Blake, 1991). There is much confusion in the literature with respect to the terms race, culture, and ethnicity (Birman, 1994). Racioethnicity is a dynamic construct in that it has been used to represent at least three conceptually distinct constructs, thus suggesting that

it is multidimensional. See Appendix A for a glossary of the terminology used throughout this paper.

Birman (1994) provides definitions for these three conceptually distinct constructs--ethnic origin, ethnicity, and ethnic identity. The first construct is that of ethnic origin, which is defined as a classification system based on one's biological ancestors (Birman, 1994). This conceptual definition is analogous to the current physical or descriptive variable of race/national origin. An example of ethnic origin would be the checking of the category black by an African American woman on an application.

The second construct is that of ethnicity, which is defined as the collective culture of a cultural group with some distinctive cultural characteristics within a larger society (Birman, 1994). This collective culture is created transgenerationally out of the shared experiences of a group of people who come to identify with a unique history and origin (Birman, 1994). In some bodies of literature, this concept of identification with one's ethnicity has been termed ethnic identity (see Phinney (1990) for a review) or ethnic identification (Sanchez & Fernandez, 1993). The conceptual definitions of these terms are varied within the literature, and the labeling of these terms are identical to or close derivatives of the labeling of the third construct-

-ethnic identity (to be discussed next). An additional labeling of this term in some bodies of literature is cultural identification. Hence, the psychosocial concept of cultural identification is developed in this research. Using the African American woman in the ethnic origin example above, being raised by and around her immediate and extended African American family, she would report that her ethnicity was African American.

The third construct is that of ethnic identity, which is defined as the extent to which individuals choose to incorporate a particular racioethnic classification into their sense of self. This definition of ethnic identity is analogous to the psychological concept of self-categorization. Continuing with the above example, the African American woman works and socializes in a variety of ethnic circles; nevertheless, she classifies herself as an African American. This is an example of "congruence" (Cox, 1993: 56) between ethnic origin, ethnicity, and ethnic identity.

Since the terminology used to distinguish these three conceptually distinct constructs can be confusing, *new terminology* has been coined to reduce the possibility of confusion. The term "*physioethnicity*," the surrogate for ethnic origin, is defined as the physiological

identification as a member of a particular racioethnic group. The term "socioethnicity," the surrogate for ethnicity, is defined as the sociocultural identification with a particular racioethnic group. The term "psychoethnicity," the surrogate for ethnic identity, is defined as the psychological identification as a member of a particular racioethnic group. Henceforth, the terms *physioethnicity*, *socioethnicity*, and *psychoethnicity* will be used in place of ethnic origin, ethnicity, and ethnic identity, respectively.

<u>New Term</u>	<u>Definition</u>	<u>Previous Term</u>	<u>Example of Scale Item</u>
Physioethnicity	physiological identification as a member of a particular racioethnic group	Ethnic Origin	"Please indicate your race/national origin." (e.g., non-hispanic, white, non-hispanic, black, Hispanic/Latino, white, etc.)
Psychoethnicity	psychological identification as a member of a particular racioethnic group	Ethnic Identity	"To which race/ethnic group do you identify yourself as a member?"
Strength of Psychoethnicity	how strongly an individual identifies with the racioethnic group to which he/she considers himself/herself a member	Strength of Ethnic Identity	"Being a member of my race/ethnic group plays a large role in my life."
Socioethnicity	sociocultural identification with a particular racioethnic group	Ethnicity	"I live by or follow the White American way of life." (same item for Black, Spanish, Asian, and American Indian.)

By the definitions given, individuals cannot change their physioethnicity because it is biological. However, they may differ with respect to their socioethnicity (social upbringing) and psychoethnicity (psychological classification of self) (Birman, 1994). An example given by Fine (1995) supports this premise: *"I had only one black student in the class, and the other students felt compelled to turn to her when they had questions about how African Americans might respond to a particular issue we were discussing. Finally, she said that she had no idea because she never thought of herself as a black woman. Although her parents were black, they raised her in an all white suburb. They had no black friends and no other family members lived nearby. She attended white schools, worshipped at a white church, and socialized with whites; she even had a white boyfriend"* (p. 50). In this example, the African American woman's physioethnicity is black (African American), her socioethnicity is white American, and her psychoethnicity is also white American. This is an example of "congruence" between socioethnicity and psychoethnicity. However, there is "incongruence" (Cox, 1993: 57) between physioethnicity and socioethnicity, and "incongruence" between physioethnicity and psychoethnicity.

In a third example, a Puerto Rican child is born, thereby being of Hispanic (ethnic) origin. As a child, he was raised in a predominately black environment. His parents' friends were African Americans. He attended schools that were predominately African American. His friends and girlfriends in high school were African American. He would report that his socioethnicity is African American. However, after attending a predominately white Ivy League university and socializing with white American classmates, he began to consider himself a white male. Thus, his psychoethnicity would be white American. This example illustrates how an individual can differ on these three dimensions of racioethnicity. This is an example of "incongruence" among all three constructs. This would lead one to question whether just physioethnicity or socioethnicity, psychoethnicity, or an interaction of the three dimensions influences his/her attitudes the most.

Due to these distinct conceptual definitions of the multifaceted construct of ethnicity, the term racioethnicity will be used throughout this paper. The term physioethnicity will be used when referring to the physical or descriptive variable race/national origin. The term socioethnicity will be used when referring to the psychosocial concept of cultural identification.

Psychoethnicity will be used when referring to the psychological concept of self categorization.

Racioethnicity will be used as the all-encompassing term since this paper is exploring the psychosocial (socioethnicity), the psychological (psychoethnicity), and the physical (physioethnicity) dimensions of racioethnicity as they relate to job satisfaction.

Additionally, the terms race, racial, culture, and cultural will be used when reflecting the terminology as used in the review of literature. The definitions of these terms are varied. Some prior research has defined *race* as the distinct biological different groups of Mongoloids, Caucasoids, and Negroids (Boyd, 1996). Webster's dictionary defines *race* as "a local geographic or global human population distinguished as a more or less distinct group by genetically transmitted physical characteristics." The term *racial* is an adjective referring to differences between the three races, and as also defined by Webster, "pertaining to or typical of an ethnic group" or "arising from or based upon differences between ethnic groups." *Culture* is defined by Webster as "the totality of socially transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions, and all other products of human work and thought characteristics of a community or population." *Cultural* is defined by Webster as

"of or relating to culture." See Appendix A for a glossary of the terminology.

Although these psychosocial and psychological concepts (cultural identification and self-categorization respectively) have not been examined in the job satisfaction literature, they have been shown to affect the attitudes and behaviors of individuals in other bodies of literature (cf. Fine, 1995; Oetting & Beauvais, 1991). Therefore, these borrowed concepts may provide more insight than just the physioethnic variable in understanding differences in job-related attitudes among racioethnic groups.

Only recently have organizational researchers begun to explore the diverse attitudes that exist among the individuals of different racioethnic groups from a psychological perspective (i.e., James, Lovato, & Khoo, 1994; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly (1992) recently used the psychological constructs of social-identity and self-categorization to examine racioethnic differences in job satisfaction, psychological commitment, intent to stay, and frequency of absences among whites and nonwhites. The results showed that in more heterogeneous work groups, whites experienced lower job satisfaction, psychological commitment, and intent to stay and higher frequencies of absences than blacks. While the

psychological perspective has recently been addressed in organizational research, the psychosocial aspect of attitudes among individuals of different racioethnic groups has yet to be examined in an organizational setting.

Theoretical Framework

Research in the area of cultural diversity is receiving enormous attention due to the changing demographics of the work force (Fine, 1995). One researcher has posited a theoretical framework for studying the impact of cultural diversity on several aspects of organizational life. Cox (1993) offers the Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity as a philosophical foundation for examining how cultural diversity may affect an organization's bottom line.

Cox's (1993) Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity suggests that an interaction between diversity factors (or the diversity climate) impacts individual career outcomes and organizational effectiveness. The diversity climate is comprised of an interaction between individual-level factors, group/intergroup factors, and organizational-level factors. The individual-level factors are identity structures, prejudice, stereotyping, and personality. The group/intergroup factors are cultural differences, ethnocentrism, and intergroup conflict. The organizational-

level factors include the culture and acculturation process, structural integration, informal integration, and institutional bias in human resources systems.

The individual career outcomes are divided into affective outcomes and achievement outcomes. The affective outcomes consist of job/career satisfaction, organizational identification, and job involvement. The achievement outcomes include job performance ratings, compensation, and promotion/horizontal mobility rates. Organizational effectiveness has a first and second level. The first level of organizational effectiveness includes attendance, turnover, productivity, work quality, recruiting, creativity/innovation, problem solving, and workgroup cohesiveness and communication. The second level of organizational effectiveness includes market share, profitability, and achievement of formal organizational goals.

The focus for this study is the individual as the unit of analysis. Therefore, the portions of Cox's (1993) Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity which will serve as the theoretical underpinning of this paper are 1) identity structures [one of the individual-level diversity climate factors, while controlling for work context diversity] and 2) job satisfaction [one of the affective

individual career outcomes]. In his model, Cox (1993) uses the term identity structures which encompasses phenotype (or physical) identity and cultural identity. Cox's (1993) phenotype or physical identity is similar to the physioethnicity dimension of racioethnicity as defined previously. Cox's (1993) cultural identity is similar to the socioethnicity dimension of racioethnicity as defined previously.

Although the psychoethnicity dimension of racioethnicity is not included in Cox's (1993) Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity, it will be included in this examination. Psychoethnicity will be included because the literature suggests that this psychological process needs to be considered due to literature which asserts the importance of considering one's categorization of self (Hogg & Turner, 1987; Hutnik, 1991). Cox's (1993) theoretical framework implies that the organizational literature needs to treat and assign racioethnicity on more than just the basis of physical characteristics. More specifically, this theoretical framework suggests that the impact of racioethnicity on individual outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction) may be due to physical, psychosocial, and psychological characteristics.

Orthogonal Cultural Identification Theory

Oetting and Beauvais' (1991) orthogonal cultural identification theory will serve as the theoretical underpinning of the socioethnicity dimension of racioethnicity. Orthogonal cultural identification theory (Oetting & Beauvais, 1991) suggests that identification with one culture is independent (orthogonal) of identification with another culture, thereby being on different continua, as opposed to being at opposite ends of the same continuum. A theoretical analogy would be Herzberg's (1968) theory of motivation, which posits satisfaction and dissatisfaction as two separate continua as opposed to being at opposite ends of the same continuum.

Phinney (1990) refers to this as a two-dimensional process of acculturation, in which an individual has a relationship with the racioethnic minority culture and the racioethnic dominant culture. She suggests that there may be a need to consider the relationship with these two cultures independently of one another. Orthogonal cultural identification theory goes further to suggest that the increase in identification with one culture does not necessitate the decrease in identification with another culture (Oetting & Beauvais, 1991). Therefore, an individual may identify with more than one culture, thereby

being considered bicultural or multicultural (Oetting & Beauvais, 1991).

The literature suggests that racioethnic minorities in the U.S. have moved toward integration within the racioethnic majority culture while also maintaining their own culture. This has usually led to conflicting attitudes, beliefs, and values between individuals of the majority culture and individuals of the minority groups with separate and distinct cultures that exist in a larger majority dominated society (Oetting & Beauvais, 1991). However, because they exist in a larger majority-dominated society, racioethnic minorities tend to socialize and actively participate in two or more cultures (at least their own and the majority culture) (Ramirez, 1984). Thus, racioethnic minorities living in a majority dominated society tend to be bicultural or multicultural.

This may not always be the case for individuals of the majority culture. One possible reason individuals of the majority culture may not socialize and actively participate in more than one culture is because they are not required to do so to exist in the larger majority-dominated society. For this reason, individuals of the majority culture may tend to be monocultural. However, this may not necessarily be the case if they are not in the majority within a given

social context or work-related context. In this case, they may socialize and actively participate in more than one culture, therefore being bicultural or multicultural. This assertion needs to be examined because as stated by Phinney (1990), there has not been much research focusing on cultural identification of individuals of the majority culture.

Ramirez (1984) describes the bicultural or multicultural individual as having more flexible communication skills, coping skills, human relations, and problem solving styles/skills than the monocultural individual. It may also follow that a bicultural or multicultural individual's attitudes will differ from the attitudes of a monocultural individual. Although the concept of biculturalism has received attention (Ramirez, 1984; Sanchez & Fernandez, 1993), orthogonal cultural identification theory is a fairly new theoretical concept and it has only been tested in the adolescence substance abuse literature (Oetting & Beauvais, 1991).

Oetting and Beauvais (1991) did not find a relationship between drug use and cultural identification; but, they did find a relationship between cultural identification and, self-esteem and family caring. Higher self-esteem and perceived family caring were related to higher

identification with either Indian or Anglo cultural identification. They also reported other significant implications of orthogonal cultural identification theory. Two important implications given by Oetting and Beauvais (1991:678) are: 1) identification with one culture is independent of identification with any other culture(s) and 2) identification with different cultures should be assessed independently. The present study will examine these implications. Firstly, the independence of different cultural identifications will be assessed. This will address the first implication. And secondly, independent scales will be developed to measure the levels of identification with different cultures in an effort to address the second implication.

Oetting and Beauvais (1991) also note that by their very nature, racioethnic groups are different, and with their differences come inherent conflicts in attitudes, values, and beliefs. However, racioethnic minorities in the U.S. may be able to peacefully co-exist as subgroups (with distinct cultures) within the larger society indefinitely if all racioethnic groups (majority and minorities) can begin to truly understand one another and their differences. If this large feat can be accomplished, the U.S. can become "a permanent multicultural society" that is tolerant and

accepting of others' cultures (Oetting & Beauvais, 1991: 678). Bicultural or multicultural individuals may be more tolerant of other cultures than monocultural individuals. As noted by Ramirez (1984), monocultural individuals' coping styles are not as flexible as bicultural or multicultural individuals.

Orthogonal cultural identification theory has yet to be tested in an organizational setting with respect to differences in work-related attitudes. Extending this theory to a work place setting and based on prior research, which has found differences between racioethnic minorities and the racioethnic majority, it would be expected that bicultural or multicultural individuals' (usually racioethnic minorities) job satisfaction attitudes will differ, depending on the context, from those of acultural or monocultural individuals (usually racioethnic majority). This may be one possible explanation for Tsui and her associates' (1992) findings that whites scored lower on psychological commitment and intent to stay with the organization and had a higher frequency of absences than blacks in largely diverse workgroups. Building on the findings of Tsui et. al. (1992), it follows that members of the racioethnic majority would score lower on job satisfaction scores than racioethnic minorities in a largely

diverse work environment. This should address whether or not these differences can be attributed to the psychosocial dimension of racioethnicity because monocultural whites may not be as satisfied with their jobs as bicultural blacks when they are in diverse workgroups with individuals from different cultures.

Self-Categorization Theory

Self-categorization theory will be used as the theoretical underpinning of the psychoethnicity dimension of racioethnicity. The theory of self-categorization comes from the field of social psychology. It posits that an individual's perception of self and others is shaped by his/her psychological identification with a particular group (racioethnic group) (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). This membership identification with a particular group has been shown to affect attitudes through a process called referent informational influence (Hogg & Turner, 1987). The referent informational influence process suggests that an individual categorizes himself/herself as a member of a particular group, learns the stereotypical norms of that particular group, and assigns these stereotypes to himself/herself. Then, the individual's attitudes and behaviors will follow his/her perception of the groups'

stereotypes (Hogg & Turner, 1988). Therefore, these attitudes are usually biased towards the group to which the individual belongs (Hutnik, 1991).

One of the more salient identities of an individual is his/her psychoethnicity (Johnson, 1996; Stangor, Lynch, Duan, & Glass, 1992). Self categorization theory posits that an individual's identity is fluid. In other words, the salience of an identity may vary given an individual's social context because it is dynamic and relative to the individual's frame of reference (Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & McGarty, 1994). However, "the variability in self-categorization is not arbitrary or chaotic but is systematic and is lawfully related to variation in social contexts" and social reality (Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & McGarty, 1994: 458). Therefore, the racioethnic group to which an individual identifies does not have to be the same as the racioethnic group to which he/she was born.

This is possible because if an individual's frame of reference and social environment differ from the individual's birth race or national origin, that racioethnic group is not part of his/her social reality. Thus, the individual will be unable to identify with that particular racioethnic group. An example of this would be a black child adopted by a white family living in a white

neighborhood and going to predominately white schools. It is possible for this incongruence in physioethnicity and psychoethnicity to occur in childhood or adulthood. If the incongruence occurs during childhood, the individual's socioethnicity (social upbringing) may also be different. However, if the incongruence occurs during adulthood, one's socioethnicity may or may not be different. In Fine's (1995) example, a black woman in her class identified herself as a white female. Her incongruence stemmed from childhood; hence she experienced an incongruence in socioethnicity as well. Therefore, she could not shed light on the attitudes of African Americans; her attitudes were biased similarly to those of white Americans. This would suggest that, in this case, the female's psychoethnicity rather than her physioethnicity would influence her attitudes.

In addition to the salience of psychoethnicity, the strength of psychoethnicity is also of importance (Ethier & Deaux, 1994; Gudykunst, 1994). Strength of psychoethnicity has to do with how strongly an individual identifies with the racioethnic group to which he/she considers himself/herself a member (Gudykunst, 1994). The more strongly an individual identifies with a particular racioethnic group, the more his/her psychoethnicity will

influence his/her attitudes and behaviors (Gudykunst, 1994). In conducting research pertaining to strength of psychoethnicity, Ethier and Deaux (1994) found weaker ethnic identification was linked to the perception of greater environmental threats and decreases in self-esteem. This research suggests that strength of psychoethnicity also needs to be considered when examining if psychoethnicity influences attitudes, such as job satisfaction.

Hutnik (1991:132) notes that "by birth and by cultural tradition [the ethnic minority individual (if raised as such)] belong[s] to the ethnic minority group; by nationality and citizenship [he/she] belong[s] to the majority group." It is then up to the individual to determine how he/she will classify himself/herself and how strongly. It may then be questioned as to whether an individual's physioethnicity, socioethnicity, psychoethnicity or an interaction of the three will influence his/her attitudes. This would suggest that orthogonal cultural identification theory and the theory of self-categorization in addition to physioethnicity need to be examined to determine if they explain more of the variance in the differences in job satisfaction among individuals of different racioethnic groups than just physioethnicity.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Attitudes

There are many definitions for the attitude construct. For the purposes of this study, the following definition of attitude will be used: a learned predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner toward some object (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) indicated that an attitude has three dimensions: cognitive, affective, and behavioral intention. The cognitive dimension of an individual's attitude is a belief. A belief is a representation of information an individual has learned and internalized about some object or idea. Therefore, a person's attitude towards an object is based on his/her life experiences (Fishbein, 1967). Thus, the assumption can be made that because beliefs and attitudes are learned, they reflect the individual's environmental experiences, including experiences interacting with members of the racioethnic group to which one belongs (Gudykunst, 1994). Because individuals within the same culture may tend to have common experiences, it is expected that individuals of the same racioethnic group may have similar collective attitudes.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a fairly complex job-related attitudinal variable. Locke (1969) defines job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. It consists of overall or general job satisfaction as well as a variety of satisfaction facets. Hence, job satisfaction can be considered a multidimensional construct (Poulin, 1995).

Overall or general job satisfaction describes a person's overall affective reaction to the set of work and work-related factors (Cranny, Smith & Stone, 1992). The facets of job satisfaction involve workers' feelings toward separate dimensions of the work and work environment (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992). Some of the most common and most important facets of job satisfaction are: the characteristics of the work itself, the amount of work, the physical conditions where the work is done, coworkers, supervision, compensation, promotional opportunities, and organizational policies and practices (Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992). Because individuals have different feelings toward various dimensions of their jobs, they should be able to discriminate among the different job satisfaction facets.

Facets of Job Satisfaction

The above mentioned facets of job satisfaction suggest that various aspects of the work situation may contribute to total satisfaction (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1975). The job characteristics model suggests that five core job dimensions affect certain personal and work outcomes, including job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1974). These five core job dimensions are autonomy, feedback, skill variety, task identity, and task significance (Hackman & Oldham, 1974). Hackman and Oldham (1974) developed the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), which is a widely used instrument that analyzes the scope of one's job. They developed a formula to calculate one's job scope, which is called motivating potential score (MPS). The formula for MPS is $[(\text{skill variety} + \text{task identity} + \text{task significance})/3] * \text{autonomy} * \text{feedback}$. The JDS (Hackman & Oldham, 1974) measures autonomy, feedback, skill variety, task identity, and task significance.

Research has shown that the situational variables of autonomy, feedback, skill variety, task identity, and task significance account for a significant amount of variance in job satisfaction (Anderson, 1984; Colarelli, Dean, & Konstans, 1987). In particular, research has shown statistically significant relationships between the facets

of job satisfaction as measured by the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Balzer, Smith, Kravitz, Lovell, Reilly, & Reilly 1990) and the job characteristics as measured by the JDS (Roedel & Nystrom, 1988). By the very nature of what the JDI measures, it makes sense that there are relationships between the JDI and the JDS. The satisfaction with the work itself facet assesses how satisfied an individual is with such things as autonomy and task variety (Balzer et al., 1990), which are assessed by the JDS. One of the things assessed by the satisfaction with supervision facet is how satisfied is an individual with the feedback his/her supervisor provides, which is also assessed by the JDS. Thus, both of these scales should be used in assessing racioethnic differences in job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction and Racial/Ethnic Differences

Much of the research on racial differences in the job satisfaction literature over the past two decades has focused on the examination of racial differences between blacks and whites with some recent inclusion of Hispanics. Ash (1972) examined differences in job satisfaction among black women, white women, and women with Spanish surnames. He concluded that black women were more dissatisfied than Spanish-surname women and white women. And, women with

Spanish-surnames were more dissatisfied than white women. Slocum and Strawser (1972) examined the differences on different facets of job satisfaction among black and white certified public accountants. They concluded that with respect to the job's potential to satisfy needs for esteem, compensation, autonomy, and self-actualization black CPAs were less satisfied than white CPAs.

A year later, O'Reilly and Roberts (1973) using hospital clerical staff and nurses also concluded that the black employees reported less job satisfaction than the white employees. On the other hand, Gavin and Ewen's (1974) study concluded that in their sample of blue-collar airline employees, blacks were more satisfied than their white counterparts. In a similar study, Katzell, Ewen, and Korman (1974) also reported that job satisfaction for black blue-collar workers was slightly higher than for the white blue-collar workers.

Jones, James, Bruni, and Sells (1977) showed that black sailors reported higher extrinsic satisfaction on such measures as pay, rules, and regulations than white sailors, with no differences being found on the measures of intrinsic satisfaction. Milutinovich's (1977) study of black and white blue-collar workers concluded that the black female group was more dissatisfied than the white female group. In

a nationwide cross-sectional study conducted between 1972 and 1978, Weaver (1980) concluded that blacks reported notably lower global job satisfaction than whites.

Buzawa (1984) found that black patrol officers were more satisfied than white patrol officers. Davis (1985) examined racial differences in job satisfaction among black and white social work faculty members. He concluded that the black faculty members were less satisfied than the white faculty members. Brenner and Fernsten (1984) indicated that black white collar workers perceived greater fulfillment on 22 of the 25 characteristics surveyed (e.g., intellectually stimulating, advancement opportunities, supervision of other employees) than their white counterparts. The authors explained these results by suggesting that the expectations of blacks about the rewards of a job may be lower than whites because historically they have not been in the same positions as their white counterparts.

Moch (1980) widened the variables of interest by examining the differences among white, black, and Mexican American workers on job satisfaction while considering different structural, cultural, social, and social psychological factors. Moch's (1980) cultural factors included some of the job's intrinsic rewards (e.g., doing something worthwhile) and extrinsic rewards (e.g., pay).

The integration with or isolation from friendship networks constituted his social factors. Likewise, the deprivation or discrimination perceived by the individual as compared to others was considered the psychosocial factor. His study concluded that 53% of the variance in job satisfaction among the three racioethnic groups surveyed was attributable to race differences. Moch (1980) also reported that whites and blacks placed more importance on the cultural factor of extrinsic rewards than Mexican Americans; also, the social factor of relationships was of more importance to whites than blacks and Mexican Americans.

Moch's (1980) findings suggested that racial differences may occur across various structural, cultural, social, and psychosocial aspects of a job. Gold, Webb, and Smith's (1982) study extended the examination of racial differences in job satisfaction beyond that of Moch (1980) by including the cultural factors of employees' beliefs, values, and psychological states. Their findings indicated that whites scored higher on the factors of overall satisfaction than blacks.

Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990) examined the relationships among lower and middle-level white and black managers for such organizational experiences as career satisfaction, advancement prospects, supervisory support,

acceptance by other employees, job performance evaluations, job discretion, and sponsorship. Their conclusions were as follows: 1) blacks reported more dissatisfaction with their careers than whites; 2) blacks received lower assessments for promotability than whites; 3) blacks were more likely to be at the height of their careers than whites; and 4) blacks were rated lower on job performance than whites. Chusmir and Koberg (1990) examined ethnic differences in job satisfaction among Hispanic and non-Hispanic workers. They concluded that Hispanics were less satisfied with pay, supervision, and co-workers than the non-Hispanics. Tuch and Martin (1991) found that black blue-collar workers had lower job satisfaction than white blue-collar workers due to their relative disadvantages on many individual-, firm-, and industry-level characteristics which promote job satisfaction.

Tsui, Egan, and O'Reilly (1992) took a different approach in examining the relationship between race and job-related attitudes. They noted that previous research has typically examined how racial differences within a work environment affect minority members as opposed to majority members. Their conclusions were that the larger the diversity within a work group, 1) the lower whites' job satisfaction, psychological commitment to the organization

and intent to stay with the organization than blacks and 2) the higher whites' frequency of absences than blacks.

Lankau and Scandura (1995) examined racial differences in job satisfaction among white, black, and Hispanic nurses. Their results indicated that Hispanic workers tend to be more satisfied with their jobs than the black and white workers. Their explanation for this finding is that with the recent entry of many Hispanics into the work force, they have yet to become dissatisfied with their positions.

Lankau and Scandura (1995) also posited that minorities may report being more satisfied than whites when their organization is more racioethnically diverse.

The results discussed in this literature review provide conflicting empirical evidence on racial (race/national origin) differences in job satisfaction. Table 1 gives some examples of how the construct of physioethnicity has been operationalized. Intuitively, it can be deduced that these conflicting results would suggest that a multifaceted approach to measuring job satisfaction is necessary as opposed to the global measures of job satisfaction used in some of the previous research (i.e., Lankau & Scandura, 1996; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). This may provide finer granularity in detecting on which dimensions of job satisfaction racioethnic differences exist. Additionally,

these conflicting results may also suggest that the physical or descriptive variable race/national origin is not sufficient in explaining racioethnic differences in job satisfaction. A third possible reason for the inconsistent findings may be due to an artifact of measurement; meaning, does satisfaction mean different things to individuals of different racioethnic groups? This is a common concern in cross-cultural research (Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994; Van de Vliert & Van Yperen, 1996). Combined, these three concerns would suggest taking a different approach (a multifaceted approach) in examining the relationship between racioethnicity and job satisfaction.

Table 1. Previous Operationalizations of Physioethnicity Construct

Author (Date) Journal	Instrument(s)	Reliabilities	Validity	Conclusions	Comments
Slocum & Strawser (1972) <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>	race/national origin	Not reported	Not reported	Black CPAs were less satisfied than White CPAs with respect to compensation, autonomy, and self-actualization	
O'Reilly & Roberts (1973) <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>	race/national origin	Not reported	Not reported	Black clerical staff and nurses were less satisfied than their White counterparts	This comment speaks to all the articles described in this particular table. These articles only examine race/ethnicity as an observable variable. The nonobservable dimensions of race/ethnicity are not considered. This may explain the lack of consensus with this stream of research
Jones, James, Bruni, & Sells (1977) <i>Personnel Psychology</i>	race/national origin	Not reported	Not reported	Black sailors reported higher satisfaction on pay, rules, and regulations than White sailors	
Weaver (1980) <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>	race/national origin	Not reported	Not reported	Blacks reported lower global job satisfaction than Whites	
Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley (1990) <i>Academy of Management Journal</i>	race/national origin	Not reported	Not reported	Blacks reported more dissatisfaction and received lower assessments for promotability than Whites	
Tsui, Egan, O'Reilly (1992) <i>Administrative Science Quarterly</i>	race/national origin	Not reported	Not reported	Whites reported lower psychological commitment and intent to stay and a higher frequency of absences than Blacks in largely diverse workgroups	
Lankau & Scandura (1996) <i>International Journal of Public Administration</i>	race/national origin	Not reported	Not reported	Hispanics tended to be more satisfied with their jobs than Black and White workers	

Orthogonal Cultural Identification Theory

The orthogonal identification model (Oetting & Beauvais, 1990) offers a different approach to cultural identification than previous models (e.g., Berry, 1976). For example, Berry's (1976) model anticipates either "behavioral shifts" or "acculturative stress." "Behavioral shifts" are reflective of moving away from behaviors reflective of the racioethnic culture to behaviors reflective of the majority culture. On the other hand, "acculturative stress" is reflective of the dissonance of being caught between two cultures. Berry's (1976) model assumes that there will be a transition (possibly a difficult transition) from the "old culture" to the "new culture (the dominant culture).

The orthogonal cultural identification model is different from Berry's (1976) model in that identification with one culture is independent of identification with any other culture(s). Further, the orthogonal cultural identification model suggests that identification with one culture can range from cultural anomie (lack of identification), low identification, medium identification to high cultural identification. This means that there can be many patterns or combinations of cultural identification on one or more cultural dimensions.

Thus, an individual can have acultural identification, monocultural identification, bicultural identification, multicultural identification, and any combination of high, medium, low, or no identification on one or more cultural dimensions. This is referred to as an individual's culturalism. Given the above explanation, this model is unique in that the different cultures are at right angles to each other (orthogonal) as opposed to being placed on opposite ends of a continuum.

Consistent with orthogonal cultural identification theory, Sanchez and Fernandez (1993) have suggested that racioethnic and mainstream affiliation may not be at opposite ends of a continuum. They purported that there are multiple categories with which one can identify, two of those social identification dimensions being mainstream and racioethnic. Orthogonal cultural identification theory is also unique in that it acknowledges that an individual's cultural environment is constantly evolving. This cultural evolution begins with family experiences and continues throughout one's life experiences. Such a cultural context leads to the development of an individual's psychosocial identity (Erikson, 1959), and an individual's perceptions, attitudes, and feelings are grounded in his/her psychosocial identity (Lewin, 1948). Lewin (1948) suggests that

belonging to and identifying with more than one group (being bicultural or multicultural) is both healthy and necessary for racioethnic minorities, thereby supporting the theory for racioethnic minorities at the least. Table 2 shows instruments which have been used to operationalize the independence of different cultural identification. This independence of cultural identifications is in line with recent acculturation literature, which acknowledges that racioethnic minorities may retain their cultures, while also acquiring the mainstream or majority racioethnic culture (Sanchez & Fernandez, 1993). Individuals of racioethnic minority groups were then and are now expected to learn how to assimilate into the majority culture.

Table 2. Previous Operationalizations of BI- or Multicultural Identification (the Socioethnicity Construct)

Author (Date) <i>Journal</i>	Instrument(s)	Reliability	Validity	Conclusions	Comments
Oetting & Beauvais (1991) <i>International Journal of the Addictions</i>	Orthogonal Cultural Identity Scale	2-item scale - reliabilities of at least .70 4-item scale - reliabilities between .80 and .89	Correlations provided evidence for both concurrent and discriminant validity	Identification with one culture can be reliably assess independent of identification with another culture(s)	Due to the nature the definition of ethnicity (cultural identification), I believe new and separate racioethnic scales need to be developed.
Sanchez & Fernandez (1993) <i>Journal of Applied Social Psychology</i>	Hispanic Identification Scale & American Identification Scale	.85 - Hispanic Identification Scale .59 - American Identification Scale	Provided evidence of both concurrent and discriminant validity	ethnic identification and mainstream identification are not opposite ends of the same scale	A more reliable American identification scale needs to be developed. Although the term ethnic identification is used, it is more in line with my construct of ethnicity instead of ethnic identity.

As recently noted by Tsui, Egan and O'Reilly (1992:549), "the impact of increasing diversity on the majority" has not received much attention in the literature. Along the same lines, research is also needed to examine the acquiring of minority racioethnic cultures by individuals of the mainstream or majority racioethnic culture. Tsui and her associates (1992) concluded that organizational diversity (heterogeneity in work units) negatively affected whites more so than nonwhites. One possible explanation for this phenomenon could be that because whites are of the mainstream or dominant racioethnic culture, they do not typically psychosocially identify with more than their own racioethnic (white) group. Therefore, members of the majority racioethnic group may tend to be more monocultural than racioethnic minorities, who tend to be bicultural or multicultural, thereby causing their attitudes to differ. Hence, the orthogonal cultural identification theory is offered as a link to understand how the psychosocial dimension of racioethnicity may lead to possible differences in job satisfaction among individuals of different racioethnic groups.

H1: Bicultural and multicultural individuals will report higher levels of job satisfaction than acultural and monocultural individuals.

H2: For the majority culture, bicultural and multicultural individuals will report higher levels of job satisfaction than acultural and monocultural individuals.

Self-Categorization Theory

The psychological concept of self-categorization theory (Turner et al, 1987) is an extension of the original social identity theory, which assumes an interaction between the social context and the psychological process (Turner & Oakes, 1989). Social identity theory posits that an individual's self-image is dependent, in part, on the social groups (in this case, racioethnic group) to which the individual perceives himself/herself to be a member (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Self-categorization theory extends further to posit that self-concept is comprised of personal identity and social identity. Personal identity refers to the cognitive self classifications an individual makes based on similarities or differences relative to other individuals.

On the other hand, social identity refers to cognitive self categorizations based on similarities or differences which stem from group memberships (Banaji & Prentice, 1994).

Thus, relative ingroup and outgroup distinctions are large determinants of self-concept based on social identification (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

One's definition of self as a group member is determined by how his/her group differs relative to another group. This leads to a shift from self-definitions of "me" and "you" to between-group distinctions of "we" and "they" (Gaertner, Mann, Murrell, & Dovidio, 1989; Johnson, 1996). So, instead of an individual seeing himself/herself as a single individual possessing certain attributes, the individual sees himself/herself as belonging to a particular group. This motivates an individual to categorize himself/herself into a particular group by comparing "ingroup-outgroup relationships;" in this case racioethnic group (Oakes, Haslam, & Turner, 1994). Some of the most sustainable forms of group categorization are race, ethnicity and gender (Gudykunst, 1994; Stangor, Lynch, Duan, & Glass, 1992).

An individual's definition of self based on group categorization causes his/her personal perceptions, values, attitudes, and behaviors to be reflective of the group's

perceptions, values, attitudes, and behaviors (Brewer & Kramer, 1985). The theory suggests that an individual is likely to perceive his/her personal experiences as intertwining with those of the group (Brewer & Kramer, 1985). To the extent that an individual psychologically self-categorizes himself/herself into a particular racioethnic group, his/her attitudes (job satisfaction in particular) may be reflective of the group's attitudes.

The evocation of self-categorization is predicated on the tenet of category salience. The salience of category membership is a function of a given social context (Oakes & Turner, 1986). The individual's relative salience of group category is what allows one to selectively focus attention on specific aspects of himself/herself, thus self-categorize into a particular category--a particular racioethnic group (Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & McGarty, 1994). Therefore, category salience is the psychological awareness of a certain dimension within a given social context (Cota & Dion, 1986).

Self-categorization theory further states that "accessibility" and "fit" of group membership are determinants of group category salience. The relative ease with which a category can be induced by the individual is referred to as "accessibility" (Oakes, Turner, & Haslam,

1991). Likewise, the perceived relevance of the category to the situation at hand is referred to as "fit" (Oakes, Turner, & Haslam, 1991).

Therefore, a racioethnic category becomes salient to an individual to the extent that the individual is willing to self-define based on that categorization and perceives a link between that categorization and his/her current social environment. Hence, individuals use self categorization labels to locate themselves within their social environments (Hutnik, 1991). For example, a African American female in a group of white females categorizes herself as African American rather than female because everyone is female, but the comparative group is white American. This cognitive awareness is often prompted by environmental stimulus, such as the physical presence of comparative group members (Hogg & Turner, 1987; Wilder & Sharipo, 1984).

The social psychological theory of self-categorization has been tested in both laboratory settings (Turner & Oakes, 1989) and organizational settings (Ely, 1994; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). Supporting evidence for the predictions of the theory have been found in both types of settings. In a laboratory setting, Turner and Oakes (1989) reported that an individual is perceived more as a prototypical in-group member if he/she differs less from the in-group members and

more from the outgroup members. Therefore, an individual tends to self categorize by using a comparative context of "in-group-outgroup relationships" (Oakes, Haslam, & Turner, 1994). This phenomenon was termed "meta-contrast principle" (Oakes et. al., 1994; Turner & Oakes, 1989).

In a field study using social identity and the salience of group membership, Ely (1994) compared hierarchical and peer relationships among women in male-dominated firms to those in highly sex-integrated firms. In comparing hierarchical and peer relationships, he found that women in the male-dominated firms rated women partners more negatively than those women in highly sex-integrated firms. Therefore, Ely (1994) concluded that the sex composition of the firm did influence junior women's attitudes towards women partners.

Ely (1994) also noted that junior women seemed to identify with women partners regardless of whether the firm was male-dominated or highly sex-integrated. As noted above, they rated women in male-dominated firms more negatively than those in sex-integrated firms. This identification with women partners by junior women follows the predictions of social identity theory and the extended self-categorization theory in that they focused on the fact that they are women, but the social context (type of firm)

impacted how they identified with or viewed other women within the firm. Ely (1994) concluded by stating that this is a useful theoretical framework for researching the experiences of racioethnic minorities in the work place as it pertains to underrepresentation in organizational hierarchies.

Prior to Ely's (1994) findings, Tsui and her associates (1992) used social identity theory and self categorization theory to suggest that attitudes of individuals are influenced by their perceived similarities and dissimilarities with others. They found that to the extent that individuals differ greatly from others in their work unit, their intent to stay with and psychological commitment to the organization would be lower, and their frequencies of absences would be higher.

It has been established that given assessibility and fit within a given social environment, an individual will self categorize into a particular racioethnic group. Therefore, psychoethnicity is different from physioethnicity and socioethnicity. Whereas psychoethnicity is a psychological process controlled by the individual, the individual cannot control his/her physioethnicity (the racioethnic group he/she is born) nor does he/she have much control over his/her socioethnicity (psychosocialization

process, which relates to the way the individual was raised or socialized). Therefore, an individual's psychoethnicity, his/her labeling of himself/herself, is the only dimension of racioethnicity within his/her control.

Just identifying with a particular racioethnic group does not mean that all individuals who identify with the same racioethnic group will share similar attitudes and behaviors (Cox, 1993). The strength of one's psychoethnicity is more reflective of how it may influence his/her attitudes and behaviors (Gudykunst, 1994). If one has low psychoethnic identification, then his/her attitudes are not likely to be in line with those attitudes of the group and vice versa. Table 3 shows how the constructs of psychoethnicity and strength of psychoethnicity have been operationalized. The strength of one's psychoethnicity refers to the relative importance or value that he/she places on his/her psychoethnicity (Cox, 1993). The stronger one's psychoethnicity, the more it will influence his/her attitudes to be in line with those of the group (Gudykunst, 1994).

Table 3. Previous Operationalizations of the Psychoethnicity Construct

Author (Date) Journal	Instrument(s)	Reliability	Validity	Conclusions	Comments
McGuire, McGuire, Child, & Fujioka (1978) <i>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</i>	"Tell us about yourself" probe	Not reported	Not reported	1 in 6 Blacks, 1 in 7 Hispanics, and only 1 in 100 Whites mentioned race/ethnicity	The use of this scale is questionable for rigorous statistical analysis.
Hofman (1985) <i>Journal of Multilingual & Multicultural Development</i>	Ethnic Subidentity Scale	.38 (3 items) with the U.S. sample and .48 with the Israeli sample	used principal components analysis with varimax rotation of factors	ethnic identity is a subcategory of social identity	A more reliable scale needs to be developed.
Cota & Dion (1986) <i>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</i>	"Tell me about yourself"	Not reported	Not reported	concluded that gender salience and gender identity are different domains	Need to examine the domains of ethnic identity and ethnic salience.
Ethier & Desux (1994) <i>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</i>	Collective Self-Esteem Scale (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992) with items written to refer to Hispanic identity & after giving examples subjects were asked to name all the identities important to him/her, and then rate them in order of importance	.92 - Time 1 .91 - Time 2 .91 - Time 3	Not reported	ethnic identity is linked to one's cultural background	Need to measure ethnic identity for all race/ethnic groups.
Gudykunst (1994) <i>Bridging Differences</i>	Strength of Ethnic Identity Scale	Not reported	Not reported	the stronger ethnic identity with the group, the more the ethnic identity will influence the attitudes & behaviors	Need to reduce scale and assess the reliability and validity of the revised scale.

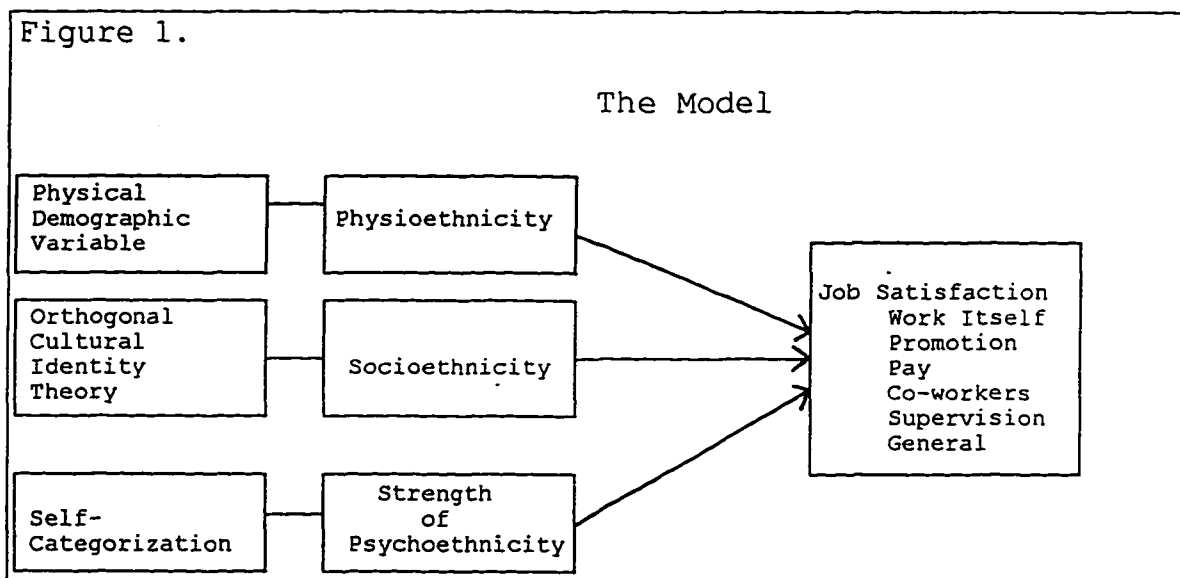
H3: For the majority culture, individuals with higher strength of psychoethnicity will report higher levels of job satisfaction than individuals with lower strength of psychoethnicity.

Job Satisfaction, Orthogonal Cultural Identification Theory, Self-Categorization Theory, and Racial/Ethnic Differences

As mentioned above, job satisfaction is a work-related attitude which represents an individual's predisposition about the job. An individual's level of job satisfaction is the result of many factors, some of which cannot be influenced by the employer (Crow & Hartman, 1995). There is a body of research which suggests that, perhaps, job attitudes are to some degree genetically influenced. Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, and Abraham (1989) found that genetic and socialization factors explained approximately 30% of the variance of general feelings of job satisfaction. The socioethnicity of an individual, which is a multifaceted construct that contains genetic and socialization dimensions, can shape the individual's values, beliefs, and attitudes. Although there has only been minimal research using this multifaceted approach, it has been shown to influence an individual's job attitudes as well (Arvey et. al., 1989). Therefore, a multifaceted approach to examining

racioethnic differences seems appropriate to examine the contribution of this approach (the three dimensions of racioethnicity --physical, psychosocial, and psychological) in understanding differences in job satisfaction.

H4: The interaction between physioethnicity, socioethnicity, and strength of psychoethnicity will positively influence job satisfaction.



Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

Research Site

A field survey was chosen as the method to empirically test the hypotheses presented in this study. A law enforcement agency in a major metropolitan area in the Southeastern U.S. was used to test the hypotheses. This organization has a heterogeneous work environment like many organizations today--actually probably more heterogeneous than the typical organization in the U.S. The work environment is comprised of 500 patrol officers: approximately 25% of the patrol officers are African American, 50% Hispanic, and 25% White American. Additionally, women comprised 17% of this work environment and men comprised 83% of the work environment.

Procedure

Prior to the distribution of the survey, permission was granted to the primary investigator by the Chief of Police and the Assistant Chief of Administration to attend all of the roll call sessions at the agency's three stations. Permission was granted to take 30 minutes to administer the

survey. In order to reach as many officers as possible, the surveys were distributed at the 6:30 a.m., 3:00 p.m., and 9:00 p.m. roll calls at the beginning of the week and the end of the week for each station.

Additionally, a memo was sent from the Assistant Chief of Administration to the Assistant Chief of Field Operations to advise the officers that a survey endorsed by the agency and the local union would be administered. This memo was read by the administrative officer of each roll call introducing the survey and advising that participation would be on a strictly voluntary basis. The officers were informed that the survey asked questions about their feelings and attitudes towards their job at the agency.

It was re-emphasized that their participation in this project was voluntary, but that it would be greatly appreciated if they took the time to fill out the anonymous, confidential survey. It was also requested that they complete the entire survey if they decided to participate and place their completed surveys in a steel, locked drop box. Again, both anonymity and confidentiality were stressed. The officers were asked to provide their department identification number on the back of the envelope if they felt comfortable doing so. They were told that it would be used to make sure a survey was received from

everyone and to collect additional employee data. They were assured that no member of the agency would ever see the individual surveys; members of the agency would only receive the results in an aggregated report form after statistical analyses were performed.

If the officers agreed to participate, they were given an envelope which contained a cover letter, a survey, and a space on the envelope to enter their identification number. The cover letter gave a brief overview which discussed the relevance of the survey and specific instructions for completing the questionnaire. The officers were instructed to seal their completed surveys in the envelope provided. They then dropped their sealed envelope in the locked drop box.

Instrumentation

A pretest questionnaire was administered to a subset of seven officers in order to make sure the questions were clear and the questionnaire and scales were free of mistakes. One mistake was corrected and one item (Please indicate the type of job assignment you currently hold: ...) was added to the questionnaire as a result of the pretest. The scales used in the questionnaire for the purpose of

analysis were the psychoethnicity and strength of psychoethnicity scales, three(3) cultural identity scales (White American, Black American, and Spanish American scales), the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), Job in General (JIG) scales, the Organizational Sensitivity to Diversity scale, and the 15-item Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). Each of these scales will be discussed in depth. In addition to these scales, several other scales were included in the questionnaire: an Asian American scale, an American Indian scale, the Organizational Commitment scale, an intent to stay scale, a measure for absenteeism, and a perceived stress scale.

Independent Variables

Physioethnicity. The demographic variable of race and/or national origin was used to operationalize the construct of physioethnicity. This has been the typical method in previous research for assessing an individual's physioethnicity. The particular labeling of the categories was similar to those used by this law enforcement agency. The label of "Hispanic/Latino, black" was added to the Department's original labeling scheme. The labels used are as follows:

- 1) non-Hispanic, white
- 2) non-Hispanic, black
- 3) Hispanic/Latino, white
- 4) Hispanic/Latino, black
- 5) Asian/Pacific Islander
- 6) American Indian/Alaskan Native
- 7) Other - please specify

Socioethnicity. Oetting and Beauvais (1991) used the Orthogonal Cultural Identity Scale to operationalize the construct of socioethnicity. They stated that to reliably assess the cultural identification or socioethnicity of adults, only two items are needed: 1) "Do you live in the . . . way of life?" and 2) "Are you a success in the . . . way of life?" These two items should produce reliabilities of at least .70 if the construct is meaningful to the participants. Using oblique factor rotation, Oetting and Beauvais (1991) also reported evidence of concurrent and discriminant validity.

Oetting and Beauvais (1991) suggest that in assessing cultural identification, the number of items and specific content of the items used should be dictated by the nature of the research. Therefore, a pilot study using Oetting and Beauvais' original orthogonal cultural identity scale and

additional newly created items (based from the literature) was conducted to develop 5 scales to assess the cultural identification with the various racioethnic groups.

The terms Black America and Spanish America were used for a couple of reasons. The first reason was that they were the terms used in the original Oetting and Beauvais (1991) orthogonal cultural identification scale. A second reason for using the term Black instead of African American was due to the nature of the participants in the study. Although some of the participants are African Americans (meaning American blacks), there are several other subgroups of black participants (i.e., Jamaicans, Haitians, etc.) who do not consider themselves African American, but who do consider themselves black Americans. And since the Black American scale is assessing the black culture, the term Black America(n) is used for the Black American scale. Similarly, because there are several subgroups of participants with Spanish or Latin heritage, the term Spanish America is used as an all-encompassing term to assess the Spanish culture. Additionally, the terms Hispanic and Latino have been debated in the literature recently, but no clear consensus has been reached (cf., Asamoah, 1991; Evinger, 1996), thus the use of the term Spanish.

Construction of Cultural Identification Scales

A questionnaire with 35 items (10 items from Oetting and Beauvais's scale and 25 newly created items) was administered to 56 undergraduate business students at a public university in the Southeastern U.S. The sample consisted of 11 whites, 17 blacks, and 23 Hispanics, 2 Asian, no Native Americans, and 3 "others." The questionnaire consisted of 7 items to assess cultural identification with 5 racioethnic groups (White American, Black American, Spanish American, Asian American, and Native American). Due to the low reliability of the one orthogonal cultural identity scale, it was decided to construct 5 different scales to measure cultural identification with each racioethnic group rather than one orthogonal cultural identity scale similar to that of Oetting and Beauvais's (1991). In addition, Sanchez and Fernandez (1993) used one scale to measure Hispanic identification and one to measure mainstream identification. Therefore, the 5 different racioethnic scales with 7 items for each scale, for a total of 35 items, were constructed.

The first two items of each scale for the different racioethnic scales were Oetting and Beauvais's (1991) original items. The third item was, "I have extensive

socialization and life experiences in the ... culture." The fourth item was, " I participate in the ... culture." The fifth item was, "I was raised to follow the ... culture." The sixth item was "I am committed to ... social ties and behavior," concluding with the seventh item which was, "I am strongly influenced by ...". These additional 5 items were created after canvassing the cultural identification literature (Birman, 1994; Lonner, 1994).

Reliability analyses were run for the 5 scales with all 7 items to determine if the theoretically constructed scales are reliable. The White American 7-item scale had an alpha of .71 with a standardized item alpha of .78. The Black American 7-item scale had an alpha of .93 with a standardized item alpha of .94. The Spanish American 7-item scale had an alpha of .78 with a standardized item alpha of .92. The Asian American 7-item scale had an alpha of .44 with a standardized item alpha of .86. The Native American 7-item scale had an alpha of .28 with a standardized alpha of .69. Refer to Appendix B, Table 1 for a summary of the reliability analyses.

For the sake of parsimony, three-item scales for each racioethnic group were developed. To determine which three of the same items would be used for each racioethnic scale,

a reliability table was constructed using the alpha if the item was deleted for all seven items on all five scales. The means including the Native American scale and the means without the Native American scales were calculated. The means without the Native American scales were calculated and ultimately used because it had a low alpha (.28) and standardized item alpha (.69). The three items with the lowest means were retained because they increased reliability (See Appendix B, Table 2). Using this method, the three items retained for each 3-item scale were: 1) "Do you live by or follow the ... way of life?"; 2) "I was raised to follow the ... culture."; and 3) "I am strongly influenced by ...". By retaining these three items, the scales had the following alphas: 1) the White American scale - .82; 2) the Black American scale - .86; 3) the Spanish American scale - .95; 4) the Asian American scale .94; and 5) the Native American scale - .10. These results are summarized in Appendix B, Table 3. After polling several non-American Hispanic students, one possible explanation for low reliability score for the Native American scale was that individuals not born and raised in the U.S. perceived the term "Native American" to mean *from America (the U.S.)* instead of perceiving it to mean American Indian, as it was intended to mean. Therefore, the term

American Indian was used instead of Native American.

Although the reliability of the Native American scale was low, it was retained for 2 reasons: 1) for uniformity with the other scales and 2) so that any Native American participants would not be offended if the scale was omitted.

Psychoethnicity. An open-ended question, "To which racioethnic group do you identify yourself as a member?" was used to operationalize the construct of psychoethnicity. Three items from Hofman's (1985) 10-item were used to determine the strength of an individual's psychoethnicity.

Construction of the Strength of Psychoethnicity Scale

A pilot test of a questionnaire with 6 items was administered to the same 56 undergraduate business students at the public university in the Southeastern U.S. Again, the sample consisted of 11 whites, 17 blacks, 23 Hispanics, 2 Asian, no Native Americans, and 3 "others." Six items were tested. The first item (listed below) was to assess psychoethnicity, and the remaining five items were to assess strength of psychoethnicity as listed below. The six items were as follows: 1) "To which racioethnic group do you identify yourself as a member?"; 2) "Being a member of my racioethnic group is important to me."; 3) "Being a member

of my racioethnic group plays a large role in my life.”; 4) “I choose to express my racioethnicity in the way I communicate.”; 5) “If others do not recognize me as a member of my racioethnic group, it upsets me.”; and 6) “Thinking about myself as a member of my racioethnic group is central to how I define myself.” Again, for the sake of parsimony, three items were desired for the strength of psychoethnicity scale. The three strength of psychoethnicity items that were retained are 1) “Being a member of my racioethnic group plays a large role in my life.”; 2) “I choose to express my racioethnicity in the way I communicate.”; and 3) “Thinking about myself as a member of my racioethnic group is central to how I define myself.” A reliability analysis of the 3-item strength of psychoethnicity scale yielded an alpha of .75. These results are summarized in Appendix B, Table 4.

Dependent Variables

Facets of Job Satisfaction. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Job in General scales (JIG) (Balzer, Smith, Kravitz, Lovell, Paul, Reilly, & Reilly, 1990) were used to operationalize the facets of job satisfaction. The facets measured by the JDI and JIG are the work itself, pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision, and job in general. The

User's Manual--JDI and JIG scales--provides substantial evidence of reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity (Balzer, et. al., 1990).

Control Variables

Covariates. The covariates in this analysis were gender, tenure, and education because research has shown that they impact job satisfaction (Balzer, et al., 1990). The work context and its diversity climate were controlled statistically because Cox's Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity suggests an interaction between the individual, group, and organizational factors in the work context. The diversity climate of the work environment was controlled statistically by using the Organizational Support for Diversity Scale (see Appendix B, Table 5) developed by Gutierrez (1996).

A relationship between the job satisfaction and the five core job dimensions has been proven (Hackman & Oldham, 1974). However, research has been mixed as to whether the JDS measures its underlying constructs of autonomy, feedback, skill variety, task identity, and task significance (Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987). Idaszak and Drasgow (1987) revised the five reverse scored items on the JDS to

eliminate the measurement artifact associated with the reverse scored items. This revised JDS (Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987) measures the five underlying constructs with more accuracy than the original JDS. Kulik, Oldham, and Langner (1988) also confirmed that the revised JDS conforms more closely to the underlying constructs of autonomy, feedback, skill variety, task identity, and task significance than the original JDS. Idaszak and Drasgow (1987) suggested that their revised version be used instead of the original JDS when assessing the five job characteristics. Thus, the revised Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) 15-item short version (Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987) was used to control for job characteristics (see Appendix B, Table 6).

Sample

The participants were police officers with a law enforcement agency in a major metropolitan city in the Southeastern U.S. The survey was administered to 357 officers during their morning roll calls. The participants' participation in the study was voluntary, and they were assured that their individual responses would be completely confidential. Of the 357 surveys administered, 291 surveys were returned (81.5% response rate). Of the 291 surveys

received, 48 officers checked non-Hispanic white, 75 non-Hispanic black, 143 Hispanic/Latino white, 4 Hispanic/Latino black, 1 Asian/Pacific Islander, 1 American Indian/Alaskan Native, 4 Other, and 15 did not respond to the question. Due to the small sample sizes of those officers who checked Hispanic/Latino black, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaskan Native, their responses were eliminated from the statistical analyses. This left a sample size of 247 for statistical purposes. Appendix B, Table 7 provides a demographic profile of the entire sample. A majority of the police officers surveyed were male (79.4%). Appendix B, Table 7 also gives the demographic profile by physioethnicity, socioethnicity, and strength of psychoethnicity.

Measures

Physioethnicity. Physioethnicity was indicated by what the participants checked as their race and/or national origin.

Strength of Psychoethnicity. Strength of psychoethnicity, which measures the relative importance of one's identification with his/her racioethnic group, was coded 1 = low, 2 = medium, and 3 = high. The coefficient alpha

reliability was .81. The inter-item correlations and factor loadings are listed in Table 4.

	Factor Loadings	r with scale	Reliability
3-Item Strength of Psychoethnicity Scale			.81
Being a member of my racioethnic group plays a large role in my life.	.79	.80	
I choose to express my racioethnicity in the way I communicate.	.87	.86	
Thinking about myself as a member of my racioethnic group is central to how I define myself.	.88	.88	
Psychoethnicity			
To which race/ethnic origin do you identify yourself as a member?	.99		

Socioethnicity/Culturalism. Socioethnicity/culturalism, which indicates how many cultures an individual identifies with, was coded 0 = acultural, 1 = monocultural, 2 = bicultural, 3 = multicultural. This was derived from the participants scores on the White American scale (coefficient alpha = .84), the Black American scale (coefficient alpha = .89), and the Spanish American scale (coefficient alpha = .86). (Note: The Asian American scale, coefficient alpha .68, and the American Indian scale, coefficient alpha .76, were not used in the statistical analyses.) The factor loadings and inter-item correlations with the scales are listed in Table 5.

Table 5. 3-Item Racioethnic Cultural Identity Scales			
Varimax Rotation - extracted 5 factors			
	Factor Loadings	r with scale	Standardized Reliabilities
Factor 1 - Spanish American Scale			.86
Do you live by or follow the Spanish-American way of life?	.88	.90	.86
I was raised to follow the Spanish American culture.	.94	.90	
I am strongly influenced by Spanish America.	.87	.86	
Factor 2 - Asian American Scale			.69
Do you live by or follow the Asian-American way of life?	.64	.84	.70
I was raised to follow the Asian American culture.	.61	.67	
I am strongly influenced by Asian America.	.73	.84	
Native American Scale			.76
Do you live by or follow the American Indian way of life?	.75	.82	.77
I was raised to follow the Native American culture.	.72	.81	
I am strongly influenced by Native America.	.82	.84	
Factor 3 - Black American Scale			.89
Do you live by or follow the Black-American way of life?	.86	.91	.89
I was raised to follow the Black American culture.	.83	.93	
I am strongly influenced by Black America.	.81	.88	
Factor 4 - White American Scale			.84
Do you live by or follow the White-American way of life?	.83	.88	.84
I was raised to follow the White American culture.	.86	.86	
I am strongly influenced by White America.	.86	.87	

Satisfaction with the work itself. Satisfaction with the work itself, which taps various attributes of work such as opportunities for creativity, autonomy, task identity, etc., was scored 0 to 54 as prescribed in the JDI User Manual (Balzer, et al., 1990).

Satisfaction with pay. Satisfaction with pay, which taps one's perceived difference between actual and expected pay, was scored 0 to 54 as prescribed in the JDI User Manual (Balzer, et al., 1990).

Satisfaction with promotions. Satisfaction with promotions, which assesses attitudes towards the organization's promotion policy, was scored 0 to 54 as prescribed in the JDI User Manual (Balzer, et al., 1990).

Satisfaction with supervision. Satisfaction with supervision, which assesses attitudes towards one's supervisor(s), was scored 0 to 54 as prescribed in the JDI User Manual (Balzer, et al., 1990).

Satisfaction with coworkers. Satisfaction with coworkers, which reflects one's attitudes about his/her fellow employees, was scored 0 to 54 as prescribed in the JDI User Manual (Balzer, et al., 1990).

Job satisfaction in general. Job satisfaction in general, which reflects one's overall feelings about his/her job, was scored 0 to 54 as prescribed in the JIG User Manual (Balzer, et al., 1990).

Organizational Sensitivity to Diversity. Organizational Sensitivity to Diversity, which reflects the diversity climate of the work environment, was scored using a five-point scale ranging from 1 = to no extent to 5 = to a great

extent. The coefficient alpha reliability was .70. The items along with the inter-item correlations with the scale and the factor loadings are listed in Table 6.

	Factor Loadings	r with scale	Reliability
Factor - Organizational Sensitivity to Diversity Scale			.70
To what extent has your organization encouraged you to be sensitive to people of different cultures.	.69	.75	
To what extent does your organization have a program to improve employee skills in dealing with people of different cultures.	.75	.79	
To what extent does the management personnel of your organization realize that sometimes cultural factors are the cause of conflicts among employees.	.68	.68	
To what extent does your organization have a culture (shared meaning or belief about how things are done).	.62	.68	

Job Diagnostic Survey. The Job Diagnostic Survey, which measures skill variety (coefficient alpha = .70), task identity (coefficient alpha = .68), task significance (coefficient alpha = .76), feedback (coefficient alpha = .77), and autonomy (coefficient alpha = .76), was scored on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 = some variation of very inaccurate to 7 = some variation of very accurate (Table 7). The coefficient alpha reliability was .91 for the 15 items. The motivating potential score ($[(\text{task identity} + \text{task significance} + \text{skill variety})/3][\text{autonomy}][\text{feedback}])$, which ranged from 0 to 1029 in this sample, was used as the covariate.

Table 7. Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1974) 15-item Short Version		15 item
Revised Job Diagnostic Survey (Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987) 15-item Short Version		Reliability
		.91
		Reliability
Skill Variety		.70
	How much <u>variety</u> is there in your job? That is, to what extent does the job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?	
	The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.	
	The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.	
Task Identity		.68
	To what extent does your job involve doing a <u>"whole" and identifiable piece of work</u> ?	
	That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end?	
	Or is it only a small <u>part</u> of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or automatic machines?	
	The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.	
	The job is arranged so that I can do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.	
Task Significance		.76
	In general, how <u>significant or important</u> is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?	
	This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.	
	The job itself is very significant and important in the broader scheme of things.	
Autonomy		.76
	How much <u>autonomy</u> is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to <u>decide on your own</u> how to go about doing the work?	
	The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.	
	The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative and judgment in carrying out the work.	
Feedback		.77
	To what extent does <u>doing the job itself</u> provide you with information about your work performance? That is, does the <u>actual work itself</u> provide clues about how well you are doing—aside from any "feedback" co-workers or supervisors may provide?	
	Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.	
	After I finish a job, I know whether I performed well.	

Analytical Procedures

Multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used to test the four hypotheses. The dependent variables were job satisfaction with coworkers, job in general, work itself, pay, promotion, and supervision. The independent variables were physioethnicity, socioethnicity, and strength of psychoethnicity. The covariates used in the initial MANCOVA were tenure, education, gender, organizational sensitivity to diversity, and motivating potential score. The significant covariate(s) were retained for the second MANCOVA.

In testing H1, the main effect of socioethnicity was examined to determine if bicultural and multicultural individuals reported higher levels of job satisfaction than acultural and monocultural individuals. To test H2, the interaction between socioethnicity and physioethnicity was examined to determine if socioethnicity had a different effect on job satisfaction depending on physioethnicity.

In testing H3, the interaction between strength of psychoethnicity and physioethnicity was examined to determine if strength of psychoethnicity had an effect on job satisfaction depending on physioethnicity. The testing of H4 was examined the three-way interaction between

physioethnicity, socioethnicity, and strength of psychoethnicity to determine if it had an effect on job satisfaction.

Chapter IV

Results

Table 8 reports the means and standard deviations for the dependent variables for the total population, and by physioethnicity, socioethnicity, and strength of psychoethnicity, respectively. The intercorrelations between the variables are displayed in Table 9.

Table 8.						
Means and Standard Deviations for the Dependent Variables for total population						
Variable	N		Mean		Standard Deviation	
Satisfaction with coworkers	268		34.10		15.59	
Satisfaction with work itself	265		31.97		11.37	
Satisfaction with pay	264		28.48		15.58	
Satisfaction with promotion	267		27.60		16.10	
Satisfaction with supervision	270		36.33		15.90	
Satisfaction with job in general	266		40.50		12.52	
Means and Standard Deviations for the Dependent Variables by Physioethnicity						
Variable	Whites (N=46)		Blacks (N=73)		Hispanics (N=128)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Satisfaction with:						
Coworkers	33.63	16.28	35.68	13.98	33.31	16.56
Work itself	30.76	10.36	34.67	11.17	31.23	11.23
Pay	31.09	13.81	29.76	16.90	27.04	15.49
Promotion	23.26	14.38	35.35	14.48	24.76	15.92
Supervision	38.07	15.64	36.51	15.04	36.60	16.15
Job in General	40.36	9.94	42.56	11.00	39.79	14.01
Means and Standard Deviations for the Dependent Variables by Socioethnicity						
Variable	A/Monocultural (N=131)		Bi/Multicultural (N=126)			
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Satisfaction with:						
Coworkers	34.02	15.46	34.42	13.32		
Work itself	31.26	11.03	32.83	11.63		
Pay	28.37	15.29	27.85	16.04		
Promotion	27.15	15.43	28.19	16.87		
Supervision	36.07	15.67	36.54	16.07		
Job in General	40.39	12.09	40.81	13.05		
Means and Standard Deviations for the Dependent Variables by Strength of Psychoethnicity						
Variable	Low (N=35)		Medium (N=135)		High (N=84)	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Satisfaction with:						
Coworkers	32.63	17.61	35.33	15.09	31.57	15.27
Work itself	29.56	13.18	32.16	10.71	31.55	11.63
Pay	28.23	16.96	27.34	15.67	29.26	15.42
Promotion	25.14	17.32	27.06	15.21	28.16	17.02
Supervision	37.94	17.52	35.68	15.82	36.22	15.91
Job in General	39.4	15.74	40.99	11.40	40.02	12.98

Table 9. Intercorrelations

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	
1. Satisfaction with coworkers	34.10	15.59																		
2. Satisfaction with work itself	31.97	11.38	.38*																	
3. Satisfaction with pay	28.48	15.58	.13*	.27*																
4. Satisfaction with promotion	27.60	16.10	.24*	.46*	.34*															
5. Satisfaction with supervision	36.33	15.90	.40*	.30*	.13*	.23*														
6. Satisfaction with job in general	40.50	12.53	.42*	.68*	.38*	.45*	.32*													
7. Education	2.09	1.23	-.11	.04	-.03	.01	-.05	.02												
8. Tenure	9.66	5.85	-.13*	-.23*	-.14*	-.17*	-.01	-.24*	-.08											
9. Age	33.93	7.72	.03	-.02	-.07	-.08	.09	-.09	-.09	.66*										
10. Organization Sensitivity to Diversity	3.78	.75	.11	.25*	.21*	.19*	.23*	.27*	-.04	.08	.18*									
11. Motivating Potential Score	405.43	235.01	.31*	.48*	.23*	.32*	.36*	.43*	-.03	-.03	.13*	.40*								
12. Socioethnicity	1.44	.79	.05	.05	.01	-.02	.09	-.00	.01	.07	.12	.12*	.08							
13. Strength of Psychoethnicity	2.95	1.04	-.05	.03	.04	.06	-.02	-.00	-.02	-.02	-.04	-.04	.04	.06						
14. Autonomy	5.14	1.28	.24*	.38*	.19*	.20*	.29*	.38*	.00	-.11	.03	.33*	.81*	.04	.08					
15. Feedback	4.72	1.28	.35*	.47*	.24*	.33*	.33*	.42*	-.05	.04	.17*	.34*	.87*	.05	.10	.60*				
16. Skill Variety	5.10	1.32	.16*	.42*	.18*	.23*	.21*	.36*	-.01	-.13+	.03	.33*	.75*	.13+	.13+	.65*	.64*			
17. Task Identity	4.35	1.40	.28*	.46*	.20*	.29*	.35*	.42*	-.05	-.04	.09	.30*	.77*	.08	.17*	.55*	.67*	.55*		
18. Task Significance	5.45	1.33	.16+	.37*	.16+	.27*	.18*	.38*	.01	-.03	.09	.35*	.72*	.10	.08	.65*	.64*	.69*	.48*	

*p < .05; **p < .01

The strong relationships among the dependent variables dictated the use of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The dependent variables were satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers, the work itself, and job in general. Empirical and/or theoretical results suggest relationships between the covariates of gender, education, tenure, job characteristics, and organizational sensitivity to diversity. Thus, MANCOVA was used to test the four hypotheses as indicated in the analytical procedures.

The first MANCOVA revealed that the only significant covariate for all six dependent variables was motivating potential score. Therefore, it was retained as a covariate in the second MANCOVA. The Beta t-value for motivating potential score was $t\text{-value} = 5.943$, $p = .000$. Table 10 shows the results of the second MANCOVA.

**Table 10. MANCOVA Results - Facets of Job Satisfaction, Dependent Variables
Dimensions of Race/ethnicity, Independent Variables
Motivating Potential Score, Covariate**

Source	Dependent Variables Satisfaction with:																
	Overall		Hotellings T		df	Coworkers		Job In General		Work Itself		Pay		Promotion		Supervision	
	Wilks l	p	p	p		F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p	F	p
Main Effects:																	
Physioethnicity	.862	.001	.155	.005	2,193	4.74	.01	1.09	.34	3.30	.04	2.12	.12	6.19	.00	.27	.77
Socioethnicity	.969	.415	.033	.415	1,193	1.15	.28	.58	.45	1.11	.29	.20	.65	.10	.75	1.18	.28
Strength of Psychoethnicity	.914	.142	.093	.139	2,193	4.85	.01	.20	.82	.50	.61	.07	.93	2.38	.10	1.86	.16
Two-way Interactions:																	
Physioethnicity x Socioethnicity	.868	.008	.149	.007	2,193	6.90	.01	.68	.51	2.04	.13	.79	.45	.69	.50	1.08	.34
Physioethnicity x Strength of Psychoethnicity	.831	.062	.194	.056	4,193	2.42	.05	1.74	.14	2.49	.05	1.01	.40	1.95	.10	3.95	.00
Socioethnicity x Strength of Psychoethnicity	.937	.416	.067	.406	2,193	.73	.48	.20	.82	.05	.95	.14	.87	.21	.81	5.96	.00
Three-way Interaction																	
Physioethnicity x Socioethnicity x Strength of Psychoethnicity	.867	.286	.149	.274	4,193	1.62	.17	.85	.50	1.43	.23	.23	.92	.86	.49	1.43	.23

There was not a significant main effect for socioethnicity. Therefore, hypothesis 1, which states that bicultural and multicultural individuals will report higher levels of job satisfaction than acultural and monocultural individuals, was not supported. Additionally, there was not a significant main effect for strength of psychoethnicity.

Although there was not a hypothesis to test the effect of physioethnicity on job satisfaction, there was a significant overall main effect for physioethnicity (Hotellings $T^2 = .155$, $F = 2.419$, $df = 12$, $p < .01$). Satisfaction with coworkers ($F = 4.741$, $df = 2, 193$, $p < .01$), promotion ($F = 6.194$, $df = 2, 193$, $p < .01$), and the work itself ($F=3.297$, $df = 2, 193$, $p < .05$) contributed to this significant main effect. The Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test at a .05 level of significance revealed that blacks ($m = 35.35$, $n = 73$, $s.d. = 14.48$) were more satisfied with promotional opportunities than whites ($m = 23.26$, $n = 46$, $s.d. = 14.38$) and Hispanics ($m = 24.76$, $n = 128$, $s.d. = 15.92$).

With respect to satisfaction with the work itself, the Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test indicated that blacks ($m = 34.67$, $n = 73$, $s.d. = 11.17$) were more satisfied with the work itself than Hispanics ($m = 31.23$, $n = 128$, $s.d. = 11.23$). The mean score of whites on satisfaction with work

itself was 30.76 ($n = 46$, $s.d. = 10.36$), which was not significantly different than the mean score of blacks at a .05 level of significance. The Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test did not reveal significant differences in satisfaction with coworkers among the three racioethnic groups at the .05 level of significance.

A separate hierarchical regression was computed for each dependent measure for which there was a significant physioethnicity main effect to determine if there was significant incremental variance explained. Separate hierarchical regressions were computed for satisfaction with coworkers, satisfaction with promotion, and satisfaction with the work itself (Table 11). Satisfaction with promotion was the only dependent variable in which physioethnicity significantly increased the amount of variance predicted. Motivating potential score was entered at Step 1, predicting a significant amount of variance in satisfaction with promotion. The regression coefficient indicates that high values on motivating potential score were usually associated with high levels of satisfaction with promotion. There was a significant increase in variance when the dummy variables for physioethnicity were entered at Step 2. The Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test,

as discussed above, revealed that blacks were more satisfied with promotional opportunities than Hispanics and whites.

Table 11. Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Satisfaction with Promotion on Physioethnicity

Step	Independent variable	F change	df	R2	Ad. R2	Reg. Weight
1	MPS	26.76**	240	.10	.10	.02
2	Black Hispanic	10.49**	238	.17	.16	10.32 .76

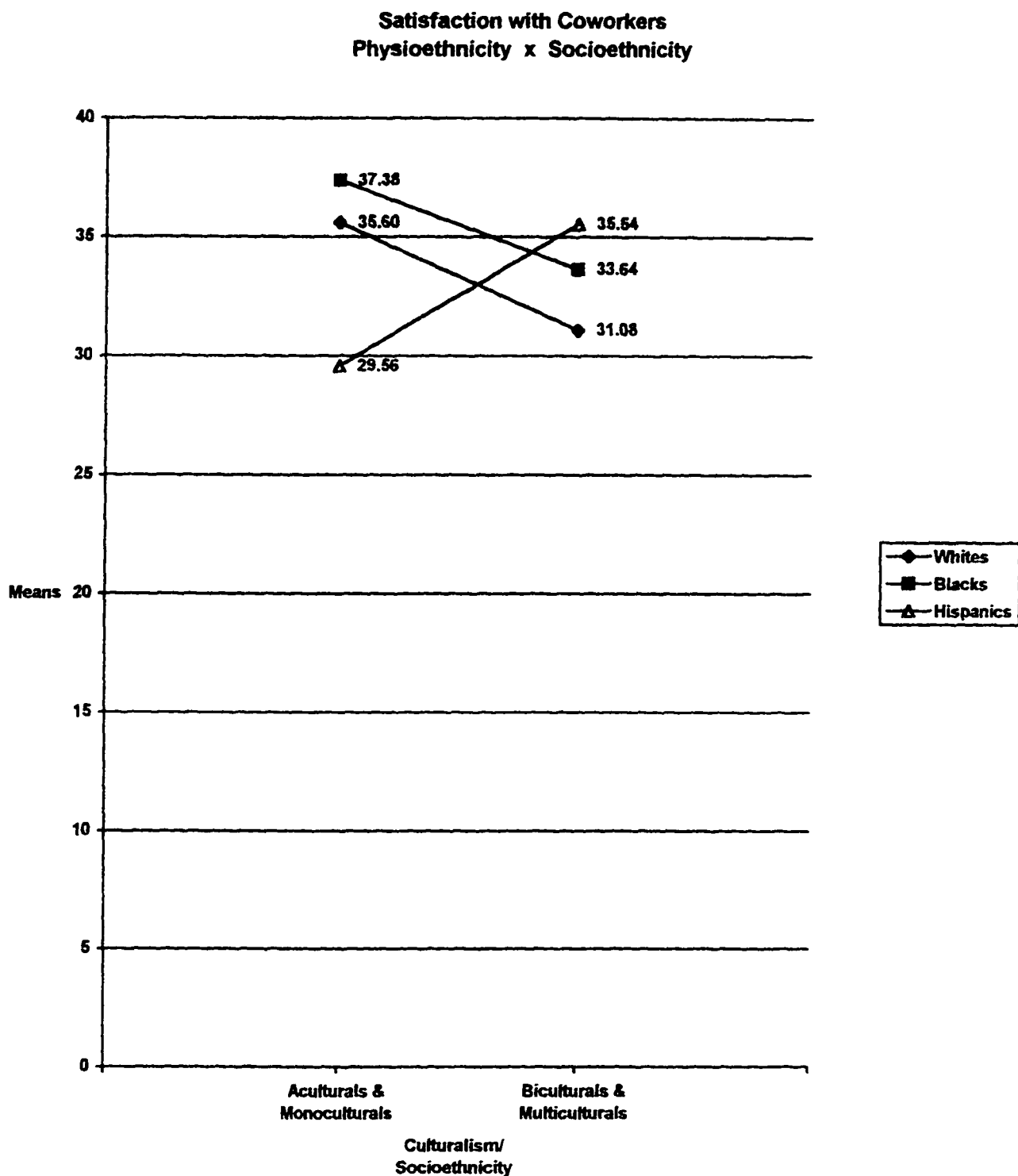
**p<.001

There was no significant two-way interaction between socioethnicity and strength of psychoethnicity. However, there was a significant two-way interaction between physioethnicity and socioethnicity at the multivariate level (Hotellings $T^2 = .149$, $F = 2.316$, $df = 12$, $p < .01$). But, satisfaction with coworkers ($F = 6.902$, $df = 2, 193$, $p < .01$) was the only significant facet of job satisfaction at the univariate level (see Table 10). Intuitively, it follows that there was a significant interaction between physioethnicity and socioethnicity on satisfaction with coworkers because it is the facet that captures the socialization process in the work setting. As predicted by hypothesis 2, bicultural and multicultural Hispanics ($m = 35.54$, $n = 76$, $s.d. = 15.52$) did report higher levels of

satisfaction with coworkers than acultural and monocultural Hispanics ($m = 29.56$, $n = 48$, $s.d. = 17.39$) (See Table 12). Figure 2 illustrates the significant interaction. Acultural and monocultural whites and blacks were more satisfied with their coworkers than bicultural and multicultural whites and blacks. Although acultural and monocultural whites and blacks do not psychosocially identify with other cultures, it has not negatively impacted their ability to maintain job-related interaction and socialization with their coworkers, which are most likely of different cultures. One possible explanation could be that acultural and monocultural whites and blacks feel a mutual level of affinity, respect, and trust for their fellow officers, thereby being satisfied with their coworkers. Another explanation could be that acultural and monocultural whites and blacks feel happy that they are working with Hispanics (who speak Spanish), since the community in which they work is largely Hispanic and they know they might not be able to get along without Hispanic coworkers.

	Satisfaction with coworkers by physioethnicity and socioethnicity					
	A-/Monocultural			Bi-/Multicultural		
	Mean	N	S.D.	Mean	N	S.D.
Whites	35.60	30	13.24	31.08	12	20.12
Blacks	37.38	40	14.21	33.64	33	13.64
Hispanics	29.56	48	17.39	35.54	76	15.52

Figure 2.



Due to the significant interaction found in the MANCOVA results, a separate hierarchical regression was computed for satisfaction with coworkers as the dependent measure and motivating potential score, physioethnicity, socioethnicity, and the physioethnicity-socioethnicity interaction (Table 13). Motivating potential score was entered at Step 1, predicting a significant amount of variance in satisfaction with promotion. The regression coefficient indicates that high values on motivating potential score were usually associated with high levels of satisfaction with promotion. There was not a significant increase in variance when the dummy variables for physioethnicity were entered at Step 2 nor when socioethnicity was entered at Step 3. There was a significant amount of variance predicted when interactions between the dummy variables for physioethnicity and socioethnicity were entered at Step 4. Although the beta for the interaction between white and socioethnicity was not significant, the beta for the interaction between black and socioethnicity was significant. The sign of the beta coefficient indicated that acultural and monocultural blacks usually reported higher levels of satisfaction with coworkers.

Table 13. Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Satisfaction with Coworkers on Physioethnicity and Socioethnicity

Step	Independent variable	F change	df	R2	Ad. R2	Reg. Weight
1	MPS	26.43**	244	.10	.09	.02
2	Black Hispanic	.15	242	.10	.09	-.32 -1.23
3	Socioethnicity	.16	241	.10	.08	.68
4	Black x Socioethnicity Hispanic x Socioethnicity	4.22**	239	.13	.11	.23 7.60

**p < .01

There was also a marginally significant two-way interaction between physioethnicity and strength of psychoethnicity at the multivariate level (Hotellings $T^2 = .194$, $F = 1.510$, $df = 12$, $p < .056$). At the univariate level, satisfaction with coworkers ($F = 2.425$, $df = 4$, 193 , $p < .05$), the work itself ($F = 2.488$, $df = 4$, 193 , $p < .05$), and supervision ($F = 3.952$, $df = 4$, 193 , $p < .004$) were significant (see Table 10). Figures 3, 4, and 5 illustrate the significant interactions between physioethnicity and strength of psychoethnicity on satisfaction with coworkers, the work itself, and supervision.

Figure 3.

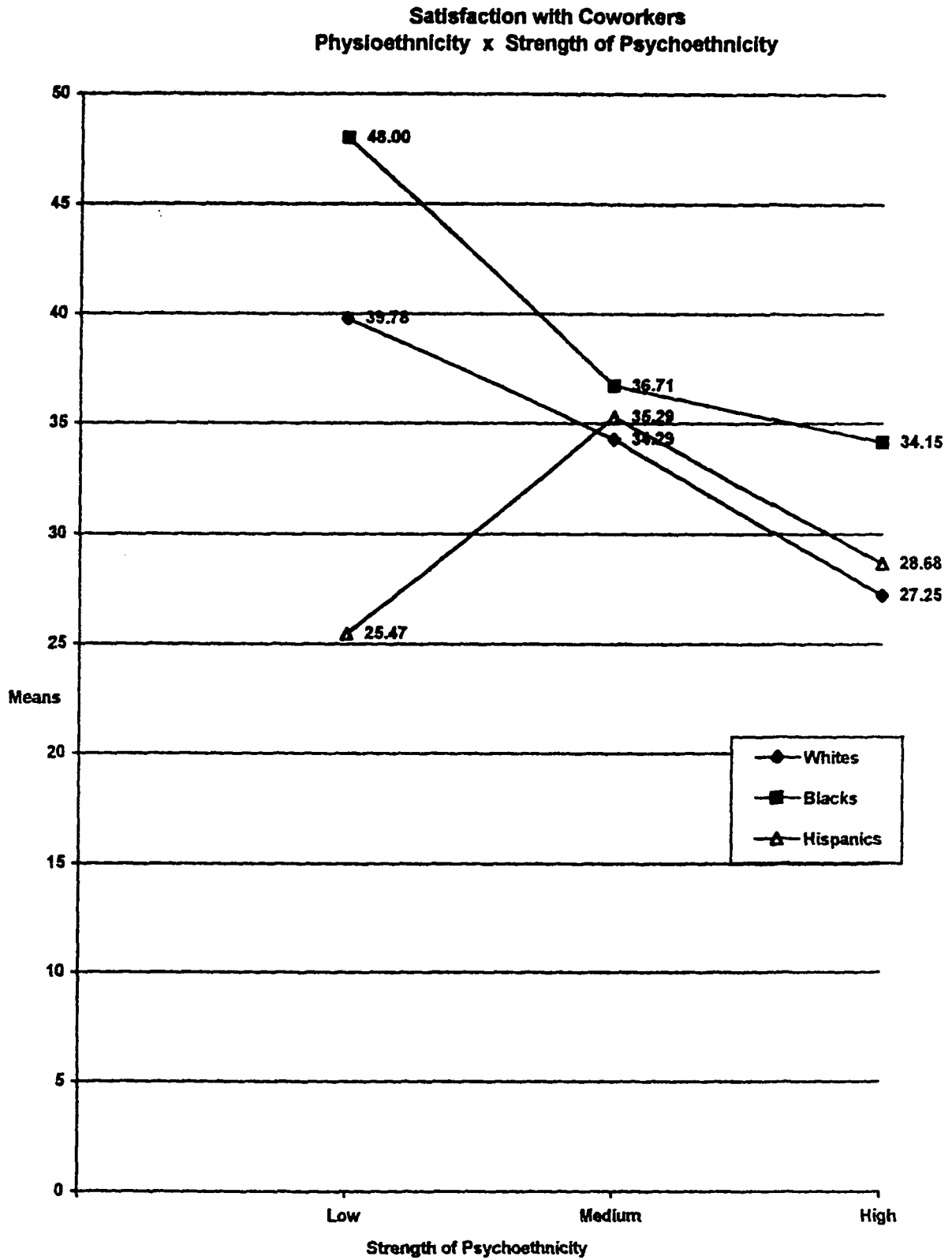


Figure 4.

Satisfaction with the Work Itself
Physioethnicity x Strength of Psychoethnicity

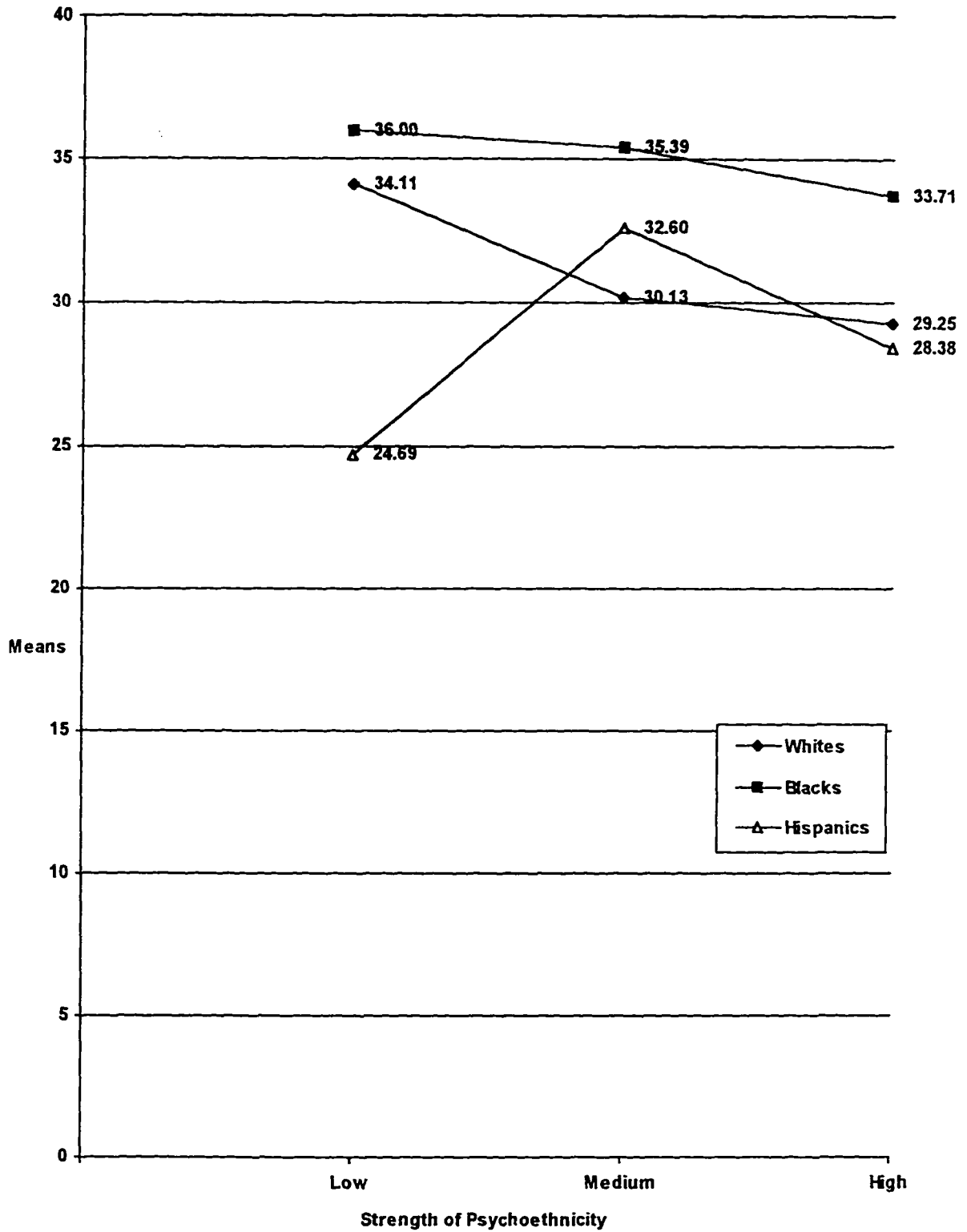
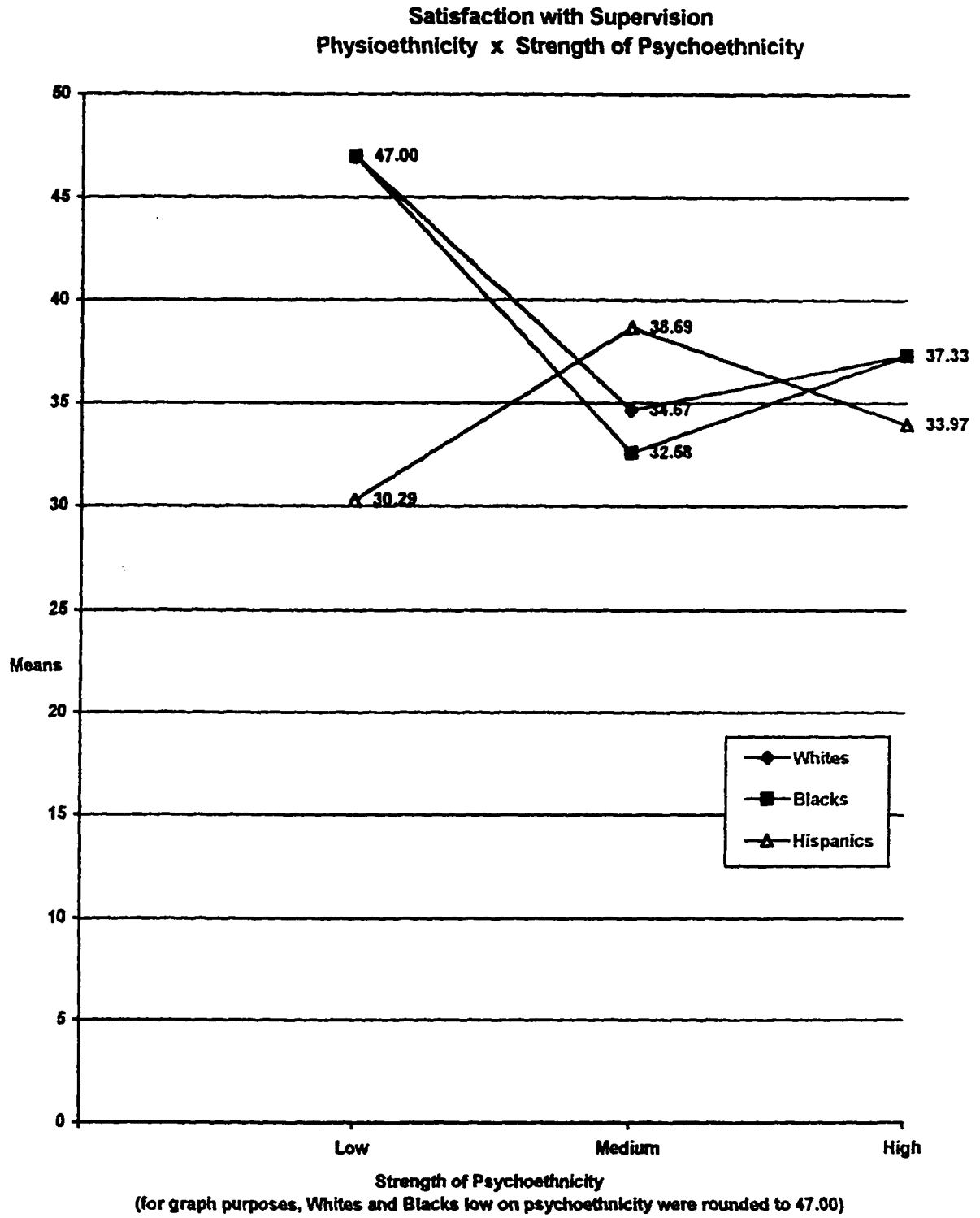


Figure 5.



Intuitively it is clear that there would be a significant physioethnicity and strength of psychoethnicity interaction effect on these facets of satisfaction because they are the facets of the job which capture the processes of self expression and communication. Therefore, as predicted by hypothesis 3, Hispanics that scored medium and high on strength of psychoethnicity reported higher levels of job satisfaction with coworkers, the work itself, and supervision than Hispanics that scored low (see Table 14).

Table 14. Means and Standard Deviations

Satisfaction with coworkers									
by physioethnicity and strength of psychoethnicity									
	Low			Medium			High		
	Mean	N	S.D.	Mean	N	S.D.	Mean	N	S.D.
Whites	39.78	9	16.15	34.29	24	14.90	27.25	12	18.75
Blacks	48.00	6	8.69	36.71	24	14.07	34.15	41	13.27
Hispanics	25.47	17	17.54	35.29	75	15.90	28.68	28	16.21

Satisfaction with work itself									
by physioethnicity and strength of psychoethnicity									
	Low			Medium			High		
	Mean	N	S.D.	Mean	N	S.D.	Mean	N	S.D.
Whites	34.11	9	12.34	30.13	24	9.98	29.25	12	10.37
Blacks	36.00	6	11.78	35.39	23	11.63	33.71	41	11.18
Hispanics	24.69	16	14.01	32.60	73	9.58	28.38	29	12.21

Satisfaction with supervision									
by physioethnicity and strength of psychoethnicity									
	Low			Medium			High		
	Mean	N	S.D.	Mean	N	S.D.	Mean	N	S.D.
Whites	47.33	9	6.71	34.67	24	15.76	37.33	12	18.67
Blacks	47.17	6	9.28	32.58	24	17.50	37.33	42	19.66
Hispanics	30.29	17	19.66	38.69	75	14.78	33.97	29	17.42

Hispanics that scored low on strength of psychoethnicity may have a harder time interacting and communicating with Hispanics that scored higher on strength of psychoethnicity. Therefore, Hispanics with low psychoethnicity were not as satisfied with their coworkers, the work itself, and supervision as Hispanics with medium or high psychoethnicity.

Whites and blacks with low psychoethnicity were more satisfied with coworkers than whites and blacks with medium and high psychoethnicity. Whites and blacks with low psychoethnicity may place less relative importance or value on their psychoethnicity, thereby interacting and communicating better with their coworkers of different psychoethnicity. On the other hand, whites and blacks who strongly value their psychoethnicity, but work with officers of different psychoethnicity, may not enjoy interacting and communicating with or have a mutual liking for their fellow officers of different psychoethnicity.

Whites with low psychoethnicity may enjoy the work itself more than whites with medium and high psychoethnicity because they may experience more intrinsic challenges with respect to opportunities for autonomy, responsibility, and to enhance their knowledge base in their predominantly nonwhite work setting. Whites with relatively high value

for their white psychoethnicity may not find these same intrinsic rewards because they do not perceive these same opportunities due to the large number of individuals that do not strongly identify themselves as white. The same applies for blacks. Blacks with low psychoethnicity may get intrinsic enjoyment from opportunities for responsibility and autonomy, whereas blacks with medium and high psychoethnicity do not have the same level of enjoyment due to the large number of others in their work setting that do not strongly identify themselves as black.

Whites with low psychoethnicity were more satisfied with supervision than whites with high and medium psychoethnicity because their supervisors were more than likely non-white, and they were not as concerned with the psychoethnicity of their supervisors. Whites with high psychoethnicity were not as satisfied with supervision. This can probably be attributed to the fact that their supervisors were more likely to be a different ethnic identity (black or Hispanic). Blacks with medium and high psychoethnicity were more satisfied with supervision than blacks with low psychoethnicity. This could be due to the fact that their supervisors were likely to be black. Finally, since there was not a significant three way

interaction between physioethnicity, socioethnicity, and strength of psychoethnicity, hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Because there was a significant effect for motivating potential score across all of the dependent variables and a significant main effect for physioethnicity, separate multivariate analyses of variance were run to examine the effect of physioethnicity and the job characteristics of autonomy, feedback, skill variety, task identity, and task significance on the facets of job satisfaction (Table 15). A median split was used to develop high and low categories for the job characteristics. Using this method, there were no two-way interactions between physioethnicity and the various job characteristics. However, there were significant main effects for physioethnicity, autonomy, feedback, skill variety, task identity, and task significance. There was a significant multivariate effect for physioethnicity for all of the multivariate analyses on satisfaction with promotion.

Table 15. Means and Standard Deviations

		Means of Facets of Job Satisfaction by Job Characteristics											
		Satisfaction with:											
		Coworkers		Job In General		Work Itself		Pay		Promotion		Supervision	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Autonomy	High	36.37	14.43	44.35	9.92	35.27	9.118	31.53	15.40	29.76	15.46	40.38	13.99
	Low	31.61	16.55	37.31	13.57	28.96	12.31	25.72	15.12	25.84	16.34	32.61	16.75
Feedback	High	39.08	14.15	46.63	9.30	38.56	8.46	31.13	16.31	35.75	14.53	43.92	12.87
	Low	31.17	16.01	38.56	12.97	29.19	11.49	27.19	15.37	25.43	15.62	33.49	16.11
Skill Variety	High	37.41	15.19	45.49	8.37	37.05	8.92	30.67	14.74	30.70	15.54	40.48	15.03
	Low	31.71	16.22	37.51	13.91	28.47	12.02	26.96	15.80	25.94	16.05	33.54	15.89
Task Identity	High	38.82	13.79	47.43	8.32	39.27	8.15	34.71	14.96	34.53	15.99	42.56	11.36
	Low	32.47	16.20	38.58	12.91	30.09	11.52	26.63	15.15	25.87	15.79	34.24	16.42
Task Significance	High	35.04	15.47	44.02	9.82	34.96	10.00	30.71	15.09	31.26	16.01	38.59	15.74
	Low	30.89	16.08	36.15	13.88	27.47	11.71	27.10	15.74	22.79	14.78	32.77	16.00

There was a significant overall effect for autonomy (Hotellings $T^2 = .101$, $F = 3.688$, $df = 6$, $p = .002$). Satisfaction with coworkers ($F = 4.558$, $p = .034$), job in general ($F = 10.959$, $p = .001$), the work itself ($F = 12.547$, $p = .000$), pay ($F = 8.217$, $p = .005$), and supervision ($F = 8.573$, $p = .004$) contributed to the overall significance. The results from the t-test suggest that those individuals who scored high on autonomy were significantly more satisfied with all facets of their job except for promotional opportunities than those who scored low on autonomy.

Satisfaction with coworkers ($F = 8.761$, $p = .003$), job in general ($F = 8.678$, $p = .004$), the work itself ($F = 18.134$, $p = .000$), promotion ($F = 5.696$, $p = .018$), and supervision ($F = 13.593$, $p = .000$) contributed to the overall multivariate effect for feedback (Hotellings $T^2 = .134$, $F = 4.353$, $df = 6$, $p = .000$). The t-test revealed that those individuals who scored high on feedback were significantly more satisfied with all facets of their job except pay than those who scored low on feedback.

The overall multivariate significant effect for skill variety (Hotellings $T^2 = .124$, $F = 4.041$, $df = 6$, $p = .001$) was also a result of significance with satisfaction with coworkers ($F = 4.950$, $p = .027$), job in general ($F = 10.557$,

$p = .001$), the work itself ($F = 22.754$, $p = .000$), promotion ($F = 4.439$, $p = .036$), and supervision ($F = 6.813$, $p = .010$). The t-test comparing the means showed that those individuals who scored low on skill variety were significantly less satisfied with all facets of their job except pay than those individuals who scored high on skill variety.

There was a significant overall multivariate effect for task identity (Hotellings $T^2 = .088$, $F = 3.032$, $df = 6$, $p = .007$). Satisfaction with the job in general ($F = 7.929$, $p = .005$), the work itself ($F = 16.053$, $p = .000$), and supervision ($F = 4.730$, $p = .031$) contributed to the overall significance of task identity. The t-test comparing the means revealed that those individuals who scored high on task identity were significantly more satisfied with the job in general, the work itself, and supervision than those who scored low on task identity.

The significant overall multivariate effect for task significance (Hotellings $T^2 = .121$, $F = 3.861$, $df = 6$, $p = .001$) was due to significance with satisfaction with the job in general ($F = 13.867$, $p = .000$), the work itself ($F = 16.456$, $p = .000$), promotion ($F = 12.689$, $p = .000$), and supervision ($F = 7.785$, $p = .001$). The results from the t-test show that individuals who scored high on task significance were significantly more satisfied with the job

in general, the work itself, promotion, and supervision than those who scored low on task significance.

Chapter V

CONCLUSION

Discussion

Hypothesis 1 stated that bicultural and multicultural individuals would be more satisfied than acultural and monocultural individuals. The results from the MANCOVA did not find statistical support for this hypothesis because the socioethnicity main effect was not significant. This main effect may not have been significant because this sample is more racioethnically diverse with individuals of minority groups than most organizations. Therefore, individuals of racioethnic minorities do not necessarily have to identify with other cultures enabling them to remain monocultural within this work context. On the other hand, individuals typically of the racioethnic majority (whites) may identify with more cultures in this setting than other settings because they are in the minority.

Hypothesis 2 states that for the majority group, bicultural and multicultural individuals will experience higher levels of job satisfaction than acultural and monocultural individuals. The statistical analysis supported hypothesis 2. This interaction effect was significant even though Hispanics were the majority group.

The current literature assumes that the racioethnic-dominant group in society is the majority group or white group. The results suggest that theory holds for the dominant group in the particular context under study. Further testing is needed in this area as work settings become increasingly racioethnically diverse.

Hypothesis 3 states that for the majority group, individuals with higher strength of psychoethnicity will report higher levels of job satisfaction than individuals with lower strength of psychoethnicity. Again, Hispanics were in the majority. The results did show that there was a significant multivariate two-way interaction between strength of psychoethnicity and physioethnicity. The univariate results showed that strength of psychoethnicity had a different effect on satisfaction with coworkers, supervision, and the work itself depending on physioethnicity. Again, further research is necessary in this area as work settings become increasingly racioethnically diverse.

Although only two of the hypotheses tested were supported, the implications of this research are noteworthy. The results suggest that the officers surveyed from this law enforcement agency are relatively satisfied with respect to the different facets of their job as assessed by the Job

Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Job in General (JIG). There were no major differences in the facets of job satisfaction among the different dimensions of racioethnicity measured except satisfaction with promotion and the work itself. But there were no racioethnic differences with respect to job satisfaction in general in this sample. This finding is quite interesting in itself because previous research has suggested that there are racioethnic differences with respect to (general) job satisfaction. However, the previous differences among the three racioethnic groups, which have been noted in the literature, have not been consistent over time. One possible explanation for this inconsistency could be that the racioethnic diversity within the organizational settings under study have changed over time.

Most of the previous research in the racioethnic and job satisfaction literature has been conducted in settings where whites are in the majority, and there is little racioethnic diversity. In this research setting, whites are not the in the majority (only 25% white), and the setting is very racioethnically diverse (25% black and 50% Hispanic). The actual sample statistics are 16.5% white, 25.8% black, and 49.1% Hispanic. This may suggest that in more racioethnically diverse settings, which is the expected

trend of the future, racioethnic differences in job satisfaction may be questionable.

This sample is not completely representative of all U.S. organizations. But, it may be representative of organizations in the some parts of California, Texas, Florida, New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut which have highly racioethnically diverse populations (Bureau of the Census, 1995). The results of Census 2000 may reveal even more highly racioethnically populated cities. Nevertheless, the racioethnic composition of the agency and those sampled in this study may have been an influencing factor in the results. This suggests that domestic cultural diversity is just as complex and dynamic, if not more so, than international cultural diversity.

In order to begin to understand the complexity of domestic cultural differences, cultural identification (socioethnicity) must be reliably assessed. The reliability and the validity of the cultural identification measures used in this study did not appear to be problematic. However, Oetting and Beauvais (1991) did suggest that the nature of the research should guide the nature of the items. Maybe there are other cultural predispositions that impact work-related attitudes than those tapped by the current scales. Another possibility could be that individuals from

different cultural backgrounds interpret cultural items differently; thus, there may be a lack of equivalence in the measures among the different racioethnic groups (Riordan & Vandenberg, 1992). Additionally, Van de Vliert and Van Yperen (1996) stated that researchers usually do not consider "alternative explanations and variables of major importance" when comparing cultures. This would suggest that there may be other dimensions of racioethnicity or culture which have not yet been explored that can offer a better explanation of racioethnic differences, such as parental heritage or practicing of cultural traditions.

Within previous literature, socioethnicity and strength of psychoethnicity may not be an issue when these individuals are generally considered the minority. However, this is not necessarily the case when a racioethnic minority group is in the majority in the work environment, as is the case in this agency. Because the racioethnic minorities are now in the majority in this sample, they tend to retain only their culture and do not necessarily adapt to other cultures because they are not forced to adapt.

Theoretical Contributions

This research makes several theoretical contributions. First, it introduces theories from other disciplines in an

effort to untangle the terminology used within these bodies of literature with respect to racioethnicity by delineating three conceptually distinct dimensions of racioethnicity. These three conceptually distinct dimensions of racioethnicity were given labels that clearly convey their definitions. *These new terms are physioethnicity, socioethnicity, and psychoethnicity.*

Second, following the lead of Milliken and Martins (1996), this research explores two nonobservable attributes of racioethnicity (socioethnicity and psychoethnicity) in addition to an observable attribute in physioethnicity. More importantly, this research finds support for the assertion that the observable and nonobservable attributes are conceptually distinct. Therefore, it is important to consider the possible interactions between physioethnicity, socioethnicity, and psychoethnicity.

Third, Cox (1993) states that individuals of racioethnic groups can differ on identity structures. This means that one can be congruent on all three of the dimensions of racioethnicity or incongruent on any combination of the three dimensions. In this particular sample, an assessment as to the number of participants who were congruent or incongruent on the three dimensions was limited to 149 of the total 291 participants because only

149 participants responded to the items used to measure the three dimensions. Of the 149 participants, 137 (91.19%) were congruent on all three dimensions. Only 12 (8.1%) were incongruent on two of the three dimensions: 1 white participant was congruent on physioethnicity and psychoethnicity, but incongruent on socioethnicity; 6 black participants were congruent physioethnicity and psychoethnicity, but incongruent on socioethnicity; and 5 Hispanic participants were congruent on physioethnicity and psychoethnicity, but not incongruent on socioethnicity. These results find evidence that individuals can differ or be incongruent on these three dimensions of racioethnicity, thus suggesting more research it needed to examine this area further. Additionally, further research is needed to explore why socioethnicity and psychoethnicity did not contribute a great deal to our understanding of job satisfaction. This may be due the overwhelmingly congruent sample.

Fourth, this research fills a void in the literature with respect to the relationship between racioethnic minority groups and the racioethnic majority group (Phinney, 1990). Little research has empirically examined the psychoethnicity among members of the racioethnic majority group in the society (Phinney, 1990). This research

examines psychoethnicity among members of the racioethnic majority within society, but the minority within this particular work context. The results suggest a striking finding--whites' attitudes are similar to the other minority group (blacks) when they are also in the minority. This is interesting because previous research has suggested that whites and blacks differ in their attitudes about job satisfaction (e.g., Ash, 1972; Buzawa, 1984; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990), whereas this research suggests that this may not always be the case.

Fifth, the important role that the social context plays in evoking psychosocial and psychological saliences has been highlighted. The literature suggests that psychoethnicity and socioethnicity are not typically salient to individuals of the majority culture in American society, whites in this case. Only 21.3% of whites had a low strength of psychoethnicity score, 53.2% medium, and 25.5% high strength of psychoethnicity (see Table 11). Therefore, strength of psychoethnicity was relatively salient to 78.7% of the whites surveyed. Of the whites responding to the survey, 67.4% scored as monoculturals (strongly identifying with only the white culture). This indicates their relatively strong psychosocial salience (see Table 4). These results show that when in the minority, psychoethnicity and

socioethnicity are more salient to whites than when they are in the majority (Phinney, 1990).

Sixth, this allows for an exploration of the possible impact of racioethnic diversity on individuals of the majority culture as suggested by Tsui and her associates (1992), particularly when they are in the unusual situation of being in the minority. When the minority (along with blacks) these findings showed that whites were only less satisfied than blacks on the satisfaction with promotion facet. But there was not a significant difference in general job satisfaction in general, as tested in the Tsui et.al. (1992) study, between whites and blacks.

Lastly, reliable scales to assess cultural identification, multiculturalism and strength of psychoethnicity have been developed and empirically tested. These scales need to be tested in other organizational settings to determine their generalizability. If in fact they are generalizable, they can be used to bring about consistency within the literature with respect to multiculturalism and its impact on various organizational phenomena.

Practical Contributions

In addition to the theoretical contributions made by this research, several practical contributions are also made. Although some the scales used in this research were already available, they have been tested reliably in an organizational setting, which had not been done before. These revised tools can be used in diversity training programs to determine the culturalism of an individual. An individual can be assessed to determine if they are acultural, monocultural, bicultural, or multicultural. The strength of an individual's psychoethnicity can also be assessed. This information can be used to develop tailored cultural awareness seminars.

These tailored cultural awareness seminars can focus on sensitizing individuals with unfamiliar cultures. This should enable individuals to be more tolerant of culturally different coworkers and customers (constituents). Tolerance and awareness will lead to better communication between employees and make them more familiar with one another (Gruenfeld, Mannix, Williams, & Neale, 1996). Enhanced communication and member familiarity will facilitate creativity, decision making, problem-solving, human relations skills, team building and synergy among individuals with diverse points of view (Bazile-Jones &

Lynn, 1996; Gruenfeld, et al., 1996; McNerney, 1994; Sharp, 1995), particularly in diverse teams and workgroups.

Although ethnic labeling was not one of the major foci of this research, the results in this area are quite interesting. When given the opportunity to state with which racioethnic group they identify, 41% of the participants chose not to respond to this item, and 26% of those that did respond, chose labels that were different than the standard Bureau of Census and Affirmative Action labels. This is interesting considering the criticisms the Census is currently receiving regarding its classification scheme (Evinger, 1996; Sandor, 1994).

However, when the participants were asked to check their race and/or national origin at the end of the survey, 95% responded. One possible explanation for this high response rate to this question is that Americans have been conditioned to classify themselves using the Census and Affirmative Action labeling in the work setting. These results illustrate the complex task of devising meaningful racioethnic labels. One way the Bureau of the Census can begin to tackle this task is to conduct a pilot study in several racioethnically diverse cities in which the open-ended question is asked --"To which race/ethnic group do you identify yourself as a member?" Then, analyze the data to

develop meaningful categories to the participants for the next Census.

Strengths of This Study

There are several strong points of this study. First, it integrates theories from several bodies of literature to examine an organizational phenomenon. Specifically, it integrates cultural identification theories, ethnic identity theories, and social psychological theories in an effort to better understand variance in job satisfaction. Secondly, new terminology is set forth to clearly distinguish the distinct constructs. Thirdly, it finds that physioethnicity, socioethnicity, and psychoethnicity, although intuitively related, are conceptually distinct and uncorrelated constructs. This is very interesting, especially considering that these constructs are sometimes used interchangeably.

Fourth, reliable cultural identification scales for the major racioethnic categories have been developed to assess an individual's psychosocial salience of their social upbringing. This research also revises a strength of psychoethnicity scale so that it is parsimonious and reliable. These scales can be used to facilitate practitioners in assessing diversity and managing it more

effectively. Fifth, it uses a racioethnically diverse sample which is becoming more representative of populations in some areas of the U.S., such as Florida, Texas, California, New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut (Bureau of the Census, 1995).

Limitations of This Study

There are several limitations of this study. One, due to a myriad of factors that can contribute to cultural differences, some alternative and important variables may not have been considered, such as possible affirmative action mandates and diversity training (Van de Vliert & Van Yperen, 1996). If companies have enforced affirmative action mandates, there may be resentment by some employees which could result in non-positive conflict (Ramsey, 1993). This could skew the results such that there are additional racioethnic differences. On the other hand, if companies have recently provided diversity training for their employees in an effort to create a multicultural work environment (Gemson, 1991; Thomas, 1994), employees may respond in a way that they perceive to be the socially desirable or politically correct.

Second, the measures may not be culturally equivalent (Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994). The participants may not

interpret the questions the same way based on their differing cultural backgrounds, causing their responses not to be equivalent. Third, because there were not enough participants within each racioethnic subgroup, the researcher was still forced to collapse the participants into the customary Affirmative Action labeling scheme. Therefore, there was no way to statistically account for the subcultures within each racioethnic group. Fourthly, generalizability was compromised because this sample is not a representative sample of the typical organization in the U.S. And lastly, the use of self-reported data and cross-sectional design are always possible shortcomings.

Implications for Future Research

The results of this study have many implications for future domestic cross-cultural research. There is a need to find new and improved ways of conceptualizing and measuring racioethnicity so that social entities can truly begin to understand the psychosocial and psychological implications of racioethnicity in this racioethnically diverse society. With respect to the Bureau of Census, it has the immediate task of coming up with meaningful racioethnic labeling for Census 2000. Meaningful labeling will reduce the number of

Census participants that check the other category, which was a problem in the last Census (Sandor, 1994).

In addition to the labeling issue, the study of subcultures within the various racioethnic groups is also needed. Similarly, the relationships among physioethnicity, socioethnicity, and psychoethnicity need to be tested to determine if the same findings would exist in a homogeneous sample and other heterogeneous samples. More specific to the organizational setting, the cultural identification scales and strength of psychoethnicity scale need to be tested other organizational settings to determine their generalizability. Finally, orthogonal cultural identification theory and self-categorization theory need further empirical testing to determine their applicability to other organizational phenomena.

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APPENDIX A

GLOSSARY

Appendix A. Glossary

Congruence - consistency among two or more constructs
(Cox, 1993: 56).

Cultural - "of or relating to culture." (Webster).

Cultural identification - the identifying with the
cultural characteristics or a particular cultural
group; a surrogate for the ethnicity construct

Culture - "the totality of socially transmitted behavior
patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions, and all other
products of human work and thought characteristics of a
community or population." (Webster).

Ethnic identity - the extent to which individuals choose to
incorporate a particular racioethnic classification
into their sense of self; analogous to the
psychological concept of self-categorization.

Ethnicity - the collective culture of a minority cultural
group with some distinctive cultural characteristics
within a larger society (Birman, 1994). In some bodies

of literature, this concept of identification with one's ethnicity has been termed ethnic identity (see Phinney (1990) for a review) or ethnic identification (Sanchez & Fernandez, 1993).

Ethnic origin - a classification system based on one's biological ancestors (Birman, 1994; analogous to the current physical or descriptive variable of race/national origin).

Incongruence - inconsistency or dissonance among two or more constructs (Cox, 1993: 57).

Physioethnicity - (new term) physiological identification as a member of a particular racioethnic group; the surrogate for ethnic origin.

Psychoethnicity - (new term) psychological identification as a member of a particular racioethnic group; the surrogate for ethnic identity.

Race - "a local geographic or global human population distinguished as a more or less distinct group by

genetically transmitted physical characteristics."

(Webster); the distinct biological different groups of Mongoloids, Caucasoids, and Negroids (Boyd, 1996).

Racial - differences between the three races; "pertaining to or typical of an ethnic group" or "arising from or based upon differences between ethnic groups."

(Webster)

Racioethnicity - refers to a broad spectrum of individuals of differing races and ethnicities (Cox & Blake, 1991).

Socioethnicity - (new term) sociocultural identification with a particular racioethnic group; the surrogate for ethnicity.

Strength of psychoethnicity - how strongly an individual identifies with the racioethnic group to which he/she considers himself/herself a member (Gudykunst, 1994).

APPENDIX B

TABLES 1- 6

Appendix B, Table 1.
Development of Racioethnic Cultural Identity Scales

	Reliabilities	Standardized Reliabilities
Black American Scale	.93	.94
Do you live by or follow the Black-American way of life?		
Are you a success in the Black-American way of life?		
I have extensive socialization and life experiences in the Black American culture.		
I participate in the Black American culture.		
I was raised to follow the Black American culture.		
I am committed to Black American social ties and behavior.		
I am strongly influenced by Black America.		
Spanish American Scale	.78	.92
Do you live by or follow the Spanish-American way of life?		
Are you a success in the Spanish-American way of life?		
I have extensive socialization and life experiences in the Spanish American culture.		
I participate in the Spanish American culture.		
I was raised to follow the Spanish American culture.		
I am committed to Spanish American social ties and behavior.		
I am strongly influenced by Spanish America.		
Asian American Scale	.44	.86
Do you live by or follow the Asian-American way of life?		
Are you a success in the Asian-American way of life?		
I have extensive socialization and life experiences in the Asian American culture.		
I participate in the Asian American culture.		
I was raised to follow the Asian American culture.		
I am committed to Asian American social ties and behavior.		
I am strongly influenced by Asian America.		
White American Scale	.71	.78
Do you live by or follow the White-American way of life?		
Are you a success in the White-American way of life?		
I have extensive socialization and life experiences in the White American culture.		
I participate in the White American culture.		
I was raised to follow the White American culture.		
I am committed to White American social ties and behavior.		
I am strongly influenced by White America.		
Native American Scale	.28	.69
Do you live by or follow the American Indian way of life?		
Are you a success in the American Indian way of life?		
I have extensive socialization and life experiences in the Native American culture.		
I participate in the Native American culture.		
I was raised to follow the Native American culture.		
I am committed to Native American social ties and behavior.		
I am strongly influenced by Native America.		

* did not make the .60 cut-off rule

Appendix B, Table 2.

Alpha if Item Deleted, Means with or without Native American Scale, Items retained for 3-item scale and Reliabilities of Scales

	W-A	B-A	S-A	A-A	N-I	X_{wna}	X_{wona}	Ret 3
Item 1	.6787	.9236	.7183	.3888	.2875	.59938	.67735	**
Item 2	.7089	.9372	.7430	.3509	.2878	.60556	.68500	
Item 3	.6352	.9242	.7275	.8589	.2448	.67812	.78645	
Item 4	.7246	.9191	.7215	.3882	.1651	.58370	.68835	
Item 5	.6498	.9301	.7047	.3865	.3791	.61004	.66778	**
Item 6	.7091	.9160	.9486	.3770	.2256	.63526	.73768	
Item 7	.6531	.9182	.7376	.3583	.2533	.58410	.66680	**
α_7	.7128	.9343	.7756	.4434	.2843			
α_{7na}	.7750	.9353	.9238	.8566	.6897			
α_3	.8243	.8641	.9467	.9440	.0993			

Appendix B, Table 3.
Development of 3-Item Racioethnic Cultural Identity Scales

	r with scale	Reliabilities	Standardized Reliabilities
Spanish American Scale		.95	.95
Do you live by or follow the Spanish-American way of life?	.97		
I was raised to follow the Spanish American culture.	.96		
I am strongly influenced by Spanish America.	.93		
Asian American Scale		.94	.95
Do you live by or follow the Asian-American way of life?	.94		
I was raised to follow the Asian American culture.	.95		
I am strongly influenced by Asian America.	.96		
Black American Scale		.86	.87
Do you live by or follow the Black-American way of life?	.88		
I was raised to follow the Black American culture.	.87		
I am strongly influenced by Black America.	.91		
White American Scale		.82	.83
Do you live by or follow the White-American way of life?	.83		
I was raised to follow the White American culture.	.88		
I am strongly influenced by White America.	.88		
Native American Scale		.10	.17*
Do you live by or follow the American Indian way of life?	.07		
I was raised to follow the Native American culture.	.95		
I am strongly influenced by Native America.	.41		

* Native American Scale did not have sufficient reliability (.10). It will not be included for statistical analysis; however, it will be included in surveying of respondents. Because the term Native American does not mean American Indian to non U.S. citizens, the term American Indian will be used.

Appendix B, Table 4.

Development of Psychoethnicity and Strength of Psychoethnicity Scales

	Factor Loadings		
Factor 1 - Strength of Psychoethnicity Scale			
Being a member of my race/ethnic group is important to me.	.58*		
Being a member of my race/ethnic group plays a large role in my life.	.88		
I choose to express my race/ethnicity in the way I communicate.	.68		
If others do not recognize me as a member of my race/ethnic group it upsets me.	.46*		
Thinking about myself as a member of my race/ethnic group is central to how I define myself.	.79		
Factor 2 - Psychoethnicity			
To which race/ethnic group do you identify yourself as a member of?	.81		
* did not make the .60 cut-off rule			
	Factor Loadings	r with scale	Reliability
3-item Strength of Psychoethnicity Scale			
Being a member of my racioethnic group plays a large role in my life.	.88	.86	.75
I choose to express my racioethnicity in the way I communicate.	.68	.77	
Thinking about myself as a member of my racioethnic group is central to how I define myself.	.79	.84	

Appendix B, Table 5.

Organizational Sensitivity to Diversity Scale (Gutierrez, 1996)

	Factor Loadings	Reliability
Factor - Organizational Sensitivity to Diversity Scale		
To what extent has your organization encouraged you to be sensitive to people of different cultures.	.77	.76
To what extent does your organization have a program to improve employee skills in dealing with people of different cultures.	.63	
To what extent does the management personnel of your organization realize that sometimes cultural factors are the cause of conflicts among employees.	.84	
To what extent does your organization have a culture (shared meaning or belief about how things are done).	.72	

Appendix B, Table 6.

Revised Job Diagnostic Survey (Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987) 15-item Short Version

Skill Variety

How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extent does the job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?
The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.
The job requires me to perform a variety of tasks.

Task Identity

To what extent does your job involve doing a "whole" and identifiable piece of work?
That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end?
Or is it only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or automatic machines?
The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.
The job is arranged so that I can do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.

Task Significance

In general, how significant or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?
This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.
The job itself is very significant and important in the broader scheme of things.

Autonomy

How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?
The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative and judgment in carrying out the work.

Feedback

To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with information about your work performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how well you are doing—aside from any "feedback" co-workers or supervisors may provide?
Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.
After I finish a job, I know whether I performed well.

Appendix B, Table 7.
Demographic Statistics for total population (N=291)

Physioethnicity (%)	
non-Hispanic, white	16.5
non-Hispanic, black	25.8
Hispanic, white	49.1
Hispanic, black	1.4
Asian/Pacific Islander	.3
American Indian/Alaskan Native	.3
other	1.4
missing	5.2
Gender (%)	
Male	79.4
Female	16.2
missing	4.5
Age (in years)	
Mean	34
Standard Deviation	7.7
Education (%)	
High School	37.8
Associate's Degree	28.2
Bachelor's Degree	21.3
Master's Degree	3.8
Technical	4.5
missing	4.5
Tenure with Department (in years)	
Mean	10
Standard Deviation	5.9
Position	
Patrol	72.9
Supervisory*	15.5
Investigative	12.4
Administrative	4.8
* cuts across patrol, investigative, and administrative	
Marital Status (%)	
Single	18.9
Married	58.1
Divorced/Separated	17.2
Widowed	.3
missing	5.5
Strength of Psychoethnicity (%)	
Low	13.7
Medium	49.1
High	30.6
missing	6.5
Socioethnicity (%)	
Acultural	10.7
Monocultural	38.1
Bicultural	37.8
Multicultural	7.2
missing	6.2

Appendix B, Table 7 continued.
Demographic Statistics by Physioethnicity

	Whites (N=48)	Blacks (N=75)	Hispanics (N=147)
Gender (%)			
Male	79.2	68	93.6
Female	20.8	32	6.4
Age (in years)			
Mean	36	33	34
Standard Deviation	8.2	6.7	7.7
Education (%)			
High School	31.3	45.3	40.8
Associate's Degree	27.1	24.0	31.7
Bachelor's Degree	37.5	26.7	15.5
Master's Degree	4.2	0	4.9
Technical	0	4	7
Tenure with Department (in years)			
Mean	10	9	10
Standard Deviation	7.3	5.6	5.5
Position			
Patrol	72.9	74.7	77.5
Supervisory*	16.7	16.0	16.9
Investigative	12.5	14.7	12.0
Administrative	4.2	6.7	4.2
* cuts across patrol, investigative, and administrative			
Marital Status (%)			
Single	20.8	23	17.6
Married	64.6	50	66.9
Divorced/Separated	14.6	25.7	15.5
Widowed	0	1.4	0
Strength of Psychoethnicity (%)			
Low	21.3	8.2	15.9
Medium	53.2	32.9	61.4
High	25.5	58.9	22.7
Socioethnicity (%)			
A-cultural	4.7	17.3	7.4
Monocultural	67.4	37.3	33.8
Bicultural	16.3	38.7	50.7
Multicultural	11.6	6.7	8.1

Appendix B, Table 7 continued.
Demographic Statistics by Strength of Psychoethnicity

	Low (N=40)	Medium (N=143)	High (N=98)
Physioethnicity (%)			
non-Hispanic, white	26.3	18.4	13.8
non-Hispanic, black	15.8	17.6	49.4
Hispanic, white	55.3	59.6	34.5
Hispanic, black	0	1.5	1.1
Asian/Pacific Islander	0	.7	0
American Indian/Alaskan Native	0	.7	0
other	2.6	1.5	1.1
Gender (%)			
Male	81.6	85.4	81.6
Female	18.4	14.6	18.4
Age (in years)			
Mean	35.3	33.6	33.9
Standard Deviation	6.5	8.5	6.1
Education (%)			
High School	43.6	38.2	39.1
Associate's Degree	28.2	27.9	32.2
Bachelor's Degree	23.1	22.8	21.8
Master's Degree	0	5.1	4.6
Technical	5.1	5.9	2.3
Tenure with Department (in years)			
Mean	10	10	10
Standard Deviation	6.2	5.8	5.7
Position			
Patrol	79.5	73.2	78.2
Supervisory*	17.9	17.4	13.8
Investigative	7.7	13.8	13.8
Administrative	5.1	5.8	3.4
* cuts across patrol, investigative, and administrative			
Marital Status (%)			
Single	13.5	20.6	22.1
Married	54.1	66.9	54.7
Divorced/Separated	32.4	12.5	22.1
Widowed	0	0	1.2
Socioethnicity (%)			
A-cultural	22.2	10.8	22.1
Monocultural	36.1	41.7	40.2
Bicultural	30.6	12.5	22.1
Multicultural	0	0	1.2

Appendix B, Table 7 continued.
Demographic Statistics by Socioethnicity

	Acultural (N=31)	Monocultural (N=111)	Bicultural (N=110)	Multicultural (N=21)
Physioethnicity (%)				
non-Hispanic, white	6.9	27.1	6.5	23.8
non-Hispanic, black	44.8	26.2	27.1	23.8
Hispanic, white	34.5	43.0	64.5	52.4
Hispanic, black	3.4	1.9	.9	0
Asian/Pacific Islander	3.4	0	0	0
American Indian/Alaskan Native	0	.9	0	0
other	6.9	.9	.9	0
Gender (%)				
Male	80	81.5	83.3	90.5
Female	20	18.5	16.7	9.5
Age (in years)				
Mean	31	34	35	34
Standard Deviation	7.8	8.1	6.6	9.9
Education (%)				
High School	36.7	44.4	31.8	61.9
Associate's Degree	33.3	26.9	32.7	14.3
Bachelor's Degree	23.3	21.3	24.3	14.3
Master's Degree	3.3	1.9	5.6	9.5
Technical	3.3	5.6	5.6	0
Tenure with Department (in years)				
Mean	7.8	9.6	10.3	8.8
Standard Deviation	5.2	6.0	5.6	6.1
Position				
Patrol	86.7	74.3	72.9	81.0
Supervisory*	13.3	12.8	19.6	14.3
Investigative	6.7	14.7	13.1	14.3
Administrative	3.3	5.5	5.6	4.8
* cuts across patrol, investigative, and administrative				
Marital Status (%)				
Single	22.2	23.1	15.9	28.6
Married	55.6	57.4	68.2	47.6
Divorced/Separated	22.2	19.4	15.0	23.8
Widowed	0	0	.9	0
Strength of Psychoethnicity (%)				
Low	27.6	12.3	10.4	19.0
Medium	51.7	54.7	48.1	71.4
High	20.7	33.0	41.5	9.5

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EDUCATION

<u>Florida International University</u>	Miami, FL
Ph.D. in Business Administration -Management Concentration: Organizational Behavior	February 1997
<u>Florida A & M University</u>	Tallahassee, FL
Masters in Business Administration	August, 1990
Bachelors of Science, Business Administration	August, 1989

WORK EXPERIENCE

<u>Assistant Professor</u>	Florida Memorial College
Fall 1995 - present	Miami, FL
Teaching Experience: Principles of Management, Business Organization & Management, Quantitative Methods, Business Mathematics, Business Statistics II, Technical Writing, Managerial Psychology, Entrepreneurship Average student evaluations 3.9 on 4.0	
<u>Professional Development Coordinator</u>	Florida Memorial College
Fall 1996 - Spring 1997	Miami, FL
Designing and implementing a professional development program for the College's Division of Business Administration to enhance the marketability of division students.	
<u>Adjunct Professor</u>	Florida International University
Summer 1994 to Fall 1996	Miami, FL
Teaching Experience: Organization and Management, Organization Theory, International Management, Intergroup Relations, Strategic Management, & Entrepreneurship Lab Average student evaluations 3.5 on 4.0 scale	
<u>Pharmaceutical Sales Representative</u>	McNeil Consumer Products Co.
1991-1993	Atlanta, GA
Detailed and serviced approximately 250 doctors and emergency rooms between Atlanta, Macon, and Columbus, GA with 11 pharmaceutical products. Managed territory according to company guidelines, as well as enhanced territory market share numbers in all product categories.	

New Orleans, LA.

Moss, S.E., Kent, R.L., and Friday, S.S. (April 1996). "Sex Roles and Leader Emergence in a Historically Female Dominated Environment." Northeast Decision Science Institute, St. Croix, V.I.

Friday, S.S., Moss, S.E., and Fadil, T. (November 1995). "On the Reluctance to Transmit Feedback to Poor Performers: The Effects of Leader Sex, Subordinate Sex, and Performance Attributions." Southern Management Association, Orlando, FL.

Cohen, D.V., Zalka, L., Friday, S., Azevedo, A., and Paul, K. (June, 1995). "Global Competitiveness and the Hidden Costs of Crime: A Study of Business-Stakeholder Relations in the Miami Metropolitan Area." International Association of Business and Society, Vienna, Australia.

Friday, S. (October 1994). "Changes in Organizational Structure and Their Relationship with Job Satisfaction." Institute of Behavior and Applied Management, Arlington, VA.

Journal Articles Under Review

Paul, K., Zalka, L., Downes, M., Perry, S.L., Friday, S.S. "Consumer Sensitivity to Corporate Social Performance: Development of a Scale." Under review at Business and Society (Resubmitted March 5, 1996).

Moss, S.E., Friday, S. S., Fadil, T.A., and Martinko, M.J. "On the Reluctance of Leaders to Transmit Feedback to Poor Performers: The Effects of Leader Sex, Subordinate Sex, and Performance Attributions. Under review at Group and Organization Management.

Zalka, L., Downes, M., Friday, S.S., Perry, S.R., Paul, K., Abratt, R., and Curwen, P. "Business Legitimacy Among Business Students in the United States, Great Britain, and South Africa." Under review at International Journal of Value-Based Management.

Research Projects in Progress

Friday, S.S., Perry, S.L., Zalka, L., Downes, M., and Paul, K. "Variations in Consumer Styles Among Ethnic Groups."

OTHER SCHOLARLY ACTIVITIES

Session Chair: Southern Management Association, New Orleans, LA
(November 1996)

- Reviewer:** Southern Management Association, New Orleans, LA
(April 1996)
- Session Chair:** McKnight Fellows Mid-Year Meeting, Gainesville, FL
(February, 1995)
- Discussant:** Institute for Behavior and Applied Management Annual
Meeting, Arlington, VA (October, 1994).

ACTIVITIES

- President - Doctoral Students in Business Administration 1994 -1995
Member - Academy of Management
Member - Southern Management Association

HONORS AND GRANTS

- McKnight Doctoral Fellow (Florida Education Fund)
Florida International University Grant - Summer 1995

COMMUNITY SERVICE

- Project Researcher - "Local Challenges in a Global Economy: A Survey of
Business, Government, and Community in South Florida." Rosabeth Moss
Kanter, Mary Ann Von Glinow, and associates: Summer 1994 - March 1995.

- Guest Speaker: AYMS High School Summer Program: 1995 & 1996
Florida City Elementary School's Career Day: 1996.
Richmond Elementary Community School's Black History
February 1994, 1995, 1996

CONSULTING ACTIVITIES

- "Business Communication Skills" for Financial Services Organization, Inc.: May
1996 - September 1996.
- "Conflict Resolution (Management)" for United States Tennis Association -
Recreational Tennis Leadership Workshop: November 3, 1995
- "Computing for Success" Training Program for New Orleans Public School:
August 1995
- "External Program Evaluation" for Florida Memorial College's Division of Business
Administration: May 1994

RESEARCH INTERESTS

- Topics of research interest include issues pertaining to domestic and international
diversity, organizational behavior, intergroup relations, and human resources
management.