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Sokha Song

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Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology

DIVERSITY CLIMATE IN ONE CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY COLLEGE: A
DESCRIPTIVE QUANTITATIVE STUDY

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by
Sokha Song

November, 2017

Leo Mallette, Ed.D. – Dissertation Chairperson
This dissertation, written by

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under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to
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ABSTRACT

Although significant relationships have been found between cultural diversity and organizational performance as perceived by faculty and staff members at four-year public universities and faculty and staff members at two private universities, no contemporary studies could be located that explored the perceptions of public community college faculty and staff members relative to their college’s climate of cultural diversity. This gap is a major shortcoming in the diversity climate literature given that community colleges are becoming increasingly characterized by cultural diversity.

This quantitative research study is designed to analyze the diversity climate at one California community college considering the three pronged model of Cox (1994) which describes three levels for determining diversity climate: individual, group/intergroup, and organizational. Out of the 1,099 identified employees who received an invitation to participate in an online diversity climate survey, 190 (17.2%) submitted responses to an electronic survey. Analysis showed that 95 (50%) of participants were employees who have worked in the college for 11 or more years and; approximately 19 (10%) participants were employees who have worked in the college less than five years.

Participants were asked to complete a survey with a total of 29 items divided between four sections of which responses were based on their level of frequency and/or agreement with each item. The quantitative items designed to analyze employees perceptions of diversity climate in the area of Sensitivity and Inclusion, Communication and Intergroup Relations, Employment and Professional Development, and Institutional Viability and Vitality at the one community college.
The analysis of the survey explains that employees value concepts such as opportunities for recruiting diversity, adequate opportunities for professional development, and where to go for job related problems. However, the findings show that employees do not believe there are concerns related to disparaging comments about age, ethnicity, gender, religious beliefs, sexual orientation, and disability. This leads the researcher to believe there are paradoxes and confusion in what employees value in their jobs and treatment of one another.

The researcher concludes that the college needs to focus on addressing needs at all three levels (individual, intergroup, and organizational) in order to affect positive change with diversity at the college. Part of this challenge has to include analyzing obstacles that may prevent continuation of future studies. A collaboration with all stakeholders is essential to the success of implementing positive changes to diversity climate at the college.
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

The American Council on Education (ACE) recently published an issue brief series titled “Diversity Matters in U.S. Higher Education.” In the concluding brief, Williams (2013) justified the publication of the series based on the need for 21st-century institutions of higher education to be intentional about “leading diversity-themed change” (p. 1) as a means of gaining a competitive advantage instead of merely satisfying a moral imperative:

It challenges the higher education community to face the imperatives of a new reality in which diversity is no longer simply a question of moral and social responsibility, but a matter of achieving excellence and gaining competitive advantages in the world we live in today: a matter of improving organizational creativity, learning, problem solving, and institutional effectiveness—of sustainability and relevance in a twenty-first-century knowledge economy. (p. 1)

Williams (2013) focused on the beneficial outcomes for higher education institutions that manage diversity, namely institutional effectiveness in the form of improved performance indicators—organizational creativity, problem solving, and learning. Two of these indicators, organizational creativity and problem solving, are consistent with the seminal work of Cox (1994). According to Cox’s interactional model of cultural diversity (IMCD), a climate of diversity can impact employees’ career outcomes as well as organizational effectiveness, the latter of which is the focus of this present study.

The aim of this chapter is to introduce the study. First, background information is provided to set the context for the study. Second, the problem necessitating the need for the study is stated, followed by a statement of the study’s purpose. Fourth, the research questions guiding the study are presented, followed by an overview of the theoretical framework
undergirding the study. Next, the significance of the study is discussed. Key terms are defined, and discussions of key assumptions, delimitations, and limitations are presented. Lastly, the chapter concludes with a summary.

**Background**

Research on the importance and benefits of developing and implementing effective diversity management programs in companies and organizations is well documented in the literature. Quinn, Miller, and Thorne (2015) cited the contemporary literature regarding advantages of diversity among an organization’s employees:

1. increased number of alternatives and perspectives considered;
2. increased opportunity to find errors or discover key information;
3. enhanced probability that an adequate solution will be proposed;
4. increased innovation;
5. increased connections to a more varied external network, which enhances outside contacts and access to information;
6. increased likelihood that needed skills are present;
7. the possibility of specialized division of labor;
8. enhanced quality of reasoning due to consistent counterarguments from a minority;
9. increased likelihood of identifying creative, unique, or higher quality solutions; and
10. increased time discussing issues, thus decreasing the chances that a weak alternative will be chosen. (p. 135)

Some researchers have examined the linkages between diversity management and general workplace/group performance (Avery & McKay, 2010; Boehm, Dwertmann, & Kunze, 2014; Prieto, Phipps, & Osiri, 2009; Roberson & Park, 2007). Other research has investigated the links
between diversity management and the educational purposes and civic mission of higher education institutions (Hurtado, 2001, 2007). Yet despite the ACE’s challenge for higher education institutions to lead diversity-themed change as a means of gaining a competitive advantage (Williams, 2013), little has been done to explain the relationship between diversity management and increased performance among public colleges and universities (Quinn et al., 2015; Zaitouni & Gaber, 2017).

Trends in higher education that are indicative of the need for effective diversity management in colleges and universities include the increasing enrollment of older students (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012); competition for international student enrollments (Hegarty, 2014); requests for stronger accountability from residents (Kerr, 2011); growing state and federal governmental oversight and regulation (Quinn et al., 2015); decreasing public funding (Kerr, 2011) and increased competition among for-profit and nonprofit colleges/universities for federal financial aid (Fischer & Stripling, 2014). In sum, Quinn et al. (2015) explained that U.S. public colleges and universities are tasked with “servicing a very broad and diverse group of stakeholder which include federal agencies, state legislatures and agencies, public interest groups, local community interest groups, international students, underprivileged students, older students, students with special needs, and former military members” (p. 134). Meeting these needs is a daunting task, especially for those institutions with a diverse stakeholder base.

Results from two recent studies designed to investigate the linkage between cultural diversity and the organizational performance provide some valuable insights for higher education leaders (Quinn et al., 2015; Zaitouni & Gaber, 2017). First, Quinn et al. (2015) conducted a correlational study involving 1,737 faculty and staff members from multiple public four-year
universities located in Texas to determine if and how the three constructs of diversity management, service orientation, and public orientation were related. The researchers found a moderately strong relationship between diversity management and service orientation. This finding is indicative of the positive influence of a climate of cultural diversity on faculty and staff members’ attitudes about engaging students and servicing their needs (Quinn et al., 2015).

Additionally, Zaitouni and Gaber (2017) used quantitative methods to analyze full-time teaching employees’ perspectives about workplace diversity management and organizational performance at two private universities located in the country of Kuwait (n = 145) and in the U.S. state of Missouri (n = 539). Results revealed that employees at both institutions perceived that a positive and significant relationship existed between cultural diversity and the organizational performance of their universities. Although results showed a significant link between workforce diversity and organizational performance, the researchers explained a limitation of their study sample of faculty and staff at two private educational institutions, which calls into question the application of the findings to public universities (Zaitouni & Gaber, 2017). The researchers stressed the importance of managing a culture of diversity in all higher education institutions.

Quinn et al. (2015) found significant relationships between cultural diversity and service orientation (an indicator of organizational performance) among faculty and staff members at several four-year public universities. Two years later, Zaitouni and Gaber (2017) reported a positive and significant relationship between cultural diversity and teaching employees’ perceptions of the organizational performance of their private universities. However, no contemporary studies could be located that explored the perceptions of public community college faculty and staff members relative to their college’s climate of cultural diversity and the potential
impact on organizational performance. This gap is a major shortcoming in the diversity climate literature given that community colleges are becoming increasingly characterized by cultural diversity (Rashotte & Webster, 2005). Community colleges are among higher education institutions that are experiencing the diverse student enrollment trends previously described, including “international students, underprivileged students, older students, students with special needs, and former military members” (Quinn et al., 2015, p. 134).

Moreover, this trend toward increased cultural diversity has been documented in California’s community colleges (Rashotte & Webster, 2005). On average, 2.1 million students are served in the 113 California community colleges during the past year (Oakley, 2017). Within California community colleges, minority students currently make up 63% of the population (California Community College Chancellor’s Office, 2016).

**Statement of the Problem**

According to Cox’s (1994) Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity (IMCD), three levels—individual, group/intergroup, and organizational—”collectively define the diversity climate of an organization” (p. 9). The individual level includes four factors: personal identity structures, prejudice, stereotyping, and personality type. The group/intergroup factors are cultural differences, ethnocentrism, and intergroup conflict. The organizational-level factors are organizational culture and acculturation processes, structural integration, informal integration, and institutional bias. Cox (1994) argued that it is important to understand an organization’s diversity climate because it directly impacts organizational performance as well as influences individual employees’ career experiences and outcomes. In this regard, organizations need to move beyond simply addressing diversity as a mere characteristic of the workforce to intentionally managing diversity and its impact on the environment (Cox, 2008). Cox (2008)
explained how the interaction of diversity and the environment impacts organizational performance:

If diversity is present *and* the environment for it is favorable, one can predict a positive impact of diversity. If diversity is present but the environment for it is not favorable, a negative impact of diversity on performance may be expected. (p. 9)

Based on this researcher’s experience of two years within one central California community college during 2015 to 2016, both faculty and staff employees seemed unaware of the organization’s diversity climate in terms of how individual, group/intergroup, and organizational factors impact organizational effectiveness and employee career experiences and outcomes. Although this lack of awareness among faculty and staff about the college’s diversity climate may impact their individual career experiences and outcomes, the focus of this present study is on how effective management of diversity can enhance organizations’ performance. Specifically, Cox (2008) described six major arguments for how effective management of diversity can enhance organizational performance: cost, resource acquisition, marketing, creativity, problem solving, and values. These six arguments for the benefits of managing diversity and organizational performance are further discussed in chapter two. The specific problem this study addresses is the need for an understanding of one community college’s diversity climate from the perspective of faculty and staff. Findings from this investigation might inform efforts to improve the community college’s organizational performance as well as that of other community colleges in the state of California.

**Statement of the Purpose**

The purpose of this descriptive quantitative survey study is to examine the diversity climate of one California community college as perceived by the college’s faculty and staff
employees. Based on Cox’s (1994) Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity (IMCD), employees’ perceptions about the college’s diversity climate will be described in terms of individual-level, group/intergroup-level, and organizational-level factors.

**Research Questions**

Three research questions focused this study of community college faculty and staff members’ perceptions about the college’s diversity climate:

- **RQ1**: How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of individual-level factors?
- **RQ2**: How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of group/intergroup-level factors?
- **RQ3**: How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of organizational-level factors?

**Theoretical Framework**

The theoretical basis for this study is Cox’s (1994) Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity (IMCD). Cox (1994) argued that previous research in cultural diversity that emphasized individual employee relationships and issues related to individuals’ employment is limited because of the failure to consider the more relevant individual-organization relationship. According to Cox (1994), cultural diversity is the representation of “people with distinctly different group affiliations of cultural significance” (p. 6) within a particular social system. He further described diversity as being based on “racioethnicity (racially and/or ethnically distinctive within the same nationality group), gender, and nationality” (p. 6).

Cox’s (1994) IMCD includes factors related to three levels that make up the diversity climate of an organization: the individual level (personal identity structures, prejudice,
stereotyping, and personality type), group/intergroup (cultural differences, ethnocentrism, and intergroup conflict), and organizational levels (organizational culture and acculturation processes, structural integration, informal integration, and institutional bias). The individual-level, group/intergroup-level, and organizational-level factors influence individual career outcomes, both affective outcomes (job or career satisfaction, organizational identification, and job involvement) and achievement outcomes (job performance ratings, compensation, promotion or horizontal, and mobility rates). Of greater significance to this present study is how diversity climate, according to the IMCD, impacts organizational effectiveness. Cox (1994) identified two levels of organizational effectiveness that are impacted by cultural diversity. The eight first-level factors are (a) attendance, (b) turnover, (c) productivity, (d) work quality, (e) recruiting success, (f) creativity and innovation, (g) problem solving, and (h) workgroup cohesiveness and communication. The three second-level factors of organizational effectiveness are (a) market share, (b) profitability, and (c) achievement of formal organizational goals. The various levels and components of Cox’s (1994) IMCD are discussed with greater depth in the forthcoming review of the literature in chapter two.

**Significance of the Study**

This study is important for understanding how faculty and staff members employed at one California community college perceive the diversity climate within the college. Findings from this investigation can inform senior leadership efforts to improve the community college’s organizational performance. Cox (1994, 2008) argued that an organization’s diversity climate can impact organizational performance. By managing diversity, an organization’s performance can be enhanced in six areas: (a) cost structures, (b) human resource acquisition, (c) marketing, (d) creativity and innovation, (e) problem solving, and (f) honoring stated core values (Cox,
Furthermore, the significance of this study is expanded to consider Cox’s (1994) specific measures of organizational effectiveness, which apply to all community colleges. Based on Cox’s IMCD, community colleges can benefit from an understanding of how faculty and staff employees perceive the institution’s diversity climate because such an understanding can contribute to improving the college’s performance in terms of first-level effectiveness (attendance, turnover, productivity, work quality, recruiting success, creativity and innovation, problem solving, workgroup cohesiveness and communication) and second-level effectiveness (market share, profitability, achievement of formal organizational goals).

**Definitions of Key Terms**

**Community college.** A community college is a two-year higher education institution that offers courses towards certificates, diplomas, and associate degrees (California Community College Chancellor’s Office, 2016). These courses oftentimes are transferable to four-year higher education institutions’ degree programs.

**Cultural diversity.** Cox’s (1994) definition of cultural diversity is used in this study: “the representation, in one social system, of people with distinctly different group affiliations of cultural significance” (p. 6).

**Cultural group.** A cultural group refers to “an affiliation of people who collectively share certain norms, values, or traditions that are different from those of other groups” (Cox, 1994, pp. 5-6). Distinctions can include, but are not limited to, gender, race, ethnicity, national origin, age, and disability.

**Discrimination.** Cox’s (1994) definition of discrimination is used in this study: “behavioral bias toward a person based on the person’s group identity” (p. 64).
Diversity. For this study, diversity is defined as “the variation of social and cultural identities among people existing together in a defined employment or market setting” (Cox, 2001, p. 3).

Diversity climate. Cox’s (1994) definition of diversity climate is used in this study, which is composed of individual-level, group/intergroup-level, and organizational-level factors that may impact individual career outcomes and organizational effectiveness.

Diversity management. Diversity management is “the proactive effort to facilitate and support a diverse and inclusive workplace” (Quinn et al., 2015, p. 136). More specifically, diversity management in the workplace is defined as “a strategy that capitalizes the opportunities that diversity offers through formal policies that promote fairness in hiring, developing, and promoting employees from diverse backgrounds” (Madera, Dawson, & Neal, 2017, pp. 288-289).

Ethnocentrism. Ethnocentrism refers to “a proclivity for viewing members of one’s own group (in-group) as the center of the universe, for interpreting other social groups (out-groups) from the perspective of one’s own group, and for evaluating beliefs, behaviors, and values of one’s own group somewhat more positively than those of out-groups” (Cox, 1994, p. 130).

Inclusion. Inclusion refers to “the sense of belonging that traditionally marginalized individuals and groups feel when they are empowered to participate in the majority culture as full and valued members, shaping and redefining that culture in different ways” (Williams, 2013, p. 3).

Institutional bias. Institutional bias refers to preferred ways of managing an organization that, inadvertently, can hinder the full participation of members from cultural backgrounds different from the majority group (Cox, 1994).
**Integration.** In this study, the term integration refers to “the coming together and mixing of people from different cultural identity groups in one organization” (Cox. 1991, p. 35).

**Intergroup conflict.** As it pertains to cultural diversity, intergroup conflict is defined as a special case of interpersonal conflict involving individuals with two distinguishing features: “[a] group boundaries and group differences are involved, and [b] the conflict is directly or indirectly related to culture group identities” (Cox, 1994, p. 137).

**Multicultural.** For the purposes of this study, multicultural is defined as “the degree to which an organization values cultural diversity and is willing to utilize and encourage it” (Cox, 1991, p. 34).

**Prejudice.** In keeping with this study’s IMCD theoretical framework, Cox’s (1994) definition of prejudice is used: “Prejudice refers to attitudinal bias and means to prejudge something or someone on the basis of some characteristic” (p. 64).

**Organizational culture.** Denison’s (as cited in Cox, 1994) definition of organizational culture is used by Cox (1994) in his IMCD framework and, as such, is applied to this present study: “underlying values, beliefs and principles that serve as a foundation for the organization’s management system, as well as the set of management practices and behaviors that both exemplify and reinforce those principles” (p. 161).

**Psychological diversity climate.** Psychological diversity climate refers to employees’ observations of their organizations’ policies related to diversity (Madera et al., 2017).

**Racioethnicity.** As used in this study, racioethnicity refers to racial and or ethnic differences within the same nationality group (Cox, 1994).

**Social inclusion.** Social inclusion is both a process and an outcome (Toye & Downing, 2006). The sociological literature views social inclusion as one end of the inclusion-exclusion
continuum (Sennet, 2000; Winstanley & Stoney, 2000) as well as part of the intertwined inclusion-exclusion phenomena (O’Reilly, 2005).

**Stereotyping.** Stereotyping is “a perceptual and cognitive process in which specific behavioral traits are ascribed to individuals on the basis of their apparent membership in a group” (Cox, 1994, p. 88).

**Structural integration.** Structural integration “refers to levels of heterogeneity in the formal structure of an organization” (Cox, 1994, p. 177).

**Key Assumptions**

There were several assumptions with this study. The first assumption was that Cox’s (1994) first-level and second-level organizational effectiveness factors apply to community colleges. The second assumption was that faculty and staff participants answered the survey questions honestly. The third assumption was that participants’ self-reported responses were a reliable and accurate reflection of the diversity climate of the research site, a California community college. Lastly, it is assumed that this researcher’s assessment of the lack of awareness among faculty and staff participants regarding the community college’s diversity climate is an accurate reflection of reality.

**Delimitations**

Delimitations clarify where limits are imposed by the researcher for the purpose of bounding the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). As such, four delimitations apply to this study. First, the study was delimited to academic faculty and non-academic staff community college employees; student workers did not participate in the study. The second delimitation concerns diversity climate theory. For the purpose of this study, diversity climate is delimited to the individual-level, group/intergroup-level, and organizational-level factors associated with Cox’s
Accordingly, this study is delimited to the impact of diversity on organizational effectiveness; the individual career outcomes of the study participants, as described in Cox’s IMCD, are not considered in this study. Fourth, the study was delimited to a sample of faculty and staff employee representatives of one community college in California.

**Limitations**

Limitations are potential weaknesses that could “cast shadows of doubt on results and conclusions” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016, p. 45). In the case of this study, limitations include those commonly associated with survey research. These limitations include social desirability bias, and self-selection. Additionally, the study’s sample size may be insufficient for adequate reduction in sampling or measurement error. Lastly, only one community college in the central region of California was included, thus limiting the generalizability of findings.

**Summary**

Based on this researcher’s experience of two years within one central California community college during 2015 to 2016, both faculty and staff employees seemed unaware of the organization’s diversity climate. Specifically, in keeping with Cox’s (1994) IMCD framework, these employees lacked awareness about how individual, group/intergroup, and organizational factors may impact the community college’s organizational effectiveness. This descriptive quantitative survey study will add to the existing literature by examining the diversity climate of one California community college as perceived by the college’s faculty and staff employees. Based on Cox’s (1994) IMCD, employees’ perceptions about the college’s diversity climate will be described in terms of individual-level, group/intergroup-level, and organizational-level factors. Cox (1994, 2008) argued that, by managing diversity, an organization’s diversity climate can impact organizational performance in six key areas. Therefore, this study is
significant because findings may inform senior leadership efforts to improve the community
college’s organizational performance. Furthermore, the significance of this study is expanded to
consider how Cox’s (1994) specific measures of organizational effectiveness apply to the
community college organization. The next chapter provides a review of the diversity climate
research literature relevant to this study, including aspects related to the benefits of structuring a
diversity climate, the relationship between diversity management and organizational
performance in higher education institutions, and theoretical frameworks.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter provides a review of the diversity climate research literature. First, a historical background is provided on the concept of inclusion and the early evolution of diversity practices in higher education. Second, the literature specific to diversity climate is presented, including a review of theoretical frameworks, benefits of and strategies for structuring a diversity climate, and the relationship between diversity management and organizational performance. Third, the theoretical framework undergirding this study, Cox’s (1994) IMCD, is discussed. Next, issues related to community college diversity climate and organizational effectiveness are explored. Lastly, an overview of the gaps in the literature is presented along with conclusions.

Historical Background

This study examines the phenomenon of diversity climate, which is grounded in the concept of inclusion. Therefore, a historical context on the topic of inclusion and the early evolution of diversity practices in institutions of higher education and the workplace is helpful. Inclusion is a common topic among academicians, grounded in the social science fields of sociology, psychiatry, and psychology. Additionally, workplace inclusion is a popular concept in leadership and management applied scholarship and practice (Jordan, 2009). The sociological literature examines the normative concept of social inclusion from the position that “a fundamental goal of society is to enable its members to participate fully as valued, respected, and contributing members” (Bevelander & Pendakur, 2011, p. 7). A central focus of the social inclusion literature has been work activities and access to housing. However, Bevelander and Pendakur explained that income, employment, and housing are nonnegotiable and, therefore, are outside of the inclusion debate. Instead, they argue that voluntary social involvement (i.e., membership in organizations, charitable involvement, and voting) is a better marker of social
inclusion (Bevelander & Pendakur, 2011). The European Commission’s (2005) definition of social inclusion is broader than that of Bevelander and Pendakur:

Social inclusion is a process which ensures that those at risk of poverty and social exclusion gain the opportunities and resources necessary to participate fully in economic, social and cultural life and to enjoy a standard of living and well-being that is considered normal in the society in which they live. It ensures that they have a greater participation in decision-making which affects their lives and access to their fundamental rights. (p. 10)

Based on their review of the relevant literature, Toye and Downing (2006) concluded that social inclusion is “both a process and an outcome” (p. 13). They explained that social inclusion as an outcome is characterized by:

- a widely shared social experience and active participation;
- a broad equality of opportunities and life changes for individuals; and
- the achievement of a basic level of well-being for all citizens. (p. 13)

Moreover, Toye and Downing described social inclusion as a process:

- is composed of multiple interrelated dimensions that require parallel action;
- involves both the removal of barriers and actions to bring about the conditions of inclusions;
- must be participatory and inclusive;
- can be articulated along a spectrum from ‘weak’ models that basically preserve existing social structure and power relations to ‘strong’ models that aim for a transformation of social relations;
happens at a variety of levels, including: individual, family, institution, community, and government. (p. 13)

The sociological literature views social inclusion as one end of the inclusion-exclusion continuum (Sennet, 2000; Winstanley & Stoney, 2000) as well as part of the intertwined inclusion-exclusion phenomena (O’Reilly, 2005). As for the inclusion-exclusion continuum, theories can be traced back to the work of the French sociologist David Emile Durkheim, who proposed a functional social theory around the end of the 20th century (Abrams, de Moura, Hutchison, & Viki, 2005; O’Brien & Penna, 2006). Durkheim was focused on the problem of how social order and stability can be maintained during socioeconomic changes. Of particular concern was Europe’s evolution from an agricultural to an industrial society, which resulted in social disruptions that included a separation of labor within the workforce (O’Brien & Penna, 2006).

Durkheim’s moral sociology was different from the work of Max Weber and Karl Marx (Huschka & Mau, 2006), who were considered conflict theorists (Shortell, n.d.). Whereas, Weber and Marx understood that conflict was a necessary component of society that can either occur between people or among groups, Durkheim concluded that society was considered as existing in solidarity, not conflict, and as a result focused his work on societal cohesion in greatly separated parties. Durkheim put forth the concept of anomie, a symptom where society does not have social norms and regulations (Huschka & Mau, 2006). He asserted that the symptom of anomie is created when stable patterns of moral norms are disrupted or the dissemination of egoism through particular cultural norms. (Johnson & Duberley, 2010).

Whereas Marx believed that social conflicts were characteristics of a capitalistic labor market, Durkheim believed that modern society needed to generate new approaches to support
societal norms and affiliation (Shortall, n.d.). Drawing a parallel to Alexis de Tocqueville’s analysis of the American public and the effects of religion, community, and family, Durkheim argued that particular behaviors of work-related groups were capable of promoting social cohesion (Shortell, n.d.). Durkheim furthered the idea that occupational groups would change the practical actions that were revered outside the institution. Connections within occupational groups develop naturally into economic, political, and even social norms. Individuals will collaborate to draw conclusions on topics of employment, wages, and developing checks and balances to limit bureaucracy and at the same time contribute a usual interests and an impression of group identity (Shortall, n.d.).

Concerning the sociological literature addressing the intertwined inclusion-exclusion phenomena, O’Reilly (2005) believed the concepts of inclusion and exclusion demanded both concepts be mixed instead of operating as a single point on a continuum. Because no acceptable plans for inclusion and exclusion existed to grant a review of all social problems, multiple components are attributed to this concept (O’Reilly, 2005). For instance, material social interaction correlates with the materials or resources utilized as part of human interaction. Social scientists Doyal and Gough (1991) concluded that the standard requirements related to physical health and autonomy contribute to broad necessities for favorable social participation. Doyal and Gough also concluded that the standard needs related to physical health and autonomy contribute to requirements such as goods, services, events, and human affiliations.

Doyal and Gough (1991) argued that physical health was rated according to mortality patterns and all constraints, or disabilities, and also prevented people from achieving actions that would be viewed as standard. Alternate required standards such as autonomy address the requirements an individual would need to begin practices that accordingly develop a sense of
achievement. When an individual’s autonomy is restricted, it can result in a decrease in one’s mental health, cognitive ability, or capacity to engage in social activities (Doyal & Gough, 1991).

Other similar traits of social inclusion and exclusion are related to the individual’s value orientation when evaluated against that individual’s culture (Doyal & Gough, 1991). These characteristics included two conditions: whether individuals were (a) encouraged with accessible physical means that were interpersonally self-sufficient and (b) allowed to adhere to their individual principled values within their ranks. This approach implies that social inclusion and exclusion entail a delicate balancing of assimilation or adaptation of various ethical conclusions into a particular societal cultural framework, especially its legal and institutional frameworks (O’Reilly, 2005). The last trait of inclusion and exclusion targets the value relationship of the group, based on how group members describe themselves through concepts like race, biology, or national origin, in addition to moral or behavior attribution (O’Reilly, 2005). The traits are aligned through social inclusion with diversity and equity issues and conclusively from different forms of power (Jordan, 2009).

Regarding the psychological perspective of the concept of inclusion, Schutz’s (1958) seminal work with military groups provided a foundation for his development of the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation (FIRO) theory. His original intent for developing the theory was “to measure and predict the interaction between people for the purpose of assembling highly productive teams” (The Schutz Company, 2016, para. 1). The FIRO connects internal psychological processes of the individual with group dynamics. Schutz’s (1958) definition of inclusion encompasses the needs of the individual within the group context:
[Inclusion is] the need to establish and maintain a feeling of mutual interest with other people. This feeling includes (1) being able to take an interest in other people to a satisfactory degree and (2) having other people take interest in the self to a satisfactory degree. (as cited in Jordan, 2009, p. 23)

Based on Schutz’s (1958) early work, the initial FIRO-B instrument was developed as a measure of individuals’ interpersonal needs and how those needs influence their interactions in both the personal and professional context. In his later work, Schutz (2009) improved upon the initial instrument (renaming it the Element B) by clarifying the three behavioral levels of human interaction—inclusion, control, and openness (in the original theory openness was referred to as affection):

- **Inclusion**: the area concerned with achieving an optimal amount of contact with people. It has to do with IN and OUT.

- **Control**: the area concerned with achieving an optimal amount of control over people. It has to do with TOP and BOTTOM.

- **Openness**: the area concerned with achieving an optimal amount of personal openness with people. It has to do with OPEN and CLOSED. Some people enjoy relationships with others in which they confide their feelings and innermost thoughts. Other people prefer to not be open with people, to keep relationships impersonal, and to have acquaintances rather than close friends. Everyone has some desire to be open and some desire to keep relations private. (Schutz, 2009, p. 2)

In his later work, Schutz (2009) summarized the numerous advantages of the Element B over the FIRO-B, including the replacement of the dimension of affection with the dimension of
openness. Additionally, he provided a diagram of the Element B’s dichotomous decisions as based in behaviors and feeling specific to inclusion, control, and openness. Lastly, he detailed how he used the Guttman method for constructing the instrument’s psychological scales (Schutz, 2009).

Also from the field of psychology, Winstanley and Stoney (2000) applied a theory of social inclusion based on humanistic psychology, sociology, and ethics. Using humanistic psychology, the researchers addressed problems related to attachment, reciprocity, security, acceptance, congruence, self-actualization, and meaningfulness. From an ethical perspective, Winstanley and Stoney drew from aspects of Gilligan’s (1982) ethic of care, Etzioni’s (1995) community of care, and Immanuel Kant’s moral theory when examining how individuals ought to treat one another. They further asserted that diversity, the impartial circulation of assets and individual association in institutional decision-making, was a component of the structure and process of an institution. The authors’ thoughts about social inclusion were factored into an understanding of the individual and his or her shared group value and power. Nonetheless, Winstanley and Stoney presented findings implying that institutions invite stakeholders to be included in issues of inclusion through ongoing participation in decision making. Based on their conceptual framework, Winstanley and Stoney (2000) argued that institutions consisted of others besides stockholders who pursued the understanding of diversity by way of outcomes. The authors further concluded that institutions are open systems impacted by various stakeholders, including employees and members of society as well as the environment. Finally, stakeholders should be given an effective voice and assistance in decision making (Jordan, 2009). Winstanley and Stoney (2000) considered diversity to be a fundamental trait of the institution. This perspective conflicted with that of Cox (1991) and other scholars (e.g., Kochan et al., 2003:
Richard, 2000; Richard, Barnett, Dwyer, & Chadwick, 2004; Richard, Ford, & Ismail, 2006), who considered diversity as an aid to accomplishing institutional outcomes.

The beginnings of the concept of workplace inclusion in the applied sciences of the leadership and management field are ambiguous. Initially, diversity management scholars such as Cox (1991) and Morrison (1992) implied that the original traits associated with managing diversity and inclusion were focused on employee recruitment, training, career development, and mentoring. Roberson (2006) was among later scholars who attributed the concept of inclusion more specifically to the human resource profession. At the end of the 21st century, considerable diversity management programs had developed that encouraged employee participation and substantiated communication and public relations practices (Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 2000). The majority of these early programs, which were considered the forerunners of workplace inclusion programs, were focused on eliminating discrimination in the workplace and creating environments that granted all employees the connection required to endorse allowances and interests of diverse populations within their institutions (Harvey, 1999).

Research and practice relative to diversity and inclusion as applied to the labor force have evolved (see Dhillon, 2009; Torres, 2009; Turnbull, Greenwood, Tworoger, & Golden, 2009). Diversity management in the workplace has been defined as “a strategy that capitalizes the opportunities that diversity offers through formal policies that promote fairness in hiring, developing, and promoting employees from diverse backgrounds” (Madera, Dawson, & Neal, 2017, pp. 288-289). In the early 1990s, Johnston and Packer (1991) argued that employers should adopt affirmative action policies and practices in order to manage diversity in the workplace. Conversely, other analysts were arguing for a broader approach to diversity management. For instance, Thomas (1990) asserted that “the logic behind motioning pass
affirmative action to governing diversity is due to the breakdown of affirmative action
discrimination and bias with no contribution to create adequate possibilities for all individuals
within the organization” (p. 117).

Considered a seminal researcher on the topic of diversity, Cox (1994) described diversity in expansive terms, concluding that it is a combination of individuals in one social system that carries specific different, culturally applicable group connections. Other contemporaries of Cox (1994), such as Loden and Rosener (1991) and Thomas (1990), described diversity in related expansive definitions such as a “mixture of differences” (Allen, Dawson, Wheatley, & White, 2008, p. 22). Scholars from this early period also incorporated noticeable diversity traits like race or ethnicity and gender in addition to less-noticeable traits like personal values or educational levels.

Alternatively, other contemporaries of Cox (1994) described workplace diversity in terms of the varying viewpoints and methods that people of assorted identity groups bring to their jobs (Thomas & Ely, 1996). In this approach, the focus is more on appreciating diverse individuals rather than designing diversity into the workplace. Upon completion of a comprehensive analysis of the literature in early 2000, the U.S. Department of Commerce and Vice President Al Gore’s National Partnership for Reinventing Government Benchmarking Study Diversity Task Force (2001) described diversity in the most expansive framework by asserting that “diversity includes all traits and knowledge that describe everyone as individuals” (Chapter 1: Introduction, para. 2).

Regarding workplace diversity, Cox (1991) and Chavez and Weisinger (2008) concluded that institutions progress through a sequence that focuses on layers of beliefs and cultural viewpoints related to diversity and inclusion. This sequence includes the absence of diversity
processes (i.e., monolithic), certain unification of diversity processes (i.e., plural), and complete adaptation of diversity and inclusion processes (i.e., multicultural; Cox, 1991). Moreover, Cox and some of his contemporaries considered diversity and inclusion as methods by which to accomplish institutional conclusions (Jordan, 2009). Of central focus to this present study, however, is Cox’s (1994) research on diversity climate and how it impacts individuals’ career outcomes and organizational effectiveness.

Specific to higher education, Milem, Chang, and Antonio (2005) conducted a research synthesis of published literature reviews of historically significant empirical studies focused on racioethnic diversity in the higher education environment. Across the reviews of empirical studies, Milem et al. (2005) found two consistent conclusions. The first conclusion dealt with compositional diversity and learning. In particular, “the vitality, stimulation, and educational potential of an institution are directly related to the composition of its student body, faculty, and staff” (Milem et al., 2005, p. 6). In the case of college campuses that lacked diversity in their student population, minority groups were more likely to be viewed as tokens. Consensus in the literature was that tokenism can result in negative social stigma and minority-status stressors, which, in turn, may negatively impact student achievement (Milem et al., 2005). Conversely, it was reported that those college campuses with greater racioethnic diversity tended to “create more richly varied educational experiences” (Milem et al., 2005, p. 6), which positively impacted students’ learning.

A second consistent conclusion across the empirical literature reviews was related to the role of institutional expectations and commitment (Milem et al., 2005). Researchers concluded that the larger institutional context (i.e., the institutions’ mission and goals, commitment to the academic value of diversity, and funding or support for diversity initiatives and programs)
impacted the effectiveness of campus diversity initiatives and programs (Milem et al., 2005). Consistent across all literature reviews, higher perceived levels of institutional commitment to diversity were related to perceptions of lower racial tensions among groups as well as higher student achievement and increases in individuals’ desire to promote racial understanding. Conversely, lower perceived levels of institutional commitment to diversity were associated with higher levels of hostility and discrimination, which, in turn, were related to the following:

- lower academic achievement among African American students,
- feelings of isolation among Native American students,
- reported lower college adjustment and sense of belonging among Latino students, and
- higher levels of alienation among all students. (Milem et al., 2005, p. 11)

Additional findings from the early research on racioethnic diversity in institutions of higher education indicated that students who experienced diversity in higher education institutions were better prepared to handle situations in multiple communities (Engberg, 2007; Engberg & Hurtado, 2011; Hurtado, 2007; Umbach & Kuh, 2006) and appreciate the increased need to enhance racial acceptance and responsiveness (Antonio, 2001; Engberg & Hurtado, 2011; Pascarella & Edison, 1996). Moreover, researchers argued that colleges have a responsibility to develop students to be productive residents in an expanding and diverse society (Brown, 2004; Umbach, 2006). Significant to the development of students to exist and perform in a multicultural society is the influence of diverse faculty members (Cole & Barber, 2003; Hurtado, 2001; Umbach, 2006). Research has shown that students have greater opportunities in college when they are guided by those who share their ethnic background (Guiffrida, 2005; Tillman, 2001). To gain an understanding of how higher education leaders can intentionally develop and sustain campus diversity, it is helpful to examine the literature on diversity climate.
Diversity Climate

An understanding of diversity climate requires an understanding of the two terms *diversity* and *climate*. Diversity is the continuation of individuals and groups from various backgrounds, cultures, and experiences (Willoughby & O’Reilley, 1998). Diversity encompasses individuals’ age, disability, education, ethnicity, gender, political views, race, religion, sexual orientation, social class, and an array of other characteristics (Willoughby & O’Reilley, 1998). The initial identification of diversity categories was established on a limited diversity grouping system and included, but was not limited to gender, race, and ethnicity (Willoughby & O’Reilley, 1998). This limited grouping method originated in United States discrimination legislation and was not typically associated with other cultures or countries (Ferner, Almond, & Colling, 2005). The next group of categories emerged from a broader view of diversity that included racioethnicity, gender, cultural backgrounds, social classes, disabilities, and education (Willoughby & O’Reilley, 1998). Furthermore, two specific groups emerged that included diversity factors considered *visible* or *invisible*. Visible diversity relates to noticeable traits; attributes that are easily recognized such as race, gender, and physical disability. Invisible diversity, such as religion or educational background, and traits, should be attained through other determinants (Willoughby & O’Reilley, 1998). According to Mor Barak (2011), diversity descriptions were eventually formalized with the development of theoretical frameworks (e.g., Cox, 1994, 2001; Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pedersen, & Allen, 1998; Kreitz, 2008; Larkey, 1996; Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007).

Climate is the condition and development related to the involvement of people and groups with others in the institution (Willoughby & O’Reilley, 1998). Initial institutional analysts described diversity climate as a broad relationship between perceptions of the
organization and the employee at the workplace (Cox, 2001; Stewart, Volpone, Avery, & McKay, 2011). Some researchers have defined diversity climate as an understanding of workers based on individuals’ diversity as perceived by workers as well as the extent to which individuals’ diversity is welcomed and the institution adopts standard employment rules and practices aimed at including a blend of underrepresented workers (Kaplan, Wiley, & Maertz, 2011; Kossek & Zonia, 1993; McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2008; McKay et al., 2007; Mor Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998). For instance, Peterson and Spencer (1990) defined institutional climate as “the present accepted arrangements of critical ranges of institutional activity or its associates approaches of and beliefs regarding those approaches” (p. 173). In previous research, Mor Barak et al. (1998) described diversity climate as the equal treatment of workers and the degree to which minority workers have blended into the mapping of the workplace.

For generations, higher education researchers utilized terms like diversity climate, campus climate, and campus culture when discussing an institution’s setting related to diversity. In a literature review, Cress (2002) described diversity climate and campus culture as compatible terms. Alternative research focused campus climate in wide and ambiguous words and the anomaly only applied to particular sections of campus life like students or faculty (Hart & Fallabaum, 2008). For instance, Woodard and Sims (2000) described campus climate as students’ awareness and did not define what was considered experiences. Pennsylvania State University professor and diversity expert Susan Rankin described campus climate as the “the current attitudes, behaviors and standards of faculty, staff, administrators and students concerning the level of respect for individual needs, abilities and potential” (as cited in University of California, Office of the President, n.d., para. 2). Despite the wide description, higher education institutions have acknowledged diversity climate as being among their main
challenges (Shenkle, Snyder, & Bauer, 1998). Due to an authentic ambition to create a diverse student-learning environment, an elevated population of colleges and universities in the last few decades committed themselves to campus diversity climate research (Hart & Fallabaum, 2008; Hurtado, Carter, & Kardia, 1998; Hurtado, Milem, et al., 1998) to review each institution’s setting for diversity (Hart & Fallabaum, 2008; Hurtado, Milem et al., 1998). For the purpose of this study, Cox’s (1994) definition of diversity climate is used, which is composed of individual-level, group/intergroup-level, and organizational-level factors that may impact individual career outcomes and organizational effectiveness.

**Diversity climate theoretical frameworks.** Higher education institutions and researchers have utilized numerous theoretical frameworks to understand diversity climate. For instance, Cox’s (1994) IMCD framework includes three levels of diversity climate: (a) individual level, (b) group/intergroup level, and (c) organizational level. The individual level is made up of four factors: identity structures, prejudice, stereotyping, and personality. The three group/intergroup-level factors are cultural differences, ethnocentrism, and intergroup conflict. Lastly, the organizational level of diversity climate is composed of four factors: culture and acculturation process, structure integration, informal integration, and institutional bias in human resource systems (Cox, 1994). These three levels that collectively define the diversity climate of an organization will be detailed in the forthcoming section on this study’s theoretical framework.

In contrast to Cox’s (1994) IMCD diversity model, other scholars utilized more limited frameworks to define diversity climate. For instance, expanding on the efforts made by Chang (2000, 2002) and Gurin (1999), and incorporating efforts from Hurtado, Carter, et al. (1998), Milem (2003) and Milem and Hakuta (2000) investigated how diversity group categories could alter the diversity climate within higher education. The initial effort focused on defining
diversity as part of a change initiative that defines diversity climate on college campuses. Specifically, the researchers examined changes in higher education cultural diversity courses and extracurricular workshops and the impact these initiatives had on the campus diversity climate. Among their findings, they concluded that higher education institutions that utilized classroom education or cultural program functions to train and share knowledge of various cultural groups demonstrated enhanced campus diversity climate (Milem, 2003; Milem & Hakuta, 2000). Next, Milem (2003) and Milem and Hakuta (2000) investigated diverse communications between students in regard to various forms of diversity. This research focused on the influence diversity has on institutional diversity climate through evaluation of how students have been altered by diverse thoughts or facts due to an alternate individual (Milem, 2003; Milem & Hakuta, 2000; Milem & Umbach, 2003). Lastly, Milem (2003) and Milem and Hakuta (2000) studied structural diversity. In this effort, the focus was on explaining the differential and equivalent account of students from various racioethnic groups in the student population (Hurtado, Milem, et al., 1998; Milem & Umbach, 2003).

In their study of campus diversity, Grunwald and Dey (2006) defined institutional diversity climate based on Hurtado, Milem et al.’s (1998) multi-framework. According to the framework, the initial element of campus diversity climate involves previous institutional behaviors with regard to inclusion and exclusion of racioethnic individuals that changed the campus diversity climate. Fragments of separation in higher education environments and continuance of procedures for comparable groups were determined to contribute to diversity. Specifically, findings indicated students at non-segregated schools were prone to welcome diversity outside of school and unlikely to participate in racial stereotyping and not likely to fear multicultural settings (Braddock, 1980, 1985; Braddock & McPartland, 1989; Green, 1982; Scott
& McPartland, 1982). In addition, campus climate most often relied on an institution’s reaction to new students of color (Hurtado, Milem, et al., 1998). For instance, the institution’s viewpoint on data collected related to students of color, commitment to the growth of minority-specific programs and affirmative action, and consideration of the common specific and shared perceptions of diversity demonstrated the response from the institution to foreseeable requirements for diverse students (Peterson et al., 1978).

Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pedersen, and Allen (1998) brought forth another cultural diversity perspective. This perspective described the numerical and equivalent account of diverse individuals found in the institution that correlated with other diversity frameworks, including those of Cox (1994), Hurtado, Carter, et al. (1998), Mayhew et al. (2006), and Milem and Hakuta (2000). Providing support for Kanter’s (1977) findings that suggested settings with immensely diverse students contribute to social interaction in the college environment, Hurtado, Dey, and Treviño (1994) discovered that higher education settings consisting mostly of White students presented minimal opportunities for cross-cultural communication and few learning opportunities for racioethnic groups. In regard to these particular homogeneous settings, diverse students are often viewed as tokens (Hurtado, Carter et al., 1998), with tokenism defined as the popularity of diverse individuals being expanded, embellished, and skewed to comply with a certain stereotype (Kanter, 1977). Diversity climate was assessed based on traits and approaches related to the institution’s role in or importance given to increasing racioethnicity. Mayhew et al. (2006) found employee perceptions of considerable challenges to diversity are often included as part of the institutional pledge to diversity. Although structural diversity changes diversity climate, structural diversity can be changed by institutional policy. For instance, the rules and processes administered by the institution suggested the importance of the layers the college
created for campus diversity. An obvious contribution of Hurtado, Milem, et al. (1999)’s research was the expanding number of diverse individuals on college campuses. However, Hurtado, S., Dey, E. L., & Treviño, J.G (1994) suggested that expanding structural diversity was not sufficient to provide an affirmative campus diversity climate and would not succeed without pairing it with other strategies.

Another diversity theoretical framework developed by Hurtado, Milem, et al (1998) addressed the psychological climate, which targets a person’s perspective on people’s association, discrimination, racial variations, and traits concerning racioethnicity. This framework focuses on individuals’ perspectives, which vary among diverse employees and students. For instance, racially diverse students are less likely than White students to understand that their institution welcomes minority students (Loo & Rolison, 1986). Cabrera and Nora (1994) concluded that White students viewed diversity commitments as an opportunity to be exposed to other cultures. African American students also perceived similar commitments as a chance to develop the institution’s capacity for inclusion. According to Park (2009), students are inclined to be unhappy with the layers of heterogeneity at a noticeably White institution with African American students. Black students also are inclined to be dissatisfied with a lack of diverse professors than other student associations. In addition, Park (2009) suggested that White and Asian students are less inclined to be unhappy and White students are inclined to remain neutral on the topic. For employees, the accomplishment of a diverse climate was perceived to be unfavorable by racially diverse employees than White employees. Collins (1986) concluded that a person’s institutional status, authority, or level of influence within and or outside of the institution often affect his or her behavior toward the institution.
The final diversity climate framework developed by Hurtado, Milem, et al’s (1998) focused on the behavioral aspects of the climate. This framework includes the social connection involving racioethnic students in addition to involvement in campus design, practices, and climate (Hurtado, Milem, et al. 1998; Williams, 2010). Student involvement and campus interactions are critical to the achievement of undergraduate students (Hurtado, Carter et al., 1998). Scholars have concluded that student interactions may help with mental and emotional expansion, which can contribute to changes in student results (Alimo, Kelly, & Clark, 2002), retention standards (Chang, 1999), and opportunities to contend for higher positions (Milem & Hakuta, 2000). Moreover, minority students are more inclined than White students to share their communication with students of varied backgrounds and ethnicities (Milem, Chang, & Antonio, 2005). In addition, Loo and Rolison (1986) concluded that diverse students perceived gathering with varied ethnic groups differently than White students. For instance, students of color perceived interacting with varied ethic groups as an approach to understand cultural basis in an expanded setting that advocates for them. In contrast, White students perceived this same interaction as an instance of racial division. In conclusion, the broad range of theoretical frameworks has stimulated educational stakeholders to appreciate and strive for the development of welcoming diversity climates on their campuses (Mayhew et al., 2006).

**Benefits of and strategies for structuring a diversity climate.** Of particular significance to this present study is the structural diversity of a college campus, which generally refers to the “numerical representation of various racial, ethnic, and gender groups on campus” (Hurtado et al., 1999, p. 19). Prior research indicated that the demographic makeup of an employee group (i.e., race or ethnicity, gender, age) can impact employee turnover (Tsui, Egan, & O’Reilly, 1992) and group conflict (Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999). When employees
perceive their workplace climate as diverse, they are likely to view the institution as fulfilling their needs, which promotes a higher sense of personal fit within the organization (Stewart et al., 2011). This sense of personal fit then positively impacts employees’ desire to stay with the institution (McKay & Avery, 2005). Research has shown that those institutions effectively promoting a climate of diversity will develop a sustained edge over their competition that does not adequately promote structural diversity (Cox, 1994; Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000). Moreover, structural diversity is important to faculty members in terms of their individual career outcomes, which, in turn, impacts organizational effectiveness (Cox, 1994). Hicks-Clarke and Iles (2000) concluded that performance outcomes were based on the relationship between staff and their institution and what staff perceived about their work and their institution, their work satisfaction, and their engagement and recognition within their associations.

The more recent diversity climate literature shows that the numerical representation of various groups on college campuses is relevant to faculty members, students, and the institution. For instance, structural diversity among faculty members is critical because, through their intellectual leadership, they can influence students’ openness to diversity through the curriculum they teach and how they teach it as well as the classroom and campus climate they create (Ryder, Reason, Mitchell, Gillon, & Hemer, 2016). Ryder et al. (2016) analyzed data collected from 15 institutions of higher education that participated in the 2013 and 2014 administrations of the Personal and Social Responsibility Inventory (PSRI). The purpose of the study was to examine students’ perceptions of the institution’s climate in relationship to their scores on the Openness to Diversity and Challenge Scale (ODC). The study sample included 11,216 students representing 15 institutions. Of these students, the majority were female (65.3%) and White (56.7%). Of the non-White study participants, 14% were Asian, 13.1% were Hispanic, 8.7% were of two or more
races, and 4.9% were Black or African American. The largest proportion of the sample (35.2%) was senior-level students. Ryder et al.’s (2016) conclusions were consistent with previous research conducted by Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) regarding faculty members’ influence as socialization agents. Specifically, Ryder et al. found that “by encouraging the exploration of different cultures and perspectives and teaching about diverse perspectives (p. 12),” faculty members can increase students’ openness to diversity.

Some earlier research indicated that enhancing organizational diversity in various workplace environments, including institutions of higher education, could cause negative outcomes such as staff disapproval and turnover (Jackson & Joshi, 2004; O’Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989) as well as impediments to decision-making (Ferrier, 2001; Hambrick, Cho, & Ming-Jer, 1996; Murray, 1989). Moreover, these outcomes could negatively impact organizational performance (Tsui et al., 1992). However, the more recent research shows that a pro-diversity climate positively impacts organizational performance (Armstrong, Flood, Guthrie, Liu, & Mkamwa, 2010; Boehm et al., 2014; Kravitz & Yuengling, 2011; Bustamante, 2010; Patrick & Kumer, 2012; Van Praag & Hoogendoorn, 2013).

Armstrong et al. (2010) investigated how a diversity and equality management system (DEMS) impacted the performance of service and manufacturing organizations in Ireland. They utilized a quantitative survey research design, and a sample frame of 1,000 firms was selected from the Irish Times “Top 1,000 companies” database. The study’s final sample included both indigenous Irish firms and foreign-owned firms operating in Ireland. The sample totaled 241 company participants; of these, 132 completed both surveys, resulting in a usable response rate of 13.2%. Armstrong et al. (2010) discussed study results in terms of two key findings. First, analysis of their quantitative dataset showed that traditional high-performance work systems
(HPWS) of service and manufacturing companies in Ireland were related to positive business performance. Second, Armstrong et al. (2010) reported that DEMS practices were positively related to higher labor productivity and workplace innovation as well as lower voluntary employee turnover within the participating companies.

Utilizing a cross-sectional field study design that used questionnaires and archival data collection methods, Bustamante (2010) sought to understand the relationship between racioethnicity and institutional outcomes by examining the mediating role of social capital and moderating role of diversity climate. Bustamante (2010) used a dual-level sample: organizational and individual. The organizational-level purposeful sample consisted of a randomly selected subset of 300 randomly drawn from 1,418 U.S. colleges and universities included in two archival sources: the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) maintained by the National Center for Educational Statistics and America’s Best Colleges Directory maintained by U.S. News and World Report (USNWR). The individual-level sample consisted of 100 full-time faculty members from each of the 300 randomly sampled institutions. After eliminating faculty respondents from institutions with low-response rates (< 10%) and two institutions that were mistakenly included in the initial sample, Bustamante (2010) arrived at a final sample of 5,355 full-time faculty members across 285 four-year institutions of higher education.

Bustamante’s (2010) research produced key findings relative to the diversity climate of the sample of 285 four-year institutions of higher education. Diversity climate did not moderate the following relationships:

- racioethnic diversity and graduation rates ($b = -.01$, n.s.),
- racioethnic diversity and retention rates ($b = -.05$, n.s.), or
• racioethic diversity and operating margins \( (b = -.08, \text{n.s.}) \) (p. 76)

However, Bustamante (2010) found that diversity climate influenced two institutional performance measures. “Diversity climate was positively related to both graduation rates \( (b = .08, p < .01) \) and retention rates \( (b = .04, p < .01) \), but was unrelated to operating margins \( (b = .01, \text{n.s.}) \)” (p. 76).

Patrick and Kumer (2012) argued for the benefits of developing a workplace diversity strategy for increasing the representation of multiple racial and ethnic groups. They described drivers of diversity strategies in terms of the need “to tap the creative, cultural, and communicative skills of a variety of employees and to use those skills to improve company policies, products, and customer experiences” (p. 2), which is consistent with this present study’s theoretical framework. According to Cox’s (1994) IMCD framework, these desired skills and organizational improvements are the outcome of a diversity climate that includes individual-level, group/intergroup-level, and organizational-level factors.

Using a quantitative survey design, Patrick and Kumer (2012) investigated workplace diversity among 15 information technology (IT) companies in India. Study selection criteria included the requirement that participants be employed by their IT company for at least two years so they had adequate awareness of their employer’s diversity practices. The survey was sent to a total of 350 IT employees, of which 310 were completed and returned, comprising a response rate of 88.57%. After eliminating 10 respondents due to excessive missing survey data, the final sample included 300 respondents for a response rate of 85.71%. Among key findings, Patrick and Kumer reported four prevalent strategies that participant IT companies used to improve the organization’s diversity climate:

1. unleashing creativity and performance;
2. increasing employee morale, productivity, and retention;
3. giving new employees the opportunity to work in areas where they can be expected to advance; and
4. improving relationships with clients. (p. 5)

The least frequent strategy used to enhance a climate of diversity in the workplace, as reported by employees, involved decreasing employee complaints and litigation, which the authors described as “a rather restrictive approach to handling workplace diversity” (p. 5).

Another key finding in Patrick and Kumer’s (2012) study was that the three most prevalent barriers to developing a climate of diversity in the workplace, as perceived by the companies’ employees, were discrimination, prejudice, and ethnocentrism. This second finding, specific to discrimination, is consistent with the historical inclusion literature (Harvey, 1999; Hurtado et al., 1998) and the more current diversity literature (Boem et al., 2014). For example, Boem et al. (2014) found that harmful behaviors such as discrimination negatively impacted an organization’s diversity climate, which, in turn negatively impacted workgroup performance. Patrick and Kumer (2012) concluded that IT employers’ successful managing of workplace diversity “can lead to more committed, better satisfied, better performing employees and potentially better financial performance” (p. 1) for their company. The researchers, like others before them (Boehm et al., 2014; Cox, 1994; Cox & Blake, 1991; Hicks-Clarke, & Iles, 2000; Wright et al., 1995), acknowledged the competitive advantage for organizations that proactively manage diversity to maximize the potential of employees.

Van Praag and Hoogendoorn (2013) followed 550 students who set up 45 real companies while participating in an international Junior Achievement (JA) Young Enterprise Start-Up Program in the Netherlands. Of the student participants, 55% were of a non-Dutch ethnicity, and
53 different countries of origin were represented in the sample. Data were collected from 43 of the 45 JA teams through the teams’ annual reports and from individual students using three surveys that were administered at the beginning of the academic year, midway through the year, and at the end of the JA entrepreneurship program. When measuring the business performance outcomes of sales, profits, and profits per share, it was found that a moderate level of ethnic diversity within a team had no effect on these performance measures. However, the performance measures of those teams with a majority of ethnically diverse members showed the positive impact of diversity on the business performance outcomes (Van Praag & Hoogendoorn, 2013).

Expanding upon research about the impact of diversity climate on organizational or workplace performance, specifically Kopelman, Brief, and Guzzo’s (1990) climate model of productivity, Boehm et al. (2014) studied military workgroups to address a gap in the literature: a lack of understanding about the processes that may link diversity climate and group performance (Avery & McKay, 2010; McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2009). Their final dataset included responses from 7,689 military personnel from 211 workgroups to an online version of the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute’s (DEOMI) Organizational Climate Survey (DEOCS). Using structural equation modeling, the researchers confirmed that diversity climate was positively related to workgroup performance. This positive relationship was mediated by participants’ perceptions of discrimination. Boem et al. (2014) showed how an organizational or group climate can increase desired behaviors of individual employees toward their employer while also reducing “harmful behaviors [i.e., discrimination] that employees show toward their colleagues and direct reports” (p. 15). Furthermore, the relationship between diversity climate and group performance was more significant in larger workgroups than smaller groups. Boehm et al.’s conclusions about the relationship between diversity climate and group performance were
consistent with Van Praag and Hoogendoorn’s (2013) study of students who participated in an international Junior Achievement (JA) Young Enterprise Start-Up Program. In sum, key benefits of structuring a diversity climate included increasing employee morale, productivity, and retention (McKay & Avery, 2005; Patrick & Kumer, 2012; Stewart et al., 2011; Tsui et al., 1992); maintaining an edge over the competition (Cox, 1994; Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000); and improved organizational or workgroup performance (Armstrong et al., 2010; Boehm et al., 2014; Kravitz & Yuengling, 2011; Bustamante, 2010; Patrick & Kumer, 2012; Van Praag & Hoogendoorn, 2013).

More recently, strategies to structure diversity in organizations have taken the form of a myriad of diversity management programs designed to achieve workplace diversity goals (Madera et al., 2017). Diversity management strategies are defined as those that capitalize “the opportunities that diversity offers through formal policies that promote fairness in hiring, developing, and promoting employees from diverse backgrounds (Madera, 2013; Society for Human Resource Management, 2008; Yang & Konrad, 2011)” (Madera et al., 2017, pp. 288-289). Central to diversity management programs is the two-fold purpose of recruiting and developing a multicultural staff. Such efforts can take the form of networking and mentoring programs, internal structures designed to maintain diversity (e.g., adding executive positions for the purpose of administering diversity programs), external relationships with diverse supplier groups, and diversity education and training programs for employees (Madera et al., 2017).

Ethnic minorities comprise the fastest-growing workforce segment in the hospitality industry (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009; Lee & Mather, 2008; Toossi, 2004). As such, Madera et al. (2017) drew from the hospitality industry to examine managers’ attitudes toward diversity management practices, specifically their perceptions about the fairness, utility, and
importance of such practices. The study sample included 133 (a 78% response rate) hotel and lodging managers employed in the southern region of the United States who served in a variety of roles: banquet manager, director of engineering, rooms manager, front-desk manager, revenue manager, reservation manager, and sales manager. The average age of the manager participants was 31.7 years ($SD = 9.8$), and 48% were male and 52% were female. Additionally, most participants self-identified as Caucasian (53.8%), followed by Hispanic (25.2%), African-American or Black (11.8%), Asian (3.4%), and “other” (5.9%). As for experience in the hospitality industry, the managers averaged 2.9 years ($SD = 3.0$) working at their current company, 4.9 years ($SD = 2.5$) working in a management role, and 6.1 years ($SD = 6.0$) working in the hotel industry, and all respondents described their workplace as being diverse and multicultural (Madera et al., 2017).

After taking a management course hosted by a regional hotel and lodging association, participants in Madera et al.’s (2017) study were asked to complete an anonymous pencil-and-paper survey that measured psychological diversity climate, fairness of diversity management, perceived utility of diversity management, and perceived importance of diversity management. After controlling for years working with current company, years working in the hotel and tourism industry, years working as a manager, and type of hotel property, results showed that managers’ psychological diversity climate significantly predicted perceived utility of diversity management programs ($\beta = 0.40, p < 0.01; R^2 = 0.19, F(5, 112) = 6.32, p < 0.01$). Psychological diversity climate refers to the managers’ observations of their organizations’ policies related to diversity (Madera et al., 2017). Second, results showed that managers’ psychological diversity climate significantly predicted the perceived importance of diversity efforts ($\beta = 0.51, p < 0.01; R^2 = 0.26, F(1, 112) = 8.98, p < 0.01$). Third, a positive relationship was found between
managers’ psychological diversity climate and the fairness of diversity management programs 
($\beta = 0.71, p < 0.01; R^2 = 0.41, F(5, 112) = 22.42, p < 0.01$). Lastly, study results of the Sobel 
test showed that the perceived fairness of diversity management programs mediated the 
relationships between managers’ psychological diversity climate and utility of diversity 
management ($Z = 5.91, p < 0.01$) and perceived importance of diversity management ($Z = 8.44, 
p < 0.01$).

The results of Madera et al.’s (2017) research have implications for this present study that 
examines college faculty and staff employees’ perceptions of their community college’s diversity 
climate. Similar to the hospitality industry (Madera et al., 2017), institutions of higher education 
have made significant investments (i.e., financial, personnel, time, and other resources) in 
diversity management initiatives to support the development of a diverse workforce that meets 
the needs of a multicultural student base (Ryder et al., 2016). In the case of higher education, 
Ryder et al. (2016) argued for the importance of faculty members’ psychological diversity in 
that, by way of their intellectual leadership, they can significantly influence students’ openness 
to diversity. Like with hospitality managers, in order to effectively implement diversity 
initiatives (i.e., through the development and delivery of curriculum as well as the creation of 
classroom and campus climate), college faculty must believe that “diversity management 
programs at their workplace are useful, important, and fair” (Madera et al., 2017, p. 301) because 
those who do not hold such beliefs are less likely to support, reinforce, and maintain diversity 
management policies and programs.

**Diversity management and organizational performance in higher education.** Two 
recent studies explored the relationship between diversity management and aspects of 
organizational performance. First, Quinn et al. (2015) conducted a correlational study to
determine if and how the three constructs of diversity management, service orientation, and public orientation were related. Diversity management was defined as “the proactive effort to facilitate and support a diverse and inclusive workplace” (Quinn et al., 2015, p. 136). The second construct, service orientation, refers to “the synthesis of numbers of services provided, the variety and numbers of customers these services are offered to, and how strongly the services are emphasized by organizations (Homburg, Hoyer, & Fassnacht, 2002)” (Quinn et al., 2015, p. 136). Moreover, Quinn et al. explained that the “degree of emphasis is directly related to employee attitudes regarding their commitment to providing high quality services to customers” (p. 136). The third construct of public orientation “reflects employees’ awareness of the various constituencies served by an organization, understanding the needs of these constituencies, and committing the necessary time and effort into sustaining mutually beneficial, long-term relationships with these publics (Liaw, Chi, & Chuang, 2009)” (Quinn et al., 2015, p. 136).

Quinn et al. (2015) accessed a dataset gathered by The Institute for Organizational Excellence at the University of Texas at Austin that included 1,737 faculty and staff members from numerous public four-year universities. Results of their correlational study showed statistically significant relationships between the three constructs of diversity management, public orientation, and service orientation. Of particular note was the moderately strong relationship between diversity management and service orientation. This finding is indicative of the positive impact of a climate of cultural diversity on faculty and staff members’ attitudes about engaging students and servicing their needs (Quinn et al., 2015).

In the second study, Zaitouni and Gaber (2017) used quantitative methods to analyze employees’ perspectives about workplace diversity management and organizational performance at two private universities. Study participants included full-time teaching employees from a
university located in the country of Kuwait (n = 145) and from a U.S. university located in the state of Missouri (n = 539). Results revealed that employees at the university in Kuwait (b = .38; p < .01) and the university in the U.S. (b = .26; p < .01) perceived that a positive and significant relationship existed between cultural diversity and the organizational performance of their universities. Although results showed a significant link between workforce diversity and organizational performance, the researchers cited a limitation of their study sample that included two private educational institutions: “The fact that our entire sample comprises faculty and staff from private universities raises the question of whether our findings tell us anything about the impact of diversity on performance in other private or public universities” (Zaitouni & Gaber, 2017, p. 95). The researchers stressed the importance of managing a culture of diversity in all higher education institutions, stating, “If managed correctly, universities can be transformed into a competitive market stronghold. However, if mismanaged, they could be confronted with high turnover, conflict, and dissatisfaction” (p. 84).

**Theoretical Framework: Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity**

The theoretical framework undergirding this study is Cox’s (1994) IMCD. Before describing the IMCD in greater depth, its historical roots and evolutionary development are discussed. In response to workforce demographic shifts and increasing globalization in the early 1990s, Cox (1991) began to conceptualize a theoretical framework for guiding thinking relative to three key questions about multicultural organizations:

1. Leaders are being charged to create the multicultural organizations, but what does such an organization look like?

2. What are the specific ways in which it differs from the traditional organization?
3. What tools and techniques are available to assist organizations in making the
transition from the old to the new? (p. 34)

As a basis for answering these questions, Cox (1991) adapted Gordon’s (1964) societal-integration conceptual model that guided Gordon’s seminal work on assimilation in the U.S. When conceptualizing his initial model of the multicultural organization, Cox (1991) also drew from information about how earlier American organizations had managed diversity.

Gordon’s (1964) societal-integration model included seven dimensions for analyzing the assimilation of individuals from different ethnic backgrounds into a host society:

1. form of acculturation,
2. degree of structural assimilation,
3. degree of intergroup marriage,
4. degree of prejudice,
5. degree of discrimination,
6. degree of identification with the dominant group of the host society, and
7. degree of intergroup conflict (especially over the balance of power). (as cited in Cox, 1991, p. 35)

Cox (1991) adapted Gordon’s seven-point societal-integration model in order to analyze cultural integration within organizations. Table 1 shows the definitions for Cox’s (1991) six-dimension conceptual framework, which are adapted from Gordon’s (1964) model.
Table 1

*Cox’s Framework for Analyzing Organizational Integration of Culturally Diverse Personnel*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Acculturation</td>
<td>Modes by which two groups adapt to each other and resolve cultural differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Structural Integration</td>
<td>Cultural profiles of organization members including hiring, job placement, and job status profiles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Informal Integration</td>
<td>Inclusion of minority-culture members in informal networks and activities outside of normal working hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Cultural Bias</td>
<td>Prejudice and discrimination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Organizational Identification</td>
<td>Feelings of belonging, loyalty and commitment to the organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Inter-group Conflict</td>
<td>Friction, tension and power struggles between cultural groups</td>
</tr>
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Cox (1991) proceeded to apply his six-factor framework to characterize organizations according to various stages of development in terms of cultural diversity. Cox (1991) described three types of organizations: monolithic, plural, and multicultural. Generally, the monolithic organization is highly homogeneous, being characterized as having a minimal amount of structural integration of a diverse base of employee cultural profiles in the areas of hiring, job placement, and job status profiles (Cox, 1991). Unlike the monolithic organization, the plural organization is generally more heterogeneous and is intentional about including individuals from cultural backgrounds outside the dominant group. Leaders of plural organizations achieve a higher level of structural integration by considering cultural diversity in hiring and promotion policies and practices, equal opportunity manager trainings, and compensation audits to ensure against discrimination of minority group members (Cox, 1991). The third type of organization,
the multicultural organization, is one that reaches beyond the inclusive diversity goals of a plural organization to embrace the values of diversity. According to Cox (1991), the multicultural organization has six characteristics: “[a] pluralism, [b] full structural integration, [c] full integration of the informal networks, [d] an absence of prejudice and discrimination, [e] no gap in organizational identification based on cultural identity group, and [f] low levels of intergroup conflict” (p. 39).

With the methods for creating a multicultural organization outlined in Cox’s (1991) first work, he then partnered with a colleague to examine methods for managing diversity and the implications for organizational competitiveness (Cox & Blake, 1991). Reviewing the diversity management literature of the times, Cox and Blake (1991) identified management issues and activities relative to hiring and maximizing the benefits of a multicultural workforce in the seven spheres of heterogeneity in race, ethnicity, and nationality; higher career involvement of women; human resources management systems; organization culture; mindsets about diversity; cultural differences; and education programs. Thereafter, the authors focused on the literature specific to diversity as a competitive advantage for organizations, presenting six arguments for how diversity management may impact such advantages: cost, resource acquisition, marketing, creativity, problem-solving, and organizational flexibility. Cox and Blake (1991) summarized key aspects of cultural diversity in organizations that were later integrated into Cox’s (1994) IMCD theoretical framework:

Attitudes, cognitive functioning, and beliefs are not randomly distributed in the population but tend to vary systematically with demographic variables such as age, race, and gender. Thus, an expected consequence of increased cultural diversity in
organizations is the presence of different perspectives for problem solving, decision making and creative tasks. (p. 50)

Variations of Cox and Blake’s (1991) three perspectives of problem solving, decision making, and creative tasks evolved into components of organizational effectiveness in the latter IMCD framework: (a) creativity and innovation, (b) problem solving, and (c) workgroup cohesiveness and communications (Cox, 1994). Figure 1 shows the three levels of diversity climate factors that are relevant to this present research and how they influence individual employee career outcomes and organizational effectiveness measures. Although all three of Cox’s (1994) diversity factor levels (individual, group/intergroup, and organizational) are relevant to this present study, of particular note are the group/intergroup-level factors (cultural differences) and organizational-level diversity climate factors (structural integration and informal integration) that positively influence first-level organizational performance (creativity and innovation, problem solving, and workgroup cohesiveness and communication).

**Figure 1.** Interactional model of the impact on diversity on individual career outcomes and organizational effectiveness. Adapted from *Cultural Diversity in Organizations: Theory, Research, and Practice* by T. Cox Jr., 1994, p. 7.
According to Cox’s (1994) IMCD framework, diversity climate factors can have both a positive impact and or negative impact on both individual career outcomes and organizational effectiveness. For example, individual-level factors are concerned with group and cultural identity, particularly prejudice and stereotyping. Employees’ identity structures can have either positive or negative influence on affective career outcomes (i.e., job or career satisfaction, organizational identification, and job involvement) and achievement outcomes (i.e., job performance ratings, compensation, promotion, and mobility), depending upon whether an employee’s identity structure is a good fit or bad fit with the organizational context (Cox, 1994). Milem et al. (2005) described the larger organizational context as including the institution’s mission and goals, commitment to the academic value of diversity, and funding and support for diversity initiatives and programs. However, the influence of varying identity structures on organizational effectiveness measures, according to Cox (1994) is limited to group/intergroup-level factors (i.e., cultural differences, ethnocentrism, and intergroup conflict) and organizational-level factors (i.e., culture and acculturation process, structural integration, informal integration, and institutional bias in human resource systems). Since the purpose of this present study is to examine the diversity climate of one California community college, as perceived by the college’s faculty and staff employees, it is important to describe with greater depth the three levels of diversity climate according to Cox’s (1994) IMCD framework: individual level, group/intergroup level, and organizational level.

**Individual-level diversity climate factors.** According to Cox (1994), there are four individual-level factors that are integral to defining the diversity climate of an organization. These four factors are personal identity structures, prejudice, stereotyping, and personality type. Personal identity structures refer to those affiliations an individual has with “other people with
whom one shares certain things in common” (Cox, 1994, p. 43). Personal identity structures are composed of individual traits and group identities. Since the IMCD theoretical framework emphasizes group identities, Brewer and Miller’s (1984) definition of group identity according to social identity theory is helpful: “An individual’s personal identity is highly differentiated and based in part on membership in significant social categories, along with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership” (p. 281). The group identities most often discussed in the literature (i.e., racioethnicity, gender, age, and nationality) have both physical and cultural significance. Therefore, an understanding of the differences between phenotype identity groups and culture identity groups is appropriate. Phenotype identity groups include those that are based on physical and visually observable differences; whereas, culture identity groups are based on “shared norms, values, and common sociocultural heritage” (Cox, 1994, p. 45). Examples of distinguishing physical characteristics of racioethnic groups include skin color, hair texture, and facial features. Culture identity groups, however, are more complex than phenotype identity groups. Members of a culture group tend to share particular worldviews, social norms, values, and goal priorities. Because of the complexity, Cox (1994) uses the term “culture identity structure to refer to a particular culture group configuration” (p. 48). These structures are composed of the culture identity profile the identity strength. An example of a particular culture identity profile is a person who identifies with several groups: female (gender group), Black (racial group), American (nationality group), Christian (religious group), millennial (age group), college student (professional group). Accordingly, this individual’s culture identity profile is also defined by the strength she attributes to each of the groups of which she is a member (Cox, 1994).
In keeping with Cox’s (1994) IMCD framework, the second individual-level factor that contributes to defining the diversity climate of an organization is prejudice. Cox (1994) includes in his discussion of prejudice the related term *discrimination*. Whereas the term *prejudice* refers to “attitudinal bias,” *discrimination* refers to “behavioral bias toward a person based on the person’s group identity” (Cox, 1994, p. 64). Cox described three sources of prejudice and discrimination: intrapersonal factors, interpersonal factors, and societal reinforcement factors. Intrapersonal factors are related to personality types. According to Cox (1994), “certain personality types are more prone to prejudice and discrimination than others” (p. 65). For example, traits associated with an authoritarian personality (i.e., aggressiveness, power orientation, political conservatism, cynicism, and commitment to conforming to the prevailing authority structure) have been attributed to a lack of tolerance for minority groups (Ijzendoorn, 1989). Cox (1994) identified three interpersonal sources of prejudice and discrimination: “perceived physical attractiveness, communications proficiency, and legacy effects from the history of intergroup relations” (p. 67). As for societal reinforcement factors that are sources of prejudice, examples include U.S. laws and legal reforms specific to the women’s rights and the civil rights movements. Other more subtle forms of societal reinforcement of prejudice have included how members of various culture groups have historically either been excluded or portrayed in particular ways in educational materials and the media (Cox, 1994).

The third individual-level factors integral to defining the diversity climate of an organization—those associated with stereotyping—are closely related to prejudice (Cox, 1994). However, stereotyping is distinguished from prejudice according to its nature as a process. While prejudice is concerned with attitudes and emotional reactions to people, stereotyping involves the actual processes of categorizing group identities based on assumed traits attributed
to particular groups. Cox (1994) explained that stereotyping is a global phenomenon that is “widely practiced as a means of simplifying the world and making perceptual and cognitive processes more efficient” (p. 88). Examples of group identities that are stereotyped according to assumed traits include gender, racioethnicity, nationality, and, more recently, overweight people (Cox, 1994).

According to the IMCD framework (Cox, 1994) the fourth individual-level factors integral to defining the diversity climate of an organization are related to personality. As explained in the previous discussion of intrapersonal factors that are a source of prejudice and discrimination, traits associated with the authoritative personality type (i.e., aggressiveness, power orientation, political conservatism, cynicism, and commitment to conforming to the prevailing authority structure) can negatively impact an organization’s diversity climate (Cox, 1994). Another aspect of personality to consider is tolerance for ambiguity:

According to the ambiguity tolerance concept, a person with high tolerance for ambiguity should not experience cultural difference as threatening and may even prefer it, while a low-tolerance person would feel threatened by the difference and therefore react negatively. Thus people may welcome or resist diversity in workgroups partly as a function of the levels of tolerance for ambiguity in their individual personalities. (Cox, 1994, p. 66)

**Group/intergroup-level diversity climate factors.** The IMCD framework (Cox, 1994), includes three group/intergroup-level factors that are contribute to an understanding of organizational diversity climate. These three factors are cultural differences, ethnocentrism, and intergroup conflict. In keeping with Cox’s (1994) work on the CMCD framework, cultural differences are limited to identities of nationality, racioethnicity, and gender. Six areas of
behavior relevant to cultural differences and organizational diversity are considered in the IMCD framework: “time and space orientation, leadership style orientations, individualism versus collectivism, competitive versus cooperative behavior, locus of control, and communication styles” (Cox, 1994, p. 108).

Cox (1994) defined ethnocentrism as “a proclivity for viewing members of one’s own group (in-group) as the center of the universe, for interpreting other social groups (out-groups) from the perspective of one’s own group, and for evaluating beliefs, behaviors, and values of one’s own group somewhat more positively than those of out-groups” (p. 130). Cox further described ethnocentrism as “a group-level version of individual prejudice” (p. 131). Although there are overlaps between the two concepts, ethnocentrism is differentiated in terms of two aspects of human behavior. First, the in-group/out-group bias associated with ethnocentrism can occur in any group identity, including those of the major group member and minor group members. Second, ethnocentrism is a milder form of in-group preferences rather than the extreme forms of bigotry that are associated with prejudice. Although ethnocentric behavior is not limited to majority group members, the IMCD framework is concerned with the majority group members who tend to hold the power within organizations (Cox, 1994).

In the context of cultural diversity, intergroup conflict is defined as a special case of interpersonal conflict involving individuals with two distinguishing features: “[a] group boundaries and group differences are involved, and [b] the conflict is directly or indirectly related to culture group identities” (Cox, 1994, p. 137). Intergroup conflict can, as it pertains to cultural diversity, occur between the majority group and minority groups represented in the organizations as well as among minority groups. Among the issues, attitudes, and behaviors around which opposing interests can develop in the context of cultural diversity, which may then
lead to intergroup conflict in organizations, Cox (1994) listed five: “competing goals, competition for resources, cultural differences, power discrepancies, and assimilation versus preservation of microcultural identity” (p. 138). Cox (1994) stressed the importance recognizing opposing interests that can develop into potential intergroup conflicts and then handling them as critical elements of managing diversity.

Organizational-level diversity climate factors. In keeping with the IMCD framework (Cox, 1994), four organizational-level factors are components of an organization’s diversity climate. These four factors are (a) culture and acculturation process, (b) structural integration, (c) informal integration, and (d) institutional bias in human resource systems. In order to understand the nature of the first factor, culture and acculturation process, a definition of organizational culture is necessary. Cox (1994) used Denison’s (1990) definition of organizational culture and, as such, is applied to this present study: “underlying values, beliefs and principles that serve as a foundation for the organization’s management system, as well as the set of management practices and behaviors that both exemplify and reinforce those principles” (as cited in Cox, 1994, p. 161).

Cox (1994) described two dimensions of organizational cultures: strength and content. Organizations with strong cultures engage in clearly defining and enforcing norms and values. In such organizations, cues exist relative to how to behave, correct behaviors are reinforces with easily accessible information, and nonconformity is penalized. Conversely, when an organization has a weak culture, employees do not have a clear understanding of acceptable behavior and will engage in identity-related behaviors that may not align with the organization’s norms and values (Cox, 1994). Cultural content refers to the values, norms, and styles that characterize an organization. Cox (1994) cited content dimensions identified in the research
literature that are capable of being compared across organizations, including rule-oriented, 
people-oriented, competitive (O’Reilly, Chapman, & Caldwell, 1991); power distance, 
uncertainty avoidance, masculinity-femininity, individualism-collectivism (Hofstede, 1980); 
predictability-spontaneity, internal focus-external focus, order-flexibility, and long-term or short-
term focus (Quinn, 1988). Moreover, Cox and Finley-Nickelson (1991) combined the cultural 
dimensions of strength and content to describe two distinct types of strong organizational 
cultures. In the Type 3 culture, the organization restricts the range of core norms and values 
while heavily pressuring employees to conform to core values but not exerting as much pressure 
on peripheral norms and values. The other type of strong organizational culture is referred to as 
a Type 4 culture. In a Type 4 organizational culture, employees are expected to conform to a 
 wider range of behavioral domains. This conforming could be either to expanded core values or 
greater enforcement of core and peripheral values and norms. Cox (1994) explained that “the 
Type 3 culture is more suitable for diverse groups because it is less prescriptive and allows for 
more expression of difference on behaviors where uniformity is not critical to the organizational 
results” (p. 164).

Regarding acculturation, Cox (1994) described it as a process whereby cultural 
differences are resolved and adaptation to cultural changes occurs between groups. The 
acculturation process, in the organizational context, involves determining the dominant group’s 
point of reference, which can be problematic. Essentially, the cultural backgrounds of new 
employees must be merged with the organizational culture (Cox, 1994). Cox (1994) and Finley-
Nickelson’s (1991) acculturation typology includes four types of acculturation processes that 
occur in organizations: (a) assimilation, (b) separation, (c) deculturation, and (d) pluralism.
The second organizational-level diversity climate factor is structural integration, which Cox (1994) defined as “levels of heterogeneity in the formal structure of an organization” (p. 177). Traditionally emphasized in equal opportunity and affirmative action work, structural integration levels most often are measured according to two dimensions: (a) overall employment profile and (b) participation in the power structure of the organization (Cox, 1994). An organization’s overall employment profile is described in terms of the proportionate representation of various culture groups within its workforce. For example, representation is reported in percentages for women, Hispanic, African American, disabilities, and age groups.

The second structural integration dimension is participation in the power structure of an organization (Cox, 1994). Frequently defined in the literature as “a measure of total influence that has both formal and informal components (Randolph & Blackburn, 1989)” (as cited in Cox, 1994, p. 182), the IMCD framework is primarily concerned with the formal aspects of power. Authority is the principal source of formal power, involving decision-making and the right to direct people. Cox (1994) identified four aspects of the formal authority structure that are relevant to the diversity climates of organizations: (a) analysis by organization levels, (b) interlevel gap analysis, (c) analysis of promotion potential, and (d) analysis of significant group decision-making bodies. When analyzing diversity in an organization, it is important to examine the various chain-of-command levels within management, particularly representation of various culture groups within senior management ranks (Cox, 1994).

Another means of assessing diversity in power distribution is to conduct an interlevel gap analysis. This second type of assessment involves gauging differences between various group representations in the overall workforce (or bottom levels of organizational hierarchy) and
representations of these same groups at the higher levels of the organizational hierarchy. Like with structural integration, measurements are typically reported in percentages (Cox, 1994).

The third type of analysis involves the measuring of promotion potential as yet another indication of the power distribution within an organization (Cox, 1994). There are numerous forms of promotion potential, including “formal promotion potential ratings, participation in high potential career development programs, and assessments of promotion readiness” (Cox, 1994, p. 185). Analysis of promotion potential is important to consider when examining the power distribution within an organization for two major reasons. First, the candidate pool of employees with high promotion potential can be a source for future leaders. Second, those employees identified as having high potential for promotion may have significant influence than others working at the same organizational level because “senior managers view them as prospective peers while peers view them as prospective bosses” (Cox, 1994, p. 185).

The fourth and last type of analysis involves examining group decision-making bodies as an indication of how power is distributed within an organization (Cox, 1994). Organizational decision-making bodies include, but are not limited to, boards of directors, steering committees, task forces, and quality councils. Of particular focus in the IMCD framework is the extent to which diverse groups within the workforce are represented in these decision-making bodies (Cox, 1994).

The third organizational-level diversity climate factor in the IMCD framework, informal integration, entails understanding how group identities (i.e., gender, racioethnicity, and nationality) may impact participation in informal networks that can be relevant to an individual’s career (Cox, 1994). Social psychology theory suggests that individuals’ participation in informal groups and networks can be influenced by “common language, perceived social
similarity, and ethnocentrism” (Cox, 1994, p. 195). Moreover, such participation entails access to social networks (i.e., informal communication networks and the developed friendship connections) and mentoring activity and programs. Cox (1994) stressed the importance of informal integration to the IMCD framework by arguing that “full contribution of all organization members may be enhanced by actions to facilitate equal access to, and effectiveness of, informal networks of organizations” (p. 206).

The fourth and final organizational-level diversity climate factor in the IMCD framework is institutional bias in human resource systems. Institutional bias refers to preferred ways of managing an organization that, inadvertently, can hinder the full participation of members from cultural backgrounds different from the majority group (Cox, 1994). Cox (1994) listed some of the key areas in which institutional cultural bias can occur:

(a) norms about hours of work and expected meeting times, (b) performance appraisal processes, (c) job interviews, (d) policies and benefits related to work/family role balance, (e) policies and practices related to language and oral presentations, (f) stereotypical images of effective leadership behavior, and (g) the physical design of the workplace. (p. 222)

Typically, such biases are ingrained in operational practices and not apparent to most members of an organization. Therefore, cultural audits of an organization are recommended to identify cultural differences among various cultural groups and gain insight about those practices that are based on institutional biases (Cox, 1994).

Community College Diversity Climate and Organizational Effectiveness

In order to advance the literature on the link between diversity and organizational performance, a distinction must be recognized “between the implications of diversity as a
characteristic of the workforce and the organization’s response to this presence” (Cox, 2008, p. 9). Specifically, greater understanding of how organizations manage diversity and the impact of this management on organizational effectiveness is needed. In the case of this present study, faculty and staff employed by one California community college seemed to lack an awareness of the college’s diversity climate in terms of how individual, group/intergroup, and organizational factors impact organizational effectiveness. Therefore, the purpose of the study is to examine the diversity climate of the community college as perceived by the college’s faculty and staff members. A college cultural climate survey was designed based on the theoretical framework undergirding the study, Cox’s (1994) IMCD. Accordingly, the survey’s four scales correspond to the IMCD’s three levels of a diversity climate: individual, group/intergroup, and organizational. The survey’s first scale, employment and professional development, includes items related to Cox’s (1994) four organizational-level factors: (a) culture and acculturation process, (b) structural integration, (c) informal integration, and (d) institutional bias in human resource systems. The second scale of the survey, communication and intergroup relations, includes items related to Cox’s (1994) three group/intergroup factors: (a) cultural differences, (b) ethnocentrism, and (c) intergroup conflict. The third survey scale, sensitivity and inclusion, includes items related to Cox’s four organizational-level factors: (a) identity structures, (b) prejudice, (c) stereotyping, and (d) personality. In chapter three, the survey’s diversity climate subscales and items are linked to the research questions and the statistical analysis are described.

**Gaps and Conclusions**

This present study has been designed to address a gap in the diversity climate research literature. Although significant relationships have been found between cultural diversity and organizational performance as perceived by faculty and staff members at four-year public
universities (Quinn et al., 2015) and faculty and staff members at two private universities (Zaitouni & Gaber, 2017), no contemporary studies could be located that explored the perceptions of public community college faculty and staff members relative to their college’s climate of cultural diversity and the potential impact on organizational performance. This gap is a major shortcoming in the diversity climate literature given that community colleges are becoming increasingly characterized by cultural diversity (Rashotte & Webster, 2005). Community colleges are among higher education institutions that are experiencing the diverse student enrollment trends previously described, including “international students, underprivileged students, older students, students with special needs, and former military members” (Quinn et al., 2015, p. 134). In particular, this trend toward increased cultural diversity has been documented in California’s community colleges (Rashotte & Webster, 2005). Within California community colleges, minority students currently make up 63% of the population (California Community College Chancellor’s Office, 2016).

In conclusion, Cox (2008) explained the critical importance of moving beyond merely exploring the implications of diversity as a workforce characteristic in order to understand the implications of the interactions of diversity and the climate or environment on organizational performance:

An individual can anticipate a positive outcome on diversity when the environment is supportive and diverse. An individual cannot anticipate a positive outcome on diversity when the environment is not supportive but diversity is present. (p. 9)

The study’s research methodology is described in the next chapter. The data collection procedures are detailed and the survey instrument is described in greater detail. Additionally, data analysis procedures and statistical methods are presented.
Chapter 3: Research Methods

California’s population development and its composition have a substantial impact on student demographic makeup (Hancock, 2013). As California’s composition continues to grow and develop so will its cultural identity or identities (Reyes & Cheng, 2001). Moreover, this trend toward increased cultural diversity has been documented in California’s community colleges (Rashotte & Webster, 2005). Although significant relationships have been found between cultural diversity and organizational performance as perceived by faculty and staff members at four-year public universities and faculty and staff members at two private universities, no contemporary studies could be located that explored the perceptions of public community college faculty and staff members relative to their college’s climate of cultural diversity. This gap is a major shortcoming in the diversity climate literature given that community colleges are becoming increasingly characterized by cultural diversity.

Restatement of Problem Statement

According to Cox’s (1994) IMCD, three levels—individual, group/intergroup, and organizational—”collectively define the diversity climate of an organization” (p. 9). The individual level includes four factors: personal identity structures, prejudice, stereotyping, and personality type. The group/intergroup factors are cultural differences, ethnocentrism, and intergroup conflict. The organizational-level factors are organizational culture and acculturation processes, structural integration, informal integration, and institutional bias. Cox (1994) argued that it is important to understand an organization’s diversity climate because it directly impacts organizational performance as well as influences individual employees’ career experiences and outcomes. In this regard, organizations need to move beyond simply addressing diversity as a mere characteristic of the workforce to intentionally managing diversity and its impact on the
environment (Cox, 2008). Cox (2008) explained how the interaction of diversity and the environment impacts organizational performance:

If diversity is present and the environment for it is favorable, one can predict a positive impact of diversity. If diversity is present but the environment for it is not favorable, a negative impact of diversity on performance may be expected. (p. 9)

In view of this current researcher's understanding of 2 years inside one focal California junior college amid 2015 to 2016, employees consisting of both faculty and staff appeared to be unconscious of the association's assorted variety atmosphere regarding how singular, gathering/intergroup, and authoritative components affect hierarchical viability and representative vocation encounters and results. Although this lack of awareness among faculty and staff about the college’s diversity climate may impact their individual career experiences and outcomes, the focus of this present study is on how effective management of diversity can enhance organizations’ performance. Specifically, Cox (2008) described six major arguments for how effective management of diversity can enhance organizational performance: cost, resource acquisition, marketing, creativity, problem solving, and values. These six arguments for the benefits of managing diversity and organizational performance are further discussed in chapter two. The specific problem this study addresses is the need for an understanding of one community college’s diversity climate from the perspective of faculty and staff. Findings from this investigation might inform efforts to improve the community college’s organizational performance as well as that of other community colleges in the state of California.

**Restatement of Research Questions**

Three research questions focused this study of community college faculty and staff members’ perceptions about the college’s diversity climate:
- **RQ1:** How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of individual-level factors?

- **RQ2:** How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of group/intergroup-level factors?

- **RQ3:** How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of organizational-level factors?

This chapter describes the study’s methodology and research design. This is followed by discussion on the population and sampling methods. Next, the quantitative data collection instruments and process are defined. Subsequently, there is an explanation of data analysis methods. Finally, ethical considerations of human subjects participation are explained and a summary concludes the chapter.

**Research Design**

**Non-experimental research.** Non-experimental research is defined as a study where researchers are unable to control, manipulate or change a predictor variable (Creswell, 2009). Non-experimental research is a logical design choice to assess diversity by evaluating the faculty and staff perceptions as it relates to individual level, group/intergroup level and organizational level. Considering each of these three levels, and how this relationship impacts diversity at the organizational climate. Two features of non-experimental design are appropriate in this study. The features are detailed and original in comparable design (Polit & Beck, 2004). The detailed feature allows consideration and explanation of research variables as they commonly exist in educational institutions.
This study of diversity knowledge is considered inter-connected research since information on diversity climate, sensitivity and inclusion, communication and intergroup relations, employment and professional development, and institutional viability and vitality for the diversity study was gathered at a specific moment in time (Polit & Beck, 2004). Common presumptions are not completed since diversity climate is reviewed as it commonly exists in descriptive studies and the diversity climate measured is not based on existing or deliberate influence of any variables (Polit & Beck, 2004; Spector, 1981). This study of faculty and staff perceptions of diversity climate uses a non-experimental descriptive design. One single community college in central California was the source of data. Limited demographic information was captured.

**Target Population and Sampling Methods**

California is recognized worldwide as a state with a population that is ethnically diverse and no other developed territory in the same size as California has maintained consistent and increase population growth over the past quarter century (Reyes, B. I., & Cheng, J., 2001). As one community college in central California, the population of 1,290 employees provides an ample population for the researcher to conduct the diversity climate survey. Gay and Airasian (2003) described the difference between an accessible population versus a target population. An accessible population is described as a population that the researcher can draw in participants. Provided that the researcher had an accessible population of 1,290 employees at the one California community college, the researcher targeted the population of 1,099 for the research study. The target population consisted of faculty and staff but did not include student employees. Student employees are hired semester to semester and are not at campus long
enough to evaluate diversity climate. Criteria to participate in the diversity climate survey include:

- The participant must be a current employee of the college during the dissemination of the diversity climate survey.
- The participant must have a valid college email address.
- The participant must hold the employment status of a regular classified staff, management, regular faculty, adjunct faculty, short-term temporary employee, or a professional expert.

All members of the target population meeting the criteria were sent invitations via email to participate in the study. All those responding and submitting a completed survey comprised the sample.

**Data Collection**

An electronic survey process was used to collect data. The survey was administered through SurveyMonkey. The survey consisted of 29 questions that were separated into four sections. The four sections included demographic information regarding employment and professional development (Items 1 to 8); communication and intergroup relations (Items 9 to 13); sensitivity and inclusion (Items 14 to 20); and institutional viability and vitality (Items 21 to 29). The diversity climate survey utilizes three types of scale metrics for scoring of participant responses. The first scale used was for item 8, “How long have you been employed at the college?” was scored as follows: 1 = 1 year or less; 2 = 2-5 years; 3 = 6-8 years; 4 = 8-10 years; and 5 = 11 years or more. The second scale used for items 14 to 19 pertain to the frequency that the respondent had heard various types of insensitive or disparaging comments. Those items were scored as follows: 1 = *Never*; 2 = *Rarely*; 3 = *Occasionally*; and 4 = *Frequently*. The third
scale used was for all 21 other survey items were scored as follows: 1 = *Strongly Disagree*; 2 = *Disagree*; 3 = *Neutral*; 4 = *Agree*; and 5 = *Strongly Agree*.

By breaking down the diversity climate survey in terms of individual-level factors, group/intergroup-level factors, and organizational-level factors, the researcher and the panel of experts developed four sections and 29 items to make up survey that pertained to each of the three factors.

Table 2

*Research Questions and Survey Subscales/Items*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Cox’s Diversity Climate Scale</th>
<th>Survey Subscale/Item Numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RQ1: How do faculty and staff at a community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of individual-level factors?</td>
<td>Individual Level</td>
<td>Sensitivity &amp; Inclusion/Item No. 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ2: How do faculty and staff at a community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of group/intergroup-level factors?</td>
<td>Group/Intergroup Level</td>
<td>Communication &amp; Intergroup Relations/Item No. 9, 10, 11, 12, 13,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ3: How do faculty and staff at a community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of organizational-level factors?</td>
<td>Organizational Level</td>
<td>Employment &amp; Professional Development/Item No. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Institutional Viability &amp; Vitality/Item No. 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Panel of experts.* The panel of experts were essential to establishing content validity. The panel was made up of individuals who served in the single community college diversity committee and were experts in the area of diversity. The researcher gathered sample higher education diversity climate surveys in California from the internet before consulting with the panel of experts on the survey design. The researcher and panel of experts collaborated and
created the cultural climate diversity survey using sample higher education diversity climate surveys in California as a starting point. Understanding that the diversity climate survey was essential to the researchers study, the panel of experts gave final consent to what went in the diversity climate survey to the researcher and their dissertation chair. The researcher consulted with the dissertation chair before finalizing the diversity climate survey.

**Recruitment procedures.** After receiving approval from Pepperdine University’s Institutional Review Board (IRB; see Appendix A), quantitative data collection was initiated. The researcher worked with the panel of three experts to advertise and encourage potential participants to complete the survey once it was distributed. The researcher and panel of experts targeted various shared governance groups such as academic senate, union employees, management, and diversity committees as part of the recruitment process.

**Data collection procedures.** The email for the research study was sent to potential participants (regular full-time, part-time, temporary, and short-term faculty and staff). The emails provided information that included the reason for the research, assured protection of information privacy, provided an approximate timeframe for survey completion, and provided the researcher and the dissertation chair’s contact information. The email also included an embedded hyperlink for participants to view the online survey posted on SurveyMonkey’s website. The participants were asked to answer all items in the diversity climate survey. Incomplete surveys by participants were not dismissed but were still included as part of the analysis. All items did not require a response and participants may move forward in the survey should items be left blank in the diversity climate survey.

Once the participants clicked on the link to the survey, the opening webpage outlined a welcome page to start the survey. The subsequent four sections of the survey include:
employment/professional development (Items 1 to 8), communication and intergroup relations (Items 9 to 13), sensitivity and inclusion (Items 14 to 20), and institutional viability and vitality (Items 21 to 29). The diversity climate survey concluded with a thank you to the participants for completing the survey.

The survey was distributed in Spring 2016 over a period of four weeks with reminder emails sent out every week to participants. The researcher also reached out to the varied shared governance groups twice over a period of four weeks to remind and encourage participation. Those that already participated and enjoyed their participation were also asked to share their experiences with those who have yet to participate as a form of encouragement. No incentives were offered or allowed by the researcher and the panel of experts for participation in the survey but a reminder was provided to let employees understand the importance of study.

As a general analytical approach, means, standard deviations, medians, modes, lows, and highs were used to summarize the individual survey items in each section and those items were presented in tabular format sorted by the highest item mean score. Two analytical exceptions were developed for Item 8 (years of employment), which was summarized using frequency counts and percentages because those two items were measured using different metrics than the other items in that section. Items in each section that were measured using the same metric were aggregated into a section scale score and subjected to a Cronbach alpha reliability test to determine the feasibility of considering those items to be measuring a single construct.

The diversity climate survey was distributed via the internet using the online survey software SurveyMonkey. The utilization of online surveys granted quick dissemination of the instrument and brought a centralized area for data collection (Creswell, 2009). In addition,
SurveyMonkey’s features of data encryption methods and passwords granted necessary data protection and privacy. Next, the ethical considerations of human subjects are discussed.

**Ethical Considerations of Human Subjects**

Ethical issues were evaluated as part of the design for the study, particularly in parts that relate to protection of human subjects from harm, providing information related to informed consent, and ensuring privacy and honesty (Creswell, 2009). The researcher received consent from Pepperdine University Institutional Review Board before the start of data collection. This study did not put participants at risk of personal harm or retaliation from employers and identification by employer was prevented to protect their identities.

Participants evaluated and agreed to the informed consent by reviewing the informed consent in the body of the email and clicking on the hyperlink as acceptance to participate in the online survey. The body of the email included information about the reason for the research study in addition to any possible benefits and harm that may result from their participation of the online survey. Participants were also notified that the online survey was voluntary, anonymous, and participation or non participation in the study did not affect their employment. Participants have the right to withdraw from the survey at anytime and are informed that any incomplete survey would still be included in the analysis by the researcher.

The researcher protected the security of the data by using strong passwords to protect all online data stored on the researchers desktop computer and kept printed documents locked in an office file cabinet. The researcher is the only individual with access to both electronic files and physical files. SurveyMonkey’s capability of data encryption process and strong password protection helped to further protect the privacy of online data. Next is a discussion on the limitations of the diversity climate study.
Summary

An introduction to Chapter 3 included information regarding detailed descriptions of the survey questions, distribution of survey via email to participants, and timeline of data collection. The researcher also went over information regarding how participants were selected. The results of this study are described in Chapter 4 in alignment with the three research questions presented. Chapter 5 will provide information on the findings and recommendations for future studies.
Chapter 4: Results and Findings

Based on Cox’s (1994) IMCD, employees’ perceptions about the college’s diversity climate were captured in terms of individual-level, group/intergroup-level, and organizational-level factors. Surveys were gathered from 190 faculty and staff members. The purpose of this chapter is to report and explain the results of the research study. The procedures for recruitment, creation of samples, method and instruments for data collection, and a summary of results are described.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this descriptive quantitative study was to examine the diversity climate of one California community college as perceived by the college’s faculty and staff employees. Three research questions focused this study of community college faculty and staff members’ perceptions about the college’s diversity climate:

- **RQ1:** How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of individual-level factors?
- **RQ2:** How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of group/intergroup-level factors?
- **RQ3:** How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate

Data Collection, Response Rate, and Time Frame

Data were collected and recorded for an estimated four weeks (March - April 2016) through SurveyMonkey. There were 1,290 employees of which 1,099 were eligible based on the criteria and were emailed an invitation for participation with a link to the electronic survey through employee work emails. There were 202 (18.3%) participants who responded to the
survey. The researcher did not include 12 responses in the analysis as those responses were incomplete. Incomplete surveys were considered an adverse effect of data analysis. In order for a response to be included, all items in the survey needed to be answered. The analysis data set included 190 responses to the diversity climate survey.

The diversity climate survey was distributed in a controlled environment and surveys were emailed to a specified number of participants who met the selected criteria. However, the responses collected from the diversity climate survey was completely anonymous. The internet protocol address was also blocked off so the researcher cannot trace to the location of responses completed by the participants. The researcher only had the ability to view responses to the survey once it was submitted. An email is generated from SurveyMonkey to notify the researcher that a response was submitted. The survey was promoted twice in the four week period. No incentives were provided for those who participated in the survey. It was completely based on selected participants willingness to complete the survey. Participants were informed their choice to not participate did not negatively affect their employment.

**Sample Demographics**

Table 3 displays the frequency counts for demographics variables. Item 8 was a demographics question that asked “How long have you been employed at the college?” Twenty-nine (15.3%) responded with *1 year or less*. Thirty-five (18.4%) responded with *2-5 years*. 17 (8.9%) responded with *6-8 years*. Fourteen (7.4%) responded with *9-10 years*. Ninety-five (50%) responded with *11 years or more.*
Table 3

*Frequency Counts for Demographics (N = 190)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8. How long have you been employed at the college?</td>
<td>One year or less</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Two to five years</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Six to eight years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nine to ten years</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eleven years or more</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Results**

**Research Question 1.** Research Question 1 was, “RQ1: How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of individual level factors?” Items 14 to 19 of the Sensitivity and Inclusion section of the diversity climate survey addressed Research Question 1. Respondents were queried as to the frequency that six specific types of insensitive or disparaging comments were made. These ratings were based on a 4-point metric from never to frequently. A higher value indicates more frequent occurrence. Table 4 describes the mean, standard deviation, median (*Mdn*), mode, lowest score selected by participants and highest score selected by participants for Items 14 to 19. Findings show the most frequent type of disparaging comment was about another employee’s age (*M* = 1.86, *SD* = 0.84, *Mdn* = 2, *Mode* = 1, Low = 1, High = 3) and the least frequent type of disparaging comment was about disability (*M* = 1.41, *SD* = 0.76, *Mdn* = 1, *Mode* = 1, Low = 1, High = 4). Items 15 to 19 has identical median, mode, low, and high.
### Table 4

*Descriptive Statistics for the Sensitivity and Inclusion Items Sorted by Highest Mean (N = 190)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mdn</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14. Disparaging comments about age</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Disparaging comments about ethnicity</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Disparaging comments about gender</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Disparaging comments about religious beliefs</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Disparaging comments about sexual orientation</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Disparaging comments about disability</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Ratings based on a 4-point metric: 1 = Never to 4 = Frequently.*

According to Table 5, 190 participants selected responses for these six items. Highest number of responses were 43% or more towards 1 = *Never* for all six items. Less than 3% of responses were 5 = *Frequently* for all six items. Based on the overall responses from 190 participants, the majority (71% or more) believe disparaging comments for all six items almost never happens.

### Table 5

*Participant Responses for the Sensitivity and Inclusion Items (N = 190)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14. Disparaging comments about age</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Disparaging comments about disability</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Disparaging comments about ethnicity</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Disparaging comments about religious beliefs</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Disparaging comments about gender</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Disparaging comments about sexual orientation</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Ratings based on a 4-point metric: 1 = Never to 4 = Frequently.*
Research Question 2. Research Question 2 was, “RQ2: How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of group/intergroup-level factors?” Items 9 to 13 of the Communication and Intergroup Relations section of the diversity climate survey addressed Research Question 2 (Table 6). Respondents were queried to their level of agreement with Items 9 to 13. These ratings were based on a 5-point metric from strongly disagree to strongly agree. A higher value indicates strong agreement to statements indicated in each item. Table 6 describes the mean, standard deviation, median (Mdn), mode, lowest score selected by participants and highest score selected by participants for Items 9 to 13. Findings show the highest level of agreement was for Item 9, “The communications at your college (e.g., newsletters, emails and flyers) reflect a culturally inclusive climate in which differences are respected” (M = 3.64, SD = 0.96, Mdn = 4, Mode = 4, Low = 1, High = 5) and the lowest level of agreement was for Item 10, “Our college facilitates an ongoing dialogue about improving intergroup relations among employees” (M = 3.09, SD = 1.05, Mdn = 3, Mode = 3, Low = 1, High = 5).

According to Table 7, 190 participants selected responses for these five items. 4 = Agree represented the majority (28% or more) for each item. 1 = Strongly Disagree represented the least (11% or less) for each item. Based on the overall responses from 190 participants, the majority (56% or more) somewhat agree on all five items in the section for Communication and Intergroup Relations.
Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for the Communication and Intergroup Relations Items Sorted by Highest Mean (N = 190)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mdn</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9. The communications at your college (e.g., newsletters, emails and flyers) reflect a culturally inclusive climate in which differences are respected.</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Do you believe you are valued and respected at the work site.</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Overall, the intergroup relations among students, faculty, staff, and administrators contribute to a positive climate at the college.</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Employees who are discriminated against, know where to seek help at the college.</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Our college facilitates an ongoing dialogue about improving intergroup relations among employees.</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Ratings based on the 5-point metric: 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree.

Table 7

Participant Responses for the Communication and Intergroup Relations Items (N = 190)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9. The communications at your college (e.g., newsletters, emails and flyers) reflect a culturally inclusive climate in which differences are respected.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Our college facilitates an ongoing dialogue about improving intergroup relations among employees.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Do you believe you are valued and respected at the work site.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Employees who are discriminated against, know where to seek help at the college.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Overall, the intergroup relations among students, faculty, staff, and administrators contribute to a positive climate at the college.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Ratings based on the 5-point metric: 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree.
**Research Question 3.** Research Question 3 was, “How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of organizational-level factors?” Employment and Professional Development (Items 1 to 7) and Institutional Viability and Vitality (Items 21 to 29) addresses Research Question 3.

Items 1 to 7 of the Employment and Professional Development section of the diversity climate survey addressed Research Question 3 (Table 8). Respondents were queried to their level of agreement with each items. These ratings were based on a 5-point metric from strongly disagree to strongly agree. A higher value indicates strong agreement. Table 8 describes the mean, standard deviation, median \( (Mdn) \), mode, lowest score selected by participants and highest score selected by participants for Items 1 to 7. Findings show the highest level of agreement was for Item 1, “The college/worksite actively recruits a diverse faculty and staff” \( (M = 3.41, SD = 1.15, Mdn = 4, Mode = 4, Low = 1, High = 5) \) and the lowest level of agreement was for Item 5, ”Employees are given sufficient resources to succeed in their job” \( (M = 2.93, SD = 1.13, Mdn = 3, Mode = 3, Low = 1, High = 5) \).

According to Table 9, 190 participants selected responses for these seven items. 4 = Agree represented the majority (25% or more) selected responses for participants. All five items carried 1 = Strongly Disagree (18% or less) or 5 = Strongly Agree (17% or less) as the lowest selected response. The majority (45% or more) somewhat agree on all seven items in the section for Employment and Professional Development.
Table 8

*Descriptive Statistics for the Employment and Professional Development Items Sorted by Highest Mean* \((N = 190)\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mdn</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The college/worksite actively recruits a diverse faculty and staff.</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. All employees have adequate opportunities to partake in the participatory governance process and/or provide input at the college.</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Job performance is evaluated fairly at the college/worksite.</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The college provides all employees adequate opportunities for continued professional training and development.</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. If employees have a job-related problem, they know where to go to get sufficient support at the college/worksite.</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. There are equal opportunities for professional advancement and promotion at the college.</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Employees are given sufficient resources to succeed in their job.</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Ratings based on the 5-point metric: 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree*.

Table 9

*Participant Responses for the Employment and Professional Development Items*  
\((N = 190)\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The college/worksite actively recruits a diverse faculty and staff.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The college provides all employees adequate opportunities for continued professional training and development.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued)
Items 21 to 29 of the Institutional Viability and Vitality section of the diversity climate survey also addressed Research Question 3 (Table 10). Respondents were queried to their level of agreement with each items. These ratings were based on a 5-point metric from strongly disagree to strongly agree. A higher value indicates strong agreement to statements indicated in each item. Table 10 describes the mean, standard deviation, median (Mdn), mode, lowest score selected by participants and highest score selected by participants. Findings show the highest level of agreement was for Item 29, “Overall, diversity is considered integral to the infrastructure (i.e., mission, leadership, and key processes) and daily practices at the college/worksite.” (M = 3.51, SD = 1.01, Mdn = 4, Mode = 4, Low = 1, High = 5) and the lowest level of agreement was for Item 26, ”Employees are confident that the procedures for resolving grievances at the college are fair.” (M = 2.91, SD = 1.02, Mdn = 3, Mode = 3, Low = 1, High = 5).
Table 10

*Descriptive Statistics for the Institutional Viability and Vitality Items Sorted by Highest Mean*

*(N = 190)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mdn</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29. Overall, diversity is considered integral to the infrastructure (i.e., mission, leadership, and key processes) and daily practices at the college/worksite.</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Diversity is central to the college’s policies and procedures.</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Is mandatory diversity training for all employees beneficial to the college.</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. There are adequate opportunities at the college for employees to engage in diversity-related initiatives or activities.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Administrators actively support the practice of equity and cultural competency building.</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. The college’s leaders take initiative in promoting a positive college/worksite climate.</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Are your contributions regarding specific groups (ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, etc.) expressed to committees, supervisor, or a governing body, included in the development of programs, services, or practices?</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. When discrimination towards a person occurs, the college has an effective procedure for responding immediately.</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Employees are confident that the procedures for resolving grievances at the college are fair.</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Ratings based on the 5-point metric: 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree.*

According to Table 11, 190 participants selected responses for these nine items. Item 24, “Are your contributions regarding specific groups (ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, etc.) expressed to committees, supervisor, or a governing body, included in the development of programs, services, or practices?” carried the highest response with 3 = Neutral (54%) and
lowest response (2%) for all nine items. All nine items carried 1 = *Strongly Disagree* or 5 = *Strongly Agree* as the lowest selected response. Based on the overall responses from 190 participants, the majority (54% or more) somewhat agree on all nine items.

Table 11

*Participant Responses for the Institutional Viability and Vitality Items (N = 190)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21. Diversity is central to the college’s policies and procedures.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Administrators actively support the practice of equity and cultural competency building.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. The college’s leaders take initiative in promoting a positive college/worksite climate.</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Are your contributions regarding specific groups (ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, etc.) expressed to committees, supervisor, or a governing body, included in the development of programs, services, or practices?</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. When discrimination towards a person occurs, the college has an effective procedure for responding immediately.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Employees are confident that the procedures for resolving grievances at the college are fair.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. There are adequate opportunities at the college for employees to engage in diversity-related initiatives or activities.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Is mandatory diversity training for all employees beneficial to the college.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Overall, diversity is considered integral to the infrastructure (i.e., mission, leadership, and key processes) and daily practices at the college/worksite.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Ratings based on the 5-point metric: 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree.*

Table 12 displays the psychometric characteristics scale scores for the four sections of the diversity climate survey. Cronbach alpha is utilized as an approximation of the reliability of a
psychometric test (Lock, 2013). In order for scales to be reliable, Cronbach alpha internal reliability must be above .70 (Lock, 2013). All four scales had acceptable Cronbach alpha internal reliability coefficients that were all above with α ranging from .86 to .87. However, there was variation seen in the standard deviations with sections for employment and communications having a standard deviation close to 1.

Table 12

Psychometric Characteristics Scale Scores for Each Section (N = 190)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Four Scale Scores</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problems with Sensitivity and Inclusion (^a)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication and Intergroup Relations (^b)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment and Professional Development (^b)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Viability and Vitality (^b)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) Scale based on a 4-point metric: 1 = Never to 4 = Frequently.

\(^b\) Scale based on the 5-point metric: 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree.

Table 13 provides the results of the heterogeneity analysis of the coefficient of variation (CV) for all the survey items from the four scale scores. The coefficient of variation is calculated by dividing the standard deviation by the mean and expressing the quotient at a percentage. This coefficient expresses the extent that respondents have differing perceptions which would suggest areas of diversity of opinion to be explored further in future research.

The questions with the highest CV were Item 20: “Employees are excluded from participating in college activities because of their age, disability, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, religious/spiritual beliefs (M = 1.71, SD = 0.95, CV = 55.62),” Item 16, “Comments about ethnicity (M = 1.61, SD = 0.87, CV = 54.26),” and Item 15, “Comments about disability (M = 1.41, SD = 0.76, CV = 54.08).” The questions with the lowest CV were Item 9, “The communications at your college (e.g., newsletters, emails and flyers) reflect a culturally
inclusive climate in which differences are respected \( (M = 3.64, SD = 0.96, CV = 26.38) \),” and Item 24, “Are your contributions regarding specific groups (ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, etc.) expressed to committees, supervisor, or a governing body, included in the development of programs, services, or practices? \( (M = 3.18, SD = 0.86, CV = 27.07) \)” (Table 13).

Table 13

**Heterogeneity Analysis of Coefficient of Variation Sorted by Highest Variation \( (N = 190) \)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>( M )</th>
<th>( SD )</th>
<th>( CV )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20. Employees are excluded from participating in college activities because of their age, disability, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, religious/spiritual beliefs.</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>55.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Comments about ethnicity</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>54.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Comments about disability</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>54.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Comments about gender</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>50.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Comments about religious beliefs</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>49.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Comments about sexual orientation</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>48.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. There are equal opportunities for professional advancement and promotion at the college.</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>45.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Comments about age</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>45.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Do you believe you are valued and respected at the work site.</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>39.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The college provides all employees adequate opportunities for continued professional training and development.</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>39.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Employees are given sufficient resources to succeed in their job.</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>38.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. The college’s leaders take initiative in promoting a positive college/worksite climate.</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>37.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. All employees have adequate opportunities to partake in the participatory governance process and/or provide input at the college.</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>35.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. If employees have a job-related problem, they know where to go to get sufficient support at the college/worksite.</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>35.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Item</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>CV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 26. Employees are confident that the procedures for resolving grievances at the college are fair.  
  \[^a\] | 2.91 | 1.02 | 35.12|
| 12. Employees who are discriminated against, know where to seek help at the college.  
  \[^a\] | 3.15 | 1.09 | 34.73|
| 3. Job performance is evaluated fairly at the college/worksite.  
  \[^a\] | 3.29 | 1.14 | 34.45|
| 13. Overall, the intergroup relations among students, faculty, staff, and administrators contribute to a positive climate at the college.  
  \[^a\] | 3.31 | 1.13 | 34.23|
| 10. Bakersfield College facilitates an ongoing dialogue about improving intergroup relations among employees.  
  \[^a\] | 3.09 | 1.05 | 34.08|
| 1. The college/worksite actively recruits a diverse faculty and staff.  
  \[^a\] | 3.41 | 1.15 | 33.86|
| 22. Administrators actively support the practice of equity and cultural competency building.  
  \[^a\] | 3.34 | 1.11 | 33.21|
| 27. There are adequate opportunities at the college for employees to engage in diversity-related initiatives or activities.  
  \[^a\] | 3.43 | 1.09 | 31.77|
| 25. When discrimination towards a person occurs, the college has an effective procedure for responding immediately.  
  \[^a\] | 3.13 | 0.99 | 31.48|
| 21. Diversity is central to the college’s policies and procedures.  
  \[^a\] | 3.49 | 1.07 | 30.74|
| 29. Overall, diversity is considered integral to the infrastructure (i.e., mission, leadership, and key processes) and daily practices at the college/worksite.  
  \[^a\] | 3.51 | 1.01 | 28.72|
| 24. Are your contributions regarding specific groups (ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, etc.) expressed to committees, supervisor, or a governing body, included in the development of programs, services, or practices?  
  \[^a\] | 3.18 | 0.86 | 27.07|
| 9. The communications at your college (e.g., newsletters, emails and flyers) reflect a culturally inclusive climate in which differences are respected.  
  \[^a\] | 3.64 | 0.96 | 26.38|

*Note. CV = Coefficient of variation (standard deviation divided by mean expressed as a percentage)*

^a Ratings based on the 5-point metric: 1 = *Strongly Disagree* to 5 = *Strongly Agree.*

^b Ratings based on a 4-point metric: 1 = *Never* to 4 = *Frequently.*

Table 14 displays the results of the Spearman correlations between the problems with sensitivity and inclusion scale and the seven survey items with the number of years that the respondent had been employed by the college. Spearman correlations were used instead of the more common Pearson correlation due the ordinal nature of all the individual survey items.
(Lock, 2013). Inspection of the table found six of seven correlations were significant at the $p < .05$ level. The three strongest correlations were as follows: Those with more years of employment with the college, (a) had higher scores on the problems with sensitivity and inclusion scale ($r_s = .24, p = .001$); (b) had more agreement with Item 18, “Comments about gender ($r_s = .20, p = .007$)”; and (c) more agreement with Item 19, “The mandatory diversity training for all employees is beneficial to the college ($r_s = .20, p = .007$)” (Table 14).

Table 14

*Spearman Correlations Comparing Problems with Sensitivity Scale Scores and Years of Employment* ($N = 190$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Years of Employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problems with Sensitivity and Inclusion Scale</td>
<td>.24 ****</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Comments about age</td>
<td>.16 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Comments about disability</td>
<td>.17 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Comments about ethnicity</td>
<td>.18 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Comments about religious beliefs</td>
<td>.17 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Comments about gender</td>
<td>.20 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Comments about sexual orientation</td>
<td>.20 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Employees are excluded from participating in college activities because of their age, disability, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, religious/spiritual beliefs.</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Table 15 displays the results of the Spearman correlations between the communication and intergroup relations scale and the five survey items with the number of years that the respondent had been employed by the college. Inspection of the table found four of five correlations were significant at the $p < .05$ level. The two strongest correlations were as follows: Those with more years of employment with the college, (a) had lower agreement with Item 11, “Do you believe you are valued and respected at the work site ($r_s = .20, p = .007$); and (b) lower
scores on the problems with communication and intergroup relations scale \( (r_s = -.15, p = .04); \)

Table 15).

Table 15

Spearman Correlations Comparing Communication and Intergroup Relations Scale Scores and
Years of Employment \((N = 190)\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Years of Employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication and Intergroup Relations Scale</td>
<td>-.15 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The communications at your college (e.g., newsletters, emails and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flyers) reflect a culturally inclusive climate in which differences</td>
<td>-.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are respected.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Bakersfield College facilitates an ongoing dialogue about improving</td>
<td>-.14 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intergroup relations among employees.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Do you believe you are valued and respected at the work site.</td>
<td>-.19 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Employees who are discriminated against, know where to seek help</td>
<td>-.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at the college.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Overall, the intergroup relations among students, faculty, staff,</td>
<td>-.14 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and administrators contribute to a positive climate at the college.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* \( p < .05 \).  ** \( p < .01 \).  *** \( p < .005 \).  **** \( p < .001 \).

Table 16 displays the results of the Spearman correlations between the employment and professional development scale and the seven survey items with the number of years that the respondent had been employed by the college. Inspection of the table found two of seven correlations were significant at the \( p < .05 \) level. The two significant correlations were as follows: Those with more years of employment with the college, (a) had lower agreement with Item 5, “Employees are given sufficient resources to succeed in their job \( (r_s = -.16, p = .03); \)” and (b) lower agreement with Item 6, “If employees have a job-related problem, they know where to go to get sufficient support at the college/worksite \( (r_s = -.15, p = .03) \)” (Table 16).
Table 16

Spearman Correlations Comparing Employment and Professional Development Scale Scores and Years of Employment (N = 190)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Years of Employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employment and Professional Development Scale</td>
<td>-.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The college/worksite actively recruits a diverse faculty and staff.</td>
<td>-.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The college provides all employees adequate opportunities for</td>
<td>-.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continued professional training and development.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Job performance is evaluated fairly at the college/worksite.</td>
<td>-.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. There are equal opportunities for professional advancement and</td>
<td>-.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>promotion at the college.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Employees are given sufficient resources to succeed in their job.</td>
<td>-.16 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. If employees have a job-related problem, they know where to go to</td>
<td>-.16 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get sufficient support at the college/worksite.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. All employees have adequate opportunities to partake in the</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>participatory governance process and/or provide input at the college.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* * p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .005. **** p < .001.

Table 17 displays the results of the Spearman correlations between the institutional viability and vitality scale and the nine survey items with the number of years that the respondent had been employed by the college. Inspection of the table found four of nine correlations were significant at the p < .05 level. The three strongest correlations were as follows: Those with more years of employment with the college, (a) had less agreement with Item 28, “Is mandatory diversity training for all employees beneficial to the college (r_s = -.29, p = .001)” ; (b) had less agreement with Item 23, “The college’s leaders take initiative in promoting a positive college/worksite climate (r_s = -.26, p = .001)” ; and (c) lower scores on the institutional viability and vitality scale (r_s = -.18, p = .01) (Table 17).
Table 17

Spearman Correlations Comparing Institutional Viability and Vitality Scale Scores and Years of Employment (N = 190)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Years of Employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Viability and Vitality Scale</td>
<td>-.18 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Diversity is central to the college’s policies and procedures.</td>
<td>-.15 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Administrators actively support the practice of equity and cultural</td>
<td>-.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>competency building.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. The college’s leaders take initiative in promoting a positive</td>
<td>-.26 ****</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>college/worksite climate.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Are your contributions regarding specific groups (ethnicity, gender,</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sexual orientation, etc.) expressed to committees, supervisor, or a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>governing body, included in the development of programs, services, or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practices?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. When discrimination towards a person occurs, the college has an</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effective procedure for responding immediately.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Employees are confident that the procedures for resolving grievances</td>
<td>-.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at the college are fair.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. There are adequate opportunities at the college for employees to</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>engage in diversity-related initiatives or activities.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Is mandatory diversity training for all employees beneficial to the</td>
<td>-.29 ****</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>college.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Overall, diversity is considered integral to the infrastructure (i.e.,</td>
<td>-.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mission, leadership, and key processes) and daily practices at the</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>college/worksite.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .005. **** p < .001.

Summary

Research questions. In summary, this study used survey responses from 190 faculty and staff members to examine the diversity climate of one California community college as perceived by the college’s faculty and staff employees. The key findings from this study for Research Question 1,” How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of individual-level factors?” include averages about items
in the Sensitivity and Inclusion section of the survey ranked between point metric 1 (Never) to point metric 2 (Rarely). Item 20 was omitted in the evaluation for Research Question 1 and was instead included in the additional findings section. The key findings from this study for Research Question 2, “How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of group/intergroup-level factors?” include averages for all responses received in the section of Communication and Intergroup Relations ranked between point metric 3 (Neutral) and metric point 4 (Agree). The key findings from this study for Research Question 3,” How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of organizational-level factors?” includes averages for all responses received in the section of Employment and Professional Development ranked between point metric 2 (Disagree) and metric point 4 (Agree). Item 8 was omitted in the evaluation for Research Question 3 and instead was included in the demographics data section.

**Additional findings.** Additional findings include 90% of the sample either “strongly disagreed” or “disagreed” with Item 20, “Employees are excluded from participating in college activities because of their age, disability, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, religious/spiritual beliefs.” in the sensitivity and inclusion section. When comparing scale scores with years of service, the researcher found the correlation that participants who have been employed with the college longer have problems with diversity climate when compared to participants who have been employed less than five years. In the final chapter, these findings will be compared to the literature, conclusions and implications will be drawn, and a series of recommendations will be suggested.
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

According to Cox’s (1994) IMCD framework, diversity climate factors can have both a positive impact and or negative impact on both individual career outcomes and organizational effectiveness. For example, individual-level factors are concerned with group and cultural identity, particularly prejudice and stereotyping. Employees’ identity structures can have either positive or negative influence on affective career outcomes (i.e., job or career satisfaction, organizational identification, and job involvement) and achievement outcomes (i.e., job performance ratings, compensation, promotion, and mobility), depending upon whether an employee’s identity structure is a good fit or bad fit with the organizational context (Cox, 1994). Milem et al. (2005) described the larger organizational context as including the institution’s mission and goals, commitment to the academic value of diversity, and funding and support for diversity initiatives and programs. However, the influence of varying identity structures on organizational effectiveness measures, according to Cox (1994) is limited to group/intergroup-level factors (i.e., cultural differences, ethnocentrism, and intergroup conflict) and organizational-level factors (i.e., culture and acculturation process, structural integration, informal integration, and institutional bias in human resource systems). Since the purpose of this present study is to examine the diversity climate of one California community college, as perceived by the college’s faculty and staff employees, it is important to evaluate the three levels of diversity climate according to Cox’s (1994) IMCD framework: individual level, group/intergroup level, and organizational level. The researcher has chosen the quantitative method as the appropriate method to evaluate Cox’s IMCD framework and diversity climate at one California community college.
The quantitative method was utilized to address the study’s three research questions on diversity climate at the one California community college. First, the summary of the study is explained. Next, findings related to literature are presented as well as limitations of findings. Afterwards, implications of future diversity studies are explained in addition to recommendations for future research. The Chapter concludes with a final summary.

Summary of this Study

**Overview of the problem.** In view of this present researcher's understanding of 2 years inside one focal California junior college amid 2015 to 2016, employees of the college appeared to be unconscious of the association's decent variety atmosphere as far as how singular, gathering/intergroup, and authoritative elements affect hierarchical adequacy and worker profession encounters and results. Although this lack of awareness among faculty and staff about the college’s diversity climate may impact their individual career experiences and outcomes, the focus of this present study is on how effective management of diversity can enhance organizations’ performance. The specific problem this study addresses is the need for an understanding of one community college’s diversity climate from the perspective of faculty and staff.

**Purpose statement.** The purpose of this descriptive quantitative survey study is to examine the diversity climate of one California community college as perceived by the college’s faculty and staff employees. Based on Cox’s (1994) IMCD, employees’ perceptions about the college’s diversity climate will be described in terms of individual-level, group/intergroup-level, and organizational-level factors.

Three research questions focused this study of community college faculty and staff members’ perceptions about the college’s diversity climate:
• **RQ1**: How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of individual-level factors?

• **RQ2**: How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of group/intergroup-level factors?

• **RQ3**: How do faculty and staff at one California community college describe the college’s diversity climate in terms of organizational-level factors?

Quantitative research is the process by which objective theories are tested by evaluating the relationship among variables (Creswell, 2009). As such, the majority of quantitative approaches include the manipulation of variables and the oversight of the research setting (Roberts, 2010). The variables used in the diversity climate study can be measured on instruments through statistical procedures (Creswell, 2009).

The quantitative approach is also considered a *logical positivism*. Research initiates a specific outline which includes detailed questions or hypotheses (Creswell, 2009). Researchers explore human behavior and want to gather detailed information on a few variables to analyze any differences between those variables (Creswell, 2009). In addition, data collection are generally numerical and responses collected from instruments such surveys and tests.

The quantitative research method design used for this study included collection and analyzing quantitative data. The survey was distributed in Spring 2016 over a period of four weeks with reminder emails sent out every week to participants. Only participants who received an email invitation were allowed to participate in the survey. Those who did not receive the email could not participate.

**Major findings.** Quantitative analysis shows that the overall data response (between $M = 1.41$ to 1.86) based on a 5-point metric scale. Participants for Research Question 1 believe
that disparaging comments about Sensitivity and Inclusion are not heard as much by the survey participants in the one California community college. Overall data response for Research Question 2 is approximately neutral (\(M = 3.09\) to 3.64) out of a 4-point metric scale. Participants believe there is room for improvement in the area of Communication and Intergroup Relations. Finally, the overall data response for Research Question 3 in the area of Employment and Professional Development ranges on the 5-point metric scale with slightly disagree (\(M = 2.93\)) to slightly agree (\(M = 3.41\)). The average data response for Research Question 3 is approximately neutral. The following discussion provides context for the findings by relating them to the research literature.

**Findings Related to Literature**

Cox (1994, 2008) argued that an organization’s diversity climate can impact organizational performance. By managing diversity, an organization’s performance can be enhanced in six areas: (a) cost structures, (b) human resource acquisition, (c) marketing, (d) creativity and innovation, (e) problem solving, and (f) honoring stated core values (Cox, 2008). The following discussion provides context by looking at the relationship of each research question as it relates to the literature review.

**Research Question 1.** Research Question 1 inquired about the individual-level factors at the one California community college. Respondents were queried as to the frequency that six specific types of insensitive or disparaging comments were made. These ratings were based on a 4-point metric: 1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Occasionally, to 4 = Frequently. The survey results from the Sensitivity and Inclusion section shows that the college has been effective in promoting sensitivity and inclusion in the workplace and honoring its stated “core values” (Cox, 2008).
The highest mean of 1.86 explains the biggest challenge is related to disparaging remarks about age. However, the mean of 1.86 is low when compared to an overall score out of a 4.0 scale.

These outcomes add to the theoretical framework developed by Hurtado et al. (1998) addressed the psychological climate, which targets a person’s perspective on people’s association, discrimination, racial variations, and traits concerning racioethnictiy. This framework focuses on individuals’ perspectives, which vary among diverse employees and students. For instance, racially diverse students are less likely than White students to understand that their institution welcomes minority students (Loo & Rolison, 1986). As the one California community college has the make-up of predominately white students, the collected data reflected their perspective on sensitivity and inclusion as not an issue or concern. Cox (1994/1998) argues that racially diverse students perceptions can have an impact on organizational performance as the perceptions may be an indicator of current diversity climate.

**Research Question 2.** Research Question 2 inquired about the group/intergroup-level factors at the one California community college. Respondents were queried as to the frequency that five specific types of items were effective at the group/intergroup level. The survey results from the Communication and Intergroup Relations section indicates an approximate neutral mean (3.09 to 3.64) out of a 5.0 scale. The data suggests there is room for improvement overall in this section. Based on Cox (2008), recommendations for improvement include problem solving, marketing, and utilizing cost structure and innovation. A few examples may include training related to sensitivity and inclusion, promotion of diversity at the college, and encouraging participation and feedback on diversity.

These outcomes add to the theoretical framework developed by Cox (1994) on group/intergroup-level diversity climate factor. The factor stressed the importance of
recognizing opposing interests that can develop into potential intergroup conflicts and then handling them as critical elements of managing diversity. Intergroup conflict can, as it pertains to cultural diversity, occur between the majority group and minority groups represented in the organizations as well as among minority groups.

**Research Question 3.** Research Question 3 inquired about the organizational-level factors at the one California community college. Respondents were queried as to the frequency that seven specific types of items were effective at the organizational level. The survey results from the Employment and Professional Development section indicates responses were approximately neutral (2.93 to 3.41) when scored based on a 5.0 scale. There is room for improvement in this section as the participants did not score this section high. According to Cox (2008), recommendations for diversity improvement should focus on human resources acquisition, marketing, and creativity and innovations. A few examples may include additional diversity advertising to target groups and encourage more diverse applicant pools, providing additional trainings to current employees to encourage diversity, and encouraging more diversity in resources to help current employees succeed in their positions.

The outcomes of the collected data add to the theoretical framework developed by Hurtado et al. (1998) by addressing the structural diversity of a college campus, which generally refers to the “numerical representation of various racial, ethnic, and gender groups on campus”. Prior research indicated that the demographic makeup of an employee group (i.e., race or ethnicity, gender, age) can impact employee turnover (Tsui, Egan, & O’Reilly, 1992) and group conflict (Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999). When employees perceive their workplace climate as diverse, they are likely to view the institution as fulfilling their needs, which promotes a higher sense of personal fit within the organization (Stewart et al., 2011). Structural diversity is
important to employees in terms of their individual career outcomes, which, in turn, impacts organizational effectiveness (Cox, 1994).

Additional findings. Item 8, “How long have you been employed at the college?” is a demographics item that measures the amount of time a participant has been with the one California community college. According to Cox (2008), diversity climate can have an impact on an organization. Demographic data is a useful component in evaluating diversity climate in an organization (Peterson et al., 1978). Item 8 was used to analyze correlations when comparing scale scores from each section of the diversity climate survey.

Item 20,”Employees are excluded from participating in college activities because of their age, disability, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, religious/spiritual beliefs.” This item scored a rating of 90% for either strongly disagree or disagree. As Cox (2008) mentions, honoring stated core values is important to diversity in an organization. The responses to Item 20 indicates the college is mostly in compliance with allowing sensitivity and inclusion overall for employees to participate in college activities.

Past Studies Related to this Study

Of particular significance to this present study is the structural diversity of a college campus, which generally refers to the “numerical representation of various racial, ethnic, and gender groups on campus” (Hurtado et al., 1999, p. 19). Prior research indicated that the demographic makeup of an employee group (i.e., race or ethnicity, gender, age) can impact employee turnover (Tsui, Egan, & O’Reilly, 1992) and group conflict (Pelld, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999). Hicks-Clarke and Iles (2000) concluded that performance outcomes were based on the relationship between staff and their institution and what staff perceived about their work and
their institution, their work satisfaction, and their engagement and recognition within their
associations.

The more recent diversity climate literature shows that the numerical representation of
various groups on college campuses is relevant to faculty members, students, and the institution
(Ryder, Reason, Mitchell, Gillon, & Hemer, 2016). For instance, structural diversity among
faculty members is critical because, through their intellectual leadership, they can influence
students’ openness to diversity through the curriculum they teach and how they teach it as well
as the classroom and campus climate they create (Ryder et al., 2016). Ryder et al. (2016)
analyzed data collected from 15 institutions of higher education that participated in the 2013 and
2014 administrations of the Personal and Social Responsibility Inventory (PSRI). The purpose
of the study was to examine students’ perceptions of the institution’s climate in relationship to
their scores on the Openness to Diversity and Challenge Scale (ODC). The study sample
included 11,216 students representing 15 institutions. Of these students, the majority were
female (65.3%) and White (56.7%). Of the non-White study participants, 14% were Asian,
13.1% were Hispanic, 8.7% were of two or more races, and 4.9% were Black or African
American. The largest proportion of the sample (35.2%) was senior-level students. Ryder et
al.’s (2016) conclusions were consistent with previous research conducted by Pascarella and
Terenzini (2005) regarding faculty members’ influence as socialization agents. Specifically,
Ryder et al. found that “by encouraging the exploration of different cultures and perspectives and
teaching about diverse perspectives (p. 12),” faculty members can increase students’ openness to
diversity.

The outcome of data collected for Item 20 adds to diversity strategies defined by
researchers Patrick and Kumer. Patrick and Kumer (2012) argued for the benefits of developing
a workplace diversity strategy for increasing the representation of multiple racial and ethnic groups. They described drivers of diversity strategies in terms of the need “to tap the creative, cultural, and communicative skills of a variety of employees and to use those skills to improve company policies, products, and customer experiences” (p. 2), which is consistent with this present study’s theoretical framework. According to Cox’s (1994) IMCD framework, these desired skills and organizational improvements are the outcome of a diversity climate that includes individual-level, group/intergroup-level, and organizational-level factors.

No contemporary studies could be located that explored the perceptions of public community college faculty and staff members relative to their college’s climate of cultural diversity and the potential impact on organizational performance. The study of significant relationships between cultural diversity and organizational performance as perceived by faculty and staff members at four-year public universities (Quinn et al., 2015) and the quantitative methods used to analyze employees’ perspectives about workplace diversity management and organizational performance at two private universities (Zaitouni & Gaber, 2017) were the closest studies related to this diversity climate study for one California community college.

The conclusions of Quinn et al. (2015) indicated statistically significant relationships between the three constructs of diversity management, public orientation, and service orientation. Based on Quinn et al. (2015)’s standardized regression coefficient of .57, the biggest finding was the moderately strong relationship between diversity management and service. This finding is indicative of the positive impact of a climate of cultural diversity on faculty and staff members’ attitudes about engaging students and servicing their needs (Quinn et al., 2015). Participants from the Zaitouni and Gaber (2017) study perceived that a positive and significant relationship existed between cultural diversity and the organizational performance of their universities. This
is based off of data from their findings for Cultural Diversity \( (M = 3.67, SD = .57) \). When compared to the results from Research Question 1, \( M = 1.41 \) to 1.86 out of 4-point metric scale, Research Question 2, \( M = 3.09 \) to 3.64 out of 5-point metric scale, and Research Question 3, \( M = 2.93 \) to 3.41 out of 5-point metric scale of this diversity climate survey, this study also indicates the importance of diversity at the workplace. One finding is that employees who have been with the college longer believes there is room for improvement in the one community college. Therefore, the results from Quinn et al. (2015) and Zaitouni Gaber (2017) studies shows that increasing diversity at the organization can lead to improvements of individual level, group/intergroup level, and organizational level (Cox, 1994).

**Limitations of the Diversity Climate Study**

**Sample deficiencies.** The pool of participants is biased toward Caucasian perceptions of diversity climate due to the shortage of minorities in the college at the time this diversity climate survey was administered. These perceptions may not be characteristic of other California community colleges. In addition, structural integration happens due to self-selection by faculty and staff into the study and not selected by the researcher for research purposes. The concept of self-selection measures may aid in understanding why some studies differ in outcomes. Self-selection may explain biases that can challenge perceptions of diversity climate in the diversity climate survey if not all participants surveyed do not participate (Polit & Beck, 2004).

Limitations are potential weaknesses that could “cast shadows of doubt on results and conclusions” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016, p. 45). In the case of this study, limitations include those commonly associated with survey research. These limitations include survey design, the study’s sample size may be insufficient for adequate reduction in sampling or measurement error, and
self selection. Lastly, only one community college in the central region of California was included, thus limiting the generalizability of findings.

**Survey design.** A limitation of the survey design (see Appendix C) for this study was no offer of a write-in comment option. The comment option would assist in explaining the reasons behind the responses selected based on the Likert scale for each of the four sections. Therefore, the interpretation of the data for this study by the researcher was not as meaningful.

**Participant response rate.** There were 1,290 employees of which 1,099 employees were selected as the target sample. However, only 202 (18.4%) of participants selected only responded to the survey. That leaves 897 (81.6%) participants selected who chose not to respond and engage in the survey. Only 190 of the 202 participants responses were accepted to move forward as 12 of the 202 responses were deemed incomplete. Reasons for low response rates are unclear. It is unknown to the researcher how many participants may have experienced technical challenges against those who started the response process but chose not to continue with completing the diversity climate survey.

**Self-reported responses.** Due to the sensitive nature of the items in the diversity climate survey, participants may have responded to items conservatively or “safely” such that neither agreed too much or too little. Fear of not responding to the items “correctly” may have appeared in an unreliable reporting of perceptions. The researcher is under the assumption that staff and faculty participants responded to items in the diversity climate survey honestly. Although the researcher shared that the survey was kept anonymous, participants may not believe the survey is anonymous. Political concerns and researcher credibility may also affect participants willingness to respond to the survey. Next, a discussion on the implications for future diversity studies will take place.
Implications for Future Diversity Studies

There are many groups who will benefit from this study. Community colleges, especially ones in California will benefit from this diversity climate study. This includes stakeholders such as management, faculty, staff, students, potential employees, vendors, and anyone interested in working for or with a community college.

There are many lessons that can be learned from this study. Such as how this diversity climate survey expanded to consider how Cox’s (1994) specific measures of organizational effectiveness apply to the community college organization. At the practitioner level, an established template from this study can be used to conduct other diversity climate studies at other community colleges and or higher education institutions. The diversity climate survey template in this study can also be used as a starting template to produce a diversity climate survey specific to the needs of the researcher looking to do their own diversity climate research study.

This research can serve as a great educational resource for community colleges looking to complete research on diversity. Based on Cox’s IMCD (1994), community colleges can benefit from an understanding of how faculty and staff employees perceive the institution’s diversity climate because such an understanding can contribute to improving the college’s performance in terms of first-level effectiveness (attendance, turnover, productivity, work quality, recruiting success, creativity and innovation, problem solving, workgroup cohesiveness and communication) and second-level effectiveness (market share, profitability, achievement of formal organizational goals). In addition, findings from this investigation can inform senior leadership efforts to improve the community college’s organizational performance.
There are a few things the researcher would recommend be completed differently. First, the researcher would recommend evaluating the demographic of the organization before implementing the diversity climate study. If the makeup of the demographic are majority towards one specific group, it may skew the diversity climate survey and may be completely biased as unintended. For example, the demographic make-up of this study consisted of those employed at 11 years or more at 50%. Secondly, the suggestion is to gather more demographic information other than length of employment. Other demographic information may include employee classification, full-time or part-time status, and employee background information. This information can help the researcher evaluate if all groups are represented. If all targeted groups are not represented, this information can assist the researcher with targeting unrepresented groups to increase participation. Next, the researcher shares their observations with the study.

**Researcher’s Observations**

The researcher observes no system in place to evaluate trends of the diversity climate survey at the one California community college. A longitudinal analysis that evaluates the trends of responses to the diversity climate survey should occur every fiscal year. The one California community college can manage improvements towards diversity by making adjustments in the six areas: (a) cost structures, (b) human resource acquisition, (c) marketing, (d) creativity and innovation, (e) problem solving, and (f) honoring stated core values to align with the needs established by the survey (Cox, 2008).

The researcher observes a lack of participation in the diversity climate survey. This may be due to lack of confidence by participants their responses would not be anonymous and their employment may be in jeopardy based on their participation to the diversity climate survey.
Although the only demographic item in the survey is length of employment, participants place demographics as an important role in their decision to not participate. The researcher may also be distributing the survey at the same time as other surveys in the one California community college.

The researcher was surprised at the results of the survey. The assumption was expected that participants speak to major concerns with regard to diversity in the one California community college. The researcher assumes these results are due to the lack of diversity with participants in the diversity climate survey.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

**Qualitative methodology.** Future studies should include qualitative methodologies to supplements the quantitative measures.

**Individual demographics.** Although the results of this study did not include factors that impacted predicted utilization of the diversity climate survey, the responses highlighted the lack of participants who have been employed less than 11 years. Those employed 11 years or more make up 50% of the participants who responded to the diversity climate survey. A recommendation for future study would be to further breakdown the demographics of those employed above 11 years to include additional options of 11 to 19 years, 20 to 29 years, and 30 or more years.

**Type of employee.** An examination of the demographics identifying the type of employees selected to participate in the diversity climate survey would be useful. The type of employees selected to participate in this survey include regular classified staff, management, regular faculty, adjunct faculty, short-term temporary employee, or a professional expert. The recommendation for future study is to further breakdown the types of employees selected to
participate in the diversity climate survey. Regular classified staff, management, regular faculty should be included in one demographic group. Adjunct faculty, short-term temporary employee, or professional expert should be included in another demographic group to survey. This recommendation is based on the amount of time employees spend their campus on campus. Adjunct faculty, short-term temporary employee, or professional expert may hold positions at multiple colleges or have full-time employment outside of their assignments. Therefore, their time on campus may be limited which may also limit their perceptions.

Survey alignment. The diversity climate survey did not have all items in the four sections aligned. For example, Item 8 in the Employment and Professional Development section is a demographics question. It did not align with the other seven items in the section. In addition, Item 20 also did not align with the other six items in the Sensitivity and Inclusion section. The recommendation for future studies is to align all questions in each section with the same Likert-scale and have the items for each section be linear.

Multiple colleges. The one single California community college that participated in the study is part of a multi-college district. The recommendation for future studies to simultaneously study all the community colleges within the district to get a better sample and opportunity for comparison. Perceptions of diversity climate may vary from college to college in the multi-district. Next, the conclusion of the dissertation is explained.

Conclusion

The purpose of this dissertation was to examine diversity climate at a community college on the individual, intergroup, and organizational level. This dissertation also addressed a gap that no contemporary studies could be located that explored the perceptions of public community college faculty and staff members relative to their college’s climate of cultural diversity and the
potential impact on organizational performance. This gap is a major shortcoming in the diversity climate literature given that community colleges are becoming increasingly characterized by cultural diversity (Rashotte & Webster, 2005). When research is not administered, it restricts access to information that could apprise the research community, in addition to professionals who create policy, advise leadership, and or implement guidelines and practice.

The results of this study established support for community colleges to continue diversity climate study. The results of this dissertation may also emphasize that improvements to the diversity climate study to be more effective. As presented in this survey, only 190 (17.2%) participants responses were eligible based on a survey sent out to a target sample of 1,099 employees. Researchers and professionals may face many challenges to advocate the need for a diversity climate study in community colleges.

The study attempted to reveal employee perceptions and beliefs about diversity climate at the community college through a survey and analysis of quantitative data. The study data revealed some dissonance between individual level (Research Question 1), intergroup level (Research Question 2), and organizational level (Research Question 3), differences in perceptions across the college based on years of employment, and criticism and lack of clarity about the benefits of diversity at the college. Specifically, what employees value and think about concepts related to recruiting diversity, adequate opportunities for and professional development, and where to go for job related problems. However, the findings show that employees do not believe there are concerns related to disparaging comments about age, ethnicity, gender, religious beliefs, sexual orientation, and disability. This leads the researcher to believe there are paradoxes and confusion in what employees value in their jobs and treatment of one another.
Although the design of the survey did not result in exactly measuring employees understanding of diversity climate at the one community college, it did show very clearly employees conflicting ideas and values about treatment of individuals and professional and personal development in their jobs. Additional future research could be conducted to look more closely at these conflicting ideas and values, as well as their understanding of available resources and college processes for employees who are interested in seeking opportunities and those affected by discrimination. Although the findings for this study shows results of almost never to hearing comments about age, ethnicity, gender, religious beliefs, sexual orientation, and disability, the researcher believes it may still exist. Often times, employees may be afraid or unwilling to admit seeing or hearing disparaging comments out of fear of retaliation.

The researcher concludes that the college needs to focus on addressing needs at all three levels (individual, intergroup, and organizational) in order to affect positive change with diversity at the college. Part of this challenge has to include analyzing obstacles that may prevent the diversity climate survey from taking place in the future. A collaboration with all stakeholders is essential to the success of implementing positive changes to diversity at the college.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

IRB Approval

NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

Date: December 21, 2015

Protocol Investigator Name: Sohyun Song

Protocol #: 15-10-067

Project Title: Cultural Climate in California Community Colleges

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Sohyun Song,

Thank you for submitting your application for exempt review to Pepperdine University’s Institutional Review Board (IRB). We appreciate the work you have done on your proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemptions under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protections of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an amendment to the IRB. Since your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite the best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete written explanation of the event and your written response. Other actions may also be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual at community.pepperdine.edu.

Please refer to the protocol number noted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact the IRB Office. On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Judy Ho, Ph.D., IRB Chairperson

cc: Ex. Lee Katz, Vice Provost for Research and Strategic Initiatives
Mr. Brett Lohr, Regulatory Affairs Specialist
APPENDIX B

Organizational Permission to Conduct Study

October 21, 2015

Pepperdine University
Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (GPS IRB)
6100 Center Drive - 5th Floor
Los Angeles, CA 90045

RE: Sokha Song Dissertation: Cultural Climate in California Community Colleges

To: GPS IRB

This letter is to convey that I have reviewed the proposed research study being conducted by Sokha Song (Principal Investigator) and Dr. Leo Mallette (Dissertation Chairman) and find the Cultural Climate survey acceptable. I give permission for the above investigators to conduct research at this site.

If you have any questions regarding site permission, please contact: 

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Vice Chancellor, Human Resources
Diversity in the California Community College System

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Sokha Song, MS (Principal Investigator) and Dr. Leo Mallette, Ed.D. (Dissertation Chairperson) at the Pepperdine University, because you are an employee at the community college who is participating in this research. Your participation is voluntary and anonymous. You should read the information below, and ask questions about anything that you do not understand, before deciding whether to participate. Please take as much time as you need to read this document. You may also decide to discuss participation with your family or friends.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to identify the overall perception of cultural climate at the community college between staff and faculty and the perceptions of faculty and staff in regards to the existence of discrimination at the community college.

PARTICIPANT INVOLVEMENT

If you agree to take part in this study, you will be asked to complete an online survey, which is anticipated to take about 15-20 minutes. The survey is anonymous and does not require you to identify yourself. Your survey will only be considered complete once all survey questions are answered and you hit the submit button. If you do not hit the submit button, your survey will be considered incomplete and your answers will not be included as part of the study.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation is voluntary. Your refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights, or remedies because of your participation in this research study.

ALTERNATIVES TO FULL PARTICIPATION

Your alternative is to not participate. Your relationship with your employer will not be affected whether or not you chose to participate in this study.
CONFIDENTIALITY

I will keep your records for this study anonymous as far as permitted by law. However, if I am required to do so by law, I may be required to disclose responses collected from this survey. Examples of the types of issues that would require me to break confidentiality are if information is reported about instances of child abuse and elder abuse. Pepperdine’s University’s Human Subjects Protection Program (HSPP) may also access the data collected. The HSPP occasionally reviews and monitors research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research subjects.

The data will be stored on a password-protected computer in the principal investigator’s place of residence. The data will be stored for a minimum of three years. The data collected will be coded, de-identified, transcribed etc.

There will be no identifiable information related to you that will be obtained in connection with this study. Your name, address or other identifiable information will not be collected.

INVESTIGATOR’S CONTACT INFORMATION

I understand that the investigator is willing to answer any inquiries I may have concerning the research herein described. I understand that I may contact Sokha Song at sokha.song@kccd.edu or Leo Mallette, leo.mallettee@pepperdine.edu if I have any other questions or concerns about this research. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact Dr. Judy Ho, Chairperson of the Graduate & Professional School Institutional Review Board (GPS IRB) at Pepperdine University, via email at gpsirb@pepperdine.edu or at 310-568-5753.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT – IRB CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions, concerns or complaints about your rights as a research participant or research in general please contact Dr. Judy Ho, Chairperson of the Graduate & Professional School Institutional Review Board at Pepperdine University 6100 Center Drive Suite 500 Los Angeles, CA 90045, 310-568-5753 or gpsirb@pepperdine.edu.

By clicking on the link to the survey questions, you are acknowledging you have read the study information. You also understand that you may end your participation at end time, for any reason without penalty.
You Agree to Participate

You Do Not Wish to Participate

If you would like documentation of your participation in this research you may print a copy of this form.
## College Cultural Climate Survey

Thank you for participating in this survey.

Your feedback is important to the college and committees ability to evaluate the needs, resources, and achievements of the campus.

For each question, please check only one answer per question.

### Employment/Professional

Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements using the scale below.

* 1. The college actively recruits a diverse faculty and staff.

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* 2. The college provides all employees adequate opportunities for continued professional training and development.

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* 3. Job performance is evaluated fairly at the college/worksite.

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4. There are equal opportunities for professional advancement and promotion at the college.

Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neutral  Agree  Strongly Agree

5. Employees are given sufficient resources to succeed in their job.

Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neutral  Agree  Strongly Agree

6. If employees have a job-related problem, they know where to go to get sufficient support at the college/worksite.

Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neutral  Agree  Strongly Agree

7. All employees have adequate opportunities to partake in the participatory governance process and/or provide input at the college.

Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neutral  Agree  Strongly Agree

8. How long have you been employed at the college?

One (1) year or less  Two (2) to five (5) years  Six (6) to eight (8) years  Eight (8) to ten (10) years  Eleven (11) years or more

Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements using the scale below.
* 9. The communications at your college (e.g., newsletters, emails and flyers) reflect a culturally inclusive climate in which differences are respected.

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* 10. The college facilitates an ongoing dialogue about improving intergroup relations among employees.

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* 11. Do you believe you are valued and respected at the work site.

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* 12. Employees who are discriminated against, know where to seek help at the college.

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* 13. Overall, the intergroup relations among students, faculty, staff, and administrators contribute to a positive climate at the college.

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Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements using the scale below.
* 14. Have you heard insensitive or disparaging comments about employees based on their age?

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* 15. Have you heard insensitive or disparaging comments about employees based on their disability?

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* 16. Have you heard insensitive or disparaging comments about employees based on their ethnicity?

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* 17. Have you heard insensitive or disparaging comments about employees based on their religious/spiritual beliefs?

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* 18. Have you heard insensitive or disparaging comments about employees based on their gender?

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* 19. Have you heard insensitive or disparaging comments about employees based on their sexual orientation?

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* 20. Employees are excluded from participating in college activities because of their age, disability, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, religious/spiritual beliefs.

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**College Cultural Climate Survey**

**Institutional Viability and Vitality**

Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements using the scale below.

* 21. Diversity is central to the college’s policies and procedures.

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* 22. Administrators actively support the practice of equity and cultural competency building.

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* 23. The college’s leaders take initiative in promoting a positive college/worksite climate.

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* 24. Are your contributions regarding specific groups (ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, etc.) expressed to committees, supervisor, or a governing body, included in the development of programs, services, or practices?

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* 25. When discrimination towards a person occurs, the college has an effective procedure for responding immediately.

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* 26. Employees are confident that the procedures for resolving grievances at the college are fair.

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* 27. There are adequate opportunities at the college for employees to engage in diversity-related initiatives or activities.

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* 28. Is mandatory diversity training for all employees beneficial to the college.

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* 29. Overall, diversity is considered integral to the infrastructure (i.e., mission, leadership, and key processes) and daily practices at the college/worksite.

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Thank you for completing our College Cultural Climate Survey.