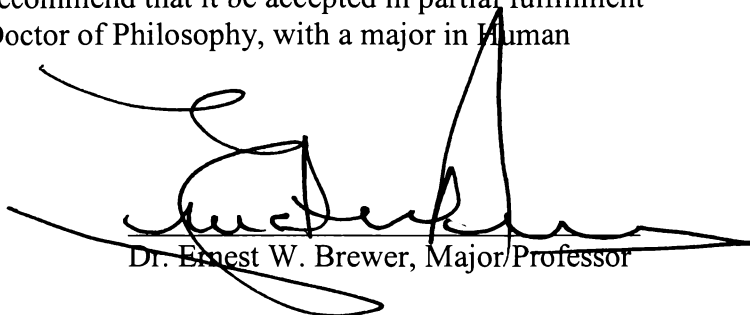


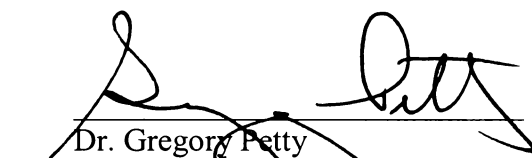
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Maria Guadalupe Rodriguez entitled "Job Stress and Perceptions Among Hispanic Professionals of Prejudice and Discrimination in the Workplace." I have examined the final paper copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Human Ecology.



Dr. Ernest W. Brewer, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:



Dr. Gregory Petty



Dr. Connie Hollingsworth



Dr. Schuyler Huck

Acceptance for the Council:



Vice Provost and Dean of
Graduate Studies

JOB STRESS AND PERCEPTIONS AMONG HISPANIC PROFESSIONALS
OF PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION IN THE WORKPLACE

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Maria G. Rodriguez
August 2002

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother and my father

Soledad Gómez del Campo
Rigoberto Rodríguez

and to my husband

James A. Calcagno III

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I want to express my gratitude to each of my committee members. To Dr. Ernest W. Brewer, Professor of Human Resource Development (HRD), Committee Chair and Major Professor, for his unconditional support through this process and through all my graduate studies. Dr. Brewer provided guidance throughout dissertation project, and this study is the result of his advisory work since my first days at The University of Tennessee. I also want to acknowledge Dr. Brewer's material support to this project by providing the Job Stress Survey, assisting in postage cost, and supplying necessary mailing materials. I also would like to thank Dr. Connie Hollingsworth, Assistant Professor of HRD, Dr. Gregory Petty, Professor of HRD, and Dr. Schuyler Huck, Professor of Educational Psychology, for reviewing and making suggestions about this material. In addition, I want to acknowledge and thank my committee members for the many lessons that I learned in the courses that I took with each one of them.

I want to express my enormous gratitude to the National Society of Hispanic Masters of Business Administrators, especially to Dr. Donna Blancero, Ms. Elvira Ramos, and each member of the society that participated in the study. Without their participation this work would have not been possible. *A todos ustedes muchas gracias.*

My recognition extend to my professors in Mexico, whose teaching gave me enough resources to transcend space and language and equipped me with the necessary resources for studying abroad. Finally, I would like to recognize my brother Alberto Rodríguez, whose studies at The University of Tennessee inspired my decision to pursue a doctoral degree at this university.

ABSTRACT

The researcher conducted a national survey among members of a national association of Hispanic masters in business administration. Two-hundred and four individuals completed and returned surveys, representing a 51% response rate. The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between job stress and perception of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. Analyses also considered job pressure and lack of organizational support, both included as subscales in the instrument used to assess job stress. The study investigated whether or not perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace accounted for a significant variability of job stress, job pressure, and lack of organizational support above and beyond that accounted for by demographic variables. In addition, the study examined demographic differences on perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. Investigated demographic variables were age, education level, employment status, ethnic diverse workplace, gender, immigrant status, region of residence, and tenure.

Perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace showed significant relationships to job stress and to lack of organizational support; both relationships showed to be positive, although low. The relationship between perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and job pressure was not significant. Perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace accounted for more variability on job stress and on lack of organizational support than did that accounted for by demographic variables. The analysis of differences on perceptions of prejudice and discrimination regarding demographic variables showed age and tenure as significant effects on perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Rationale of the study	2
Theoretical Framework.....	3
Statement of the Problem.....	5
Purpose of the Study	6
Objectives	6
Research Questions.....	6
Null Hypotheses.....	7
Expected answer to the Research Questions.....	7
Preventing Research Bias	8
Assumptions.....	9
Delimitations.....	9
Limitations	10
Operational Definitions.....	10
Summary of the Chapter	12
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	15
Some Antecedents of Job Stress Research.....	15
Job Stress Models	17
The Metamodel of Occupational Stress.....	20
The Personal Facet.....	23
The Process Facet	24
The Environmental Facet.....	25
Ethnic Diversity in the Workplace.....	26
Job Stress and Ethnic Diversity in the Workplace.....	28
Prejudice, Discrimination and the Workplace	30
Prejudice, Discrimination and Job Stress	33
Assessing Prejudice and Discrimination in the Workplace	34
Demographic Aspects	36
Ethnic Diverse Workplace	36
Immigration Status.....	37
Time Related Elements: Age and Tenure	38
Gender Differences	38
Region of Residence	39
Education and Employment Status.....	40
Critique of the Validity of Appropriate Theory and Research	40
What is Known and Unknown about Job Stress and Prejudice and Discrimination.....	42

Contribution of the Study to the Literature	43
Summary of the Chapter	44
III. METHODOLOGY	47
Research Methodology	47
Population and Sampling Frame	48
Sampling and Survey Procedures	48
Instrumentation	51
Data Collection	55
Data Analysis	56
Summary of the Chapter	59
IV. RESULTS	61
Response Rate and Participation	61
Demographic Data Summary	62
Analysis of Respondents and Non-Respondents	65
Research Question One	69
Research Question Two	69
Research Question Three	71
Research Question Four	78
Summary of the Chapter	84
V. CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS	85
Demographic Profile of Participants	85
Respondents and Non-Respondents	86
Reliability of the Workplace Prejudice and Discrimination Inventory	82
Job Stress and Perceptions of Prejudice and Discrimination	88
The Effect of Perceptions of Prejudice and Discrimination on Job Stress	90
Demographic differences on Perceptions of Prejudice and Discrimination	92
Concerns about the Study	94
Implications	95
Recommendations for Future Research	97
Summary of the Chapter	98
REFERENCES	99
APPENDICES	115
Appendix A United States Census Bureau States by Region	117
Appendix B Forward Electronic Mail Message	119
Appendix C Survey's Cover Letter	121
Appendix D Follow-up Electronic Mail Messages	123

Appendix E	Electronic Mail Requesting Telephone Participation	125
Appendix F	Permissions	127
Appendix G	Demographic Questionnaire	129
VITA		131

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1 Distribution of the U. S. Population by Race in 2000	28
2 Demographic Data of Respondents and Non-Respondents	63
3 Scores' Mean Values and Standard Deviations for Respondents and Non-Respondents	67
4 UNIVARIATE Test of Normality of Variables Under Analysis.....	68
5 Correlation Matrix for Scores and Demographic Variables	72
6 Results of Hierarchical Regression for Job Stress.	74
7 Results of Hierarchical Regression for Job Pressure.	76
8 Results of Hierarchical Regression for Lack of Organizational Support.	77
9 Prejudice and Discrimination Mean Values and Standard Deviations by Demographic Variables	80
10 ANOVA for Prejudice and Discrimination in the Workplace	82
11 Multiple Comparison Test for Prejudice and Discrimination by Age	83
12 Multiple Comparison Test for Prejudice and Discrimination by Tenure	83

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE
1 An Adaptation of Beehr-Newman's General Model of Job Stress.....	4
2 Beehr-Newman General Model of Job Stress.....	21
3 Flowchart Illustrating the Main Steps for Conducting the Study	50
4 Mean Values for Respondents and Non-Respondents.....	67
5 Scatter Diagram of Job Stress and Perceptions of Prejudice and Discrimination.....	70
6 Normal Probability Plot for Prejudice and Discrimination in the Workplace	81

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In recent years a high number of employees have reported increasing levels of stress at work. Job stress has become common in the workplace, leaving few employees untouched (National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health [NIOSH], 1999a). In a survey conducted by Northwestern National Life, 40% of participants reported that their jobs were very or extremely stressful (NIOSH). Likewise, a separate survey conducted by Princeton Survey Associates, showed that 73% of respondents reported having high levels of stress at work (*The Worklife Report*, 1997).

Job stress has impacted individuals' health. Epidemiological data have indicated that work related stress could lead to a variety of physical diseases (Buunk, de Jonge, Ybema, & de Wolff, 1998). Job stress has contributed to an increased number of cardiovascular diseases including hypertension - the number one reason for medical consultation and lost time at work (Tindall, 1998). In regard to mental health, job stress has been viewed as a direct cause of psychological problems like depression (Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987).

High levels of job stress have been associated with low levels of productivity (Burke, 1987; Cuadron, 1998; Gandham, 2000; Halcrow, 1997; Reynolds, 1997). Therefore, job stress has had an economic impact on organizations (Gandham). It has been estimated that absenteeism due to job stress has cost companies around \$200 billion a year in medical expenses, workers' compensation claims, and loss in productivity (Cuadron). Consequently, individuals, organizations, and the nation have faced the impact of job stress on direct costs and on reduced productivity.

Changing conditions within and outside the work environment have added a new dynamic to the work stress phenomena (Keita & Hurrell, 1994; Millar, 1994). The ethnic diversification of the American workforce has been one of these changing conditions (Keita & Hurrell). The ethnic diversification of the American workforce and its relationship to job stress has not been sufficiently investigated (Gutierrez, Saenz, & Green, 1994; Perez, 1998; Marsella, 1994).

Rationale of the Study

Job stress has been affecting individuals and organizations. Moreover, job stress can be considered a public health issue (NIOSH, 1999a, 1999b). There have been significant amounts of job stress studies conducted with Caucasian men as the researched population (Gutierrez et al., 1994). The Hudson Institute projected that by 2005 Hispanics would share equal representation with Blacks within the workplace in the United States and would constitute the second largest participating group, behind Caucasians, by 2010 (Judy & D'Amico, 1997). Despite this trend, the review of related literature showed a small amount of job stress studies conducted among Hispanic employees.

Empirical studies and literature suggested that job stress directly related to perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace (Allison, 1998; Comas-Diaz, 1997; Gutierrez et al., 1994; James, 1994; James, Lovato, & Khoo, 1994; Knouse, Rosenfeld, & Culbertson, 1992; Mays, Coleman, & Jackson, 1996; Morgan, Beale, Mattis, Stovall, & White, 2000; Perez, 1998; Sanchez & Brock, 1996). The study conducted by Mays et al. and Morgan et al., investigated the relationship between job stress and perceptions of discrimination among Black employees. Other studies -- like those conducted by Gutierrez et al., James, James et al., Perez, and Sanchez and Brock--

analyzed the relationship between work related stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination among Hispanic employees. This study also investigated the relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination among Hispanic professionals. In addition, this study examined the possible predictor effects on job stress of perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and demographic variables.

Theoretical Framework

Theories of job stress can be divided into two schools of thought (NIOSH, 1999a). The first school of thought assigns individual characteristics, such as personality and coping styles, as predictors of whether or not certain work environment characteristics lead to job stress (NIOSH). The second school of thought identifies working conditions as the main source of work related stress (NIOSH).

Beehr-Newman's general model (Beehr & Newman, 1978, p. 676) of job stress, also known as Beehr-Newman metamodel of occupational stress (Beehr, 1998a, 1998b) provided the theoretical framework for this study. Beehr-Newman's metamodel appeared to be one that linked the two discussed job stress' schools of thought. For the purpose of this study, an adaptation of Beehr-Newman's metamodel of occupational stress is presented in Figure 1. The diagram depicts those facets of Beehr-Newman's metamodel appearing to be fundamental for assessing work related stress. This figure explains how the dimension of severity, proposed by Spielberger and Vagg (1999), can be incorporated as an additional facet.

Beehr and Newman (1978) explained job stress as a composition of seven facets: (a) personal, (b) process, (c) environmental, (d) human consequences, (e) organizational

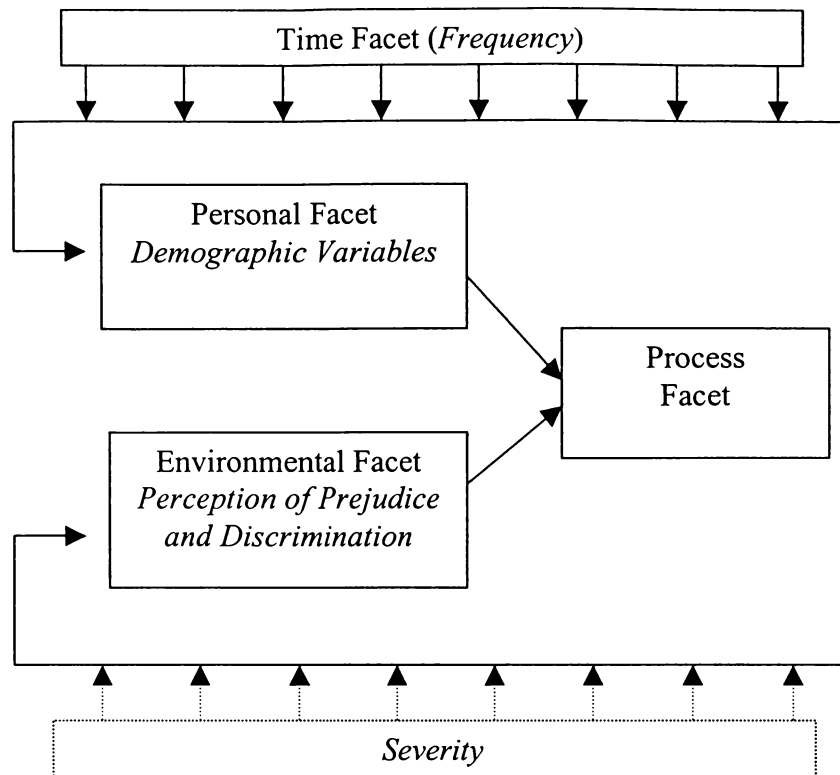


Figure 1. An adaptation of Beehr-Newman's general model of job stress. Source: "Job Stress, Employee Health, and Organizational Effectiveness: A Facet Analysis, Model, and Literature Review", by T. A. Beehr and J. E. Newman, 1978, *Personnel Psychology*, 31(4), p. 676. Copyright 1978 by Personnel Psychology, Inc. Reprinted with permission.

consequences, (f) individual and organizational adaptive responses, and (g) time. Figure 1 depicts those facets of Beehr-Newman's metamodel appearing to be fundamental for assessing work related stress.

The employed instrument for assessing work related stress was the Job Stress Survey (JSS) developed by Spielberger and Vagg (1999). It is important to mention that these authors did not base the development of the JSS on Beehr-Newman's metamodel, though their instrument appeared to be one that considered fundamental aspects of the metamodel, such as the time facet. In their assessment of job stress, Spielberger and Vagg proposed, besides the time facet (named by them as *frequency*), another dimension,

which they called *severity*, for the measurement of job stress. Spielberger and Vagg explained the need for considering time and severity as two fundamental components of work related stress:

Stressors perceived as very severe and that occur with high frequency are more likely to produce greater strain...failure to take into account how often a particular stressor is experienced may overestimate the effects of highly stressful events that occur infrequently, while underestimating the impact of moderately stressful events that frequently occur. (p. 289)

Besides the process facet, this study focused on two additional facets. First, regarding the personal facet, the researcher only analyzed demographic variables. The review of related literature identified some demographic variables that appeared to be related to job stress among Hispanic workers. Second, the study of the environmental facet was limited to the analysis of perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. Beehr-Newman's metamodel has been discussed further in the review of literature.

Statement of the Problem

Job stress has had direct impact on health and productivity, troubling not just individuals but organizations as well (Burke, 1987; Cuadron, 1998; Halcrow, 1997; Reynolds, 1997; Tindall, 1998). Little evidence was found in the job stress literature, particularly empirical studies, of studies with ethnic minorities as the populations under analysis. In recent years, the increased number of Hispanics entering the American workforce emphasized the need of occupational stress studies focusing on Hispanics. Authors researching job stress among ethnic minority workers have identified perceptions of prejudice and discrimination as an aspect having a direct relationship with work

related stress (Gutierrez et al., 1994; James, 1994; James, Lovato, & Khoo, 1994; Morgan et al., 2000; Perez, 1998; Sanchez & Brock, 1996).

Purpose of the Study

In the study the researcher examined the relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace among members of the National Society of Hispanic Management Business Administrators (NSHMBAs). The study investigated whether or not perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace accounted for a significant variability on job stress beyond the variability accounted for by demographic variables. In addition, the researcher investigated demographic differences on perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. An analysis of differences between respondents and non-respondents was part of the investigation as well.

Objectives

The study followed specific objectives. These objectives were directly related to the purpose of the study:

1. To determine whether or not a relationship existed between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.
2. To determine whether or not perceptions of prejudice and discrimination accounted for a significant variability on job stress beyond that accounted for by demographic variables.
3. To determine whether or not differences existed in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace regarding demographic variables.

Research Questions

The purpose of the study guided the development of the research questions. The research questions that the researcher developed were

1. Is the Workplace Prejudice and Discrimination Inventory (WPDI) a reliable measure of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace?
2. Does job stress relate to perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace?
3. Do perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace account for more variability of job stress than that accounted for by demographic variables?
4. Do perceptions of prejudice and discrimination differ according to demographic characteristics of participants?

Null Hypotheses

The researcher used questions 2, 3, and 4 to develop null hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 respectively. The null hypotheses were tested at a 0.05 significance level and were as follows:

- H₀₁: There is no relationship between job stress as measured by the JSS and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace as measured by the WPDI.
- H₀₂: Prejudice and discrimination, as measured by the WPDI, do not account for more variability on job stress, as measured by the JSS, than that accounted for by the following demographic variables: age, education level, employment status, ethnic diverse workplace, gender, immigrant status, region of residence, and tenure, when considering all these demographic variables together.
- H₀₃: There are no differences in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace, as measured by the WPDI, regarding the following demographic variables: age, education level, employment status, ethnic diverse workplace, gender, immigrant status, region of residence, and tenure.

Expected Answers to the Research Questions

According to some existing studies, it was expected that perceptions of prejudice and discrimination and some of the demographic variables could be related to the occupational stress of participants in this study. Findings like those obtained by Mays et

al. (1996) supported the idea that perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace influenced work related stress. In other studies researchers found significant relationships between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace (Gutierrez et al., 1994; James, 1994; Perez, 1998; Sanchez & Brock, 1996). Without empirical evidence, some authors have suggested that discrimination in the workplace could have an adverse effect on ethnic minority workers by increasing occupational stress on them (Comas-Diaz, 1997; Knouse et al., 1992). Mays et al. found that demographic variables significantly predicted levels of job stress, they found that age and education level were strong predictors of job stress. Thus, some empirical findings and the literature suggested that perceptions of prejudice and discrimination would relate to job stress and that some demographic variables would predict work related stress.

Preventing Researcher Bias

The review of literature suggested possible outcomes of this study. The following initiatives were considered for preventing that the results would have been favored towards these expected outcomes:

1. The researcher designed neither the JSS nor the WPDI. Thus, a possibility that the researcher would have influenced responses in a certain direction was avoided via selection of instruments designed by other individuals.
2. The researcher had no control over who answered or did not answer the survey. Thus, results were obtained from individuals who responded to the survey by mailing back the instruments and by non-respondents who answered the instruments through telephone interviews.
3. The researcher did not suggest to participants, nor in the letter that was mailed to them nor in further contacts through electronic mail or telephone, to respond to the instruments in a way that could have implied confirmation of the research questions.

Assumptions

In conducting the study, the researcher assumed the following statements to be true. The study was conducted under the following assumptions:

1. The sample of potential participants was randomly selected. The sample of potential participants was generated at the main office of the National Society of Hispanic Masters of Business Administrators.
2. The obtained sample was accurate and reflected members of the population.
3. The JSS measured job stress.
4. The WPDI assessed perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.
5. The respondents personally, honestly, and accurately responded to the JSS and the WPDI.
6. The unemployed participants answered both instruments considering situations recently experienced by them in their previous jobs.
7. The conducted analysis between respondents and non-respondents and its outcome supported generalization of the results and conclusions to the overall population.

Delimitations

The conducted study required some delimitations. The conducted analysis was delimited by the following considerations:

1. Statistical analyses were performed using only instruments mailed back by respondents or answered by non-respondents in telephone interviews.
2. Instruments with various missing data were not considered for the statistical analysis.
3. Perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace focused only on race- or ethnic-based discrimination.
4. Job stress is a multi-facet phenomenon that encompasses several variables. The focus of the study was the analysis of the relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and some demographic variables.

Limitations

Some factors affected the outcomes of the present study and were out of the control of the researcher. Therefore, the conducted study had the following limitations:

1. The researcher was not involved in the generation of the sample used in the study. The sample was generated at NSHMBAs' main office.
2. The study was conducted with limited empirical evidence of the relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination.
3. Results of the study cannot be generalized to all Hispanic workers.

Operational Definitions

Some operational definitions could serve to clarify the meaning of employed constructs. These definitions also clarify the variables used in the study. For the purpose of the study, the following terms have been defined

1. *Age*: number of years that an individual has lived. Considered categories for this variable were 21-30, 31-40, 41-50, 51-60, 61 or more.
2. *Demographic variables*: individual factors possibly affecting job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. Analyzed factors were age, educational level, employment status, ethnic diverse workplace, gender, immigration status, region of residence, and tenure.
3. *Discrimination*: behavioral bias or actions against individuals based on prejudicial assumptions (Allport, 1954; Cox, 1993).
4. *Education level*: an individual's educational attainment. Considered categories for this variable were bachelors, masters, and doctorate.
5. *Employment status*: an individual's job status. Considered categories for this variable were employed and unemployed.
6. *Ethnic*: term used to encompass groups of different race origins that share national, cultural, linguistic, religious, or ideological characteristics (Allport, 1954). Hispanics are such a group, which includes people of different races.

7. *Ethnic diverse workplace*: term that reflected the perception of the participants of the study of the presence of ethnic minority employees within their workplace. Considered categories for this variable were yes and no.
8. *Ethnic minority employees*: workers who are members of any ethnic minority groups such as African Americans, Hispanics, Asians, and/or Native Americans. Whenever the words ethnic minority workers are used, a reference to ethnic minority employees is being made.
9. *Gender*: classification of individuals into males or females. Categories for this variable were male and female.
10. *Hispanics*: individuals residing in the United States who were born in or trace their origins to Puerto Rico, Mexico, Central America, Cuba, Spain, or any other Spanish-speaking country in the Americas. The Census Bureau considers Hispanics as an ethnic group rather than a race because this designation includes people from different racial categories (Center for Substance Abuse Prevention, 1995).
11. *Hispanic professionals*: members of the National Society of Hispanic Masters of Business Administrators who participated in the present study.
12. *Immigrant status*: an individual's place of birth outside or inside the United States. Categories for this variable were: immigrants and non-immigrants.
13. *Job pressure*: amount of job stress that can be attributed to strains directly related to the job such as working overtime, meeting deadlines, or excessive paper work (Spielberger & Vagg, 1999). This is a subscale assessed by the JSS (Spielberger & Vagg) also considered in the analysis conducted in this study. Whenever the reference to job stress as measured by the JSS has been made, a reference to this subscale has been made as well.
14. *Job stress*: harmful physical and psychological responses towards situations occurring in the work environment (Beehr, 1995). In the present study job stress, occupational stress, and work related stress were considered as synonymous and were used interchangeably. The JSS (Spielberger & Vagg, 1999) assessed job stress and allowed the assessment of 8 subscales. In this case only two subscales were considered for analysis: job pressure, and lack of organizational support. Whenever the reference to job stress as measured by the JSS has been made, a reference to both subscales has been made as well.
15. *Lack of organizational support*: amount of job stress that can be attributed to absence of assistance from supervisor, coworkers, or the organization in general (Spielberger & Vagg, 1999). This is a subscale assessed by the JSS

(Spielberger & Vagg) also considered in the analysis conducted in this study. Whenever the reference to job stress as measured by the JSS has been made, a reference to this subscale has been made as well.

16. *Non-respondents*: individuals who did not return their survey instruments and agreed to respond to the survey's instruments via a telephone interview.
17. *Prejudice*: attitudinal bias prejudging individuals based on some characteristics (Cox, 1993). These characteristics may include any of the following: ethnic origin, gender, age, and disabilities. The present study was focused on prejudicial attitudes based on ethnic origin.
18. *Perception of discrimination in the workplace*: appreciations on behalf of the participants of "workplace bias experiences" (James, Lovato, & Cropanzano, 1994, p.1574). The WPDI assessed this variable.
19. *Region of residence*: geographical zones in which the United States Census Bureau divides the United States. Categories for this variable were Northeast, Midwest, South and West. Appendix A shows a listing of the states grouped under each one of these regions.
20. *Respondents*: individuals who mailed back the survey's instruments.
21. *Stress*: "an adaptive response, moderated by individual differences, that is a consequence of any action, situation or event that places special demands upon a person" (Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987, p.10).
22. *Tenure*: number of years that an individual has worked for his or her current employer. Categorical values for this variables were less than a year, 1-3 years, 4-10 years, 11-15 years, and 16 years or more.

Summary of the Chapter

In this introductory chapter, the researcher has addressed information that supported the idea that job stress has troubled individual and organizational health and also that job stress has had public health implications (NIOSH, 1999a, 1999b). Moreover, the Beehr-Newman metamodel of occupational stress (Beehr & Newman, 1978), which represented the theoretical framework of the study was presented. The researcher addressed projections that Hispanics would constitute the largest ethnic minority group in

the workplace (Judy & D'Amico, 1997). Despite this trend, the researcher found few empirical studies in the job stress literature specifically researching Hispanics workers.

In this chapter the researcher presented the rationale and need for the study, the theoretical framework, and the problem of job stress. The researched described the purpose of the study, the objectives to be accomplished, the research questions, and the null hypotheses. Additionally, the researcher discussed the expected outcomes of the study, and the strategies taken to prevent a research bias. In this introductory chapter, the researcher mentioned the assumptions, the delimitations and the limitations of the study. Finally, the operational definitions were listed.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Parts of the reviewed literature focused on the antecedents of the study of job stress as well as some existing models, like Beehr-Newman's metamodel of occupational stress, already addressed in the theoretical framework. In this Chapter the researcher discussed aspects of Beehr-Newman's model in detail. The review of literature also focused on such issues as diversity in the workplace and prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. In this Chapter the researcher discussed special characteristics that can shape job stress in ethnic minority employees. Though such aspects might affect different ethnic groups, the attention here has centered on Hispanics in the workplace. A critique of the validity of the reviewed theory and empirical research followed the review of literature. This Chapter ended with an explanation of the contribution that this study has made to the existing body of knowledge on job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.

Some Antecedents of Job Stress Research

The study of threatening health conditions within the workplace can be traced to Hippocrates in the fifth century (Buunk, de Jonge, Ybema, & de Wolff, 1998; Goodell, Wolf, & Rogers, 1986). Hippocrates' book, *Air, Water, and Places*, was a health guide for mercantile colonists who made transactions in remote places. Goodell et al. observed that this book "stressed the importance of man's environment as a factor of disease, including physical, climatologic, and social elements" (p. 8). In 1700, Ramanazzi wrote the book *De Morbis Artificum Diatriba* in which he described specific diseases related to special types of works (as cited in Buunk et al.; Goodell et al.).

In the 19th century researchers extensively studied the conditions of safety and health in the workplace. These studies emerged from the unhealthy circumstances that workers faced during the Industrial Revolution. In 1831 Thackrah published *The Effects of the Principal Arts, Trades and Professions, of Civic States and Habits of Living on Health and Longevity* (as cited in Goodell et al., 1986). This was the first known treatise on the occurrence and prevention of occupational diseases and was the first work to appear in the field of occupational medicine (Buunk et al., 1998).

The study of stressful conditions related to work and occupation emerged in the 20th century after World War II. In 1949 Stouffer, Suchman, De Vinney, Star, and Williams (as cited in Buunk et al., 1998) published *The American Soldier*, which was a report of a study conducted during the war. This study concluded, “feelings of threat may lead to psychosomatic complaints and reduced motivation, and that stress can to some extent be prevented by certain organizational interventions, like rotation in the military units” (as cited in Buunk et al., p. 147).

However, the bulk of the development of occupational stress research occurred after the second half of the 20th century. During the 1950s, researchers at the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan conducted extensive studies on job stress. The work at this institute led to the development of the Michigan Organizational Stress Model developed by Kahn, French, and Caplan (as cited in Schabracq, Winnubst, & Cooper, 1996). Since then, the study of occupational stress has gradually increased. During the decades prior to the 1970s, fewer than five research articles per year had occupational research as the main topic (Buunk et al., 1998). The research of job stress peaked in the 1980s. Beehr (1995) reported the occurrence of 168 annual entries of

occupational stress in the indices of psychological abstracts between 1970 and 1980, while 254 entries were found for 1988. Since that year, the number of articles related to job stress have averaged 200 per year (Buunk et al.).

Changing conditions within and outside the work environment have given a new dynamic to the work stress phenomena. Millions of people have experienced major personal and professional changes imposed by globalization (Keita & Hurrell, 1994). Organizational trends such as downsizing, reorganizing, merging, and rapidly changing technology have led to a particular type of work related stress (Topf, 2000). Many people working long shifts have sacrificed personal aspects of their lives (Halcrow, 1997). Cuadron (1998) noted that job stress has been “three times more likely to affect a person’s emotional well being than children, aging parents, spouses, commuting, housework or any other personal demands” (p. 22).

Job Stress Models

Job stress has been studied by various disciplines including biology, physiology, psychology, sociology, and epidemiology (Beer & Franz, 1986). Because approached differently, major problems in the study of occupational stress encountered by job stress researchers have included confusion in the use of terminology and weak methodologies (Beehr, 1998a).

To clarify the general stress concept, Beehr and Franz (1986) proposed a distinction between strain and stressor. For them, stressors referred to stimuli occurring in the environment and strain to individual responses to such stimuli. Furthermore, these authors posited “[The] word stress is not used for one of these specific elements but is

reserved as a general term referring to an area of work or study that includes stressors and strains” (p. 6).

Bliese and Halverson (1996) proposed classifying job stress models as individual models and nomothetic models. The first type of models originated in psychology and emphasized individual differences in perceptions and reactions towards work environment stimulus that could produce job stress. The second type of models originated in epidemiology and tried to explain consistencies in how individuals perceive and react to similar work environments, assuming that “environments objectively vary on the dimension of stressfulness” (p. 1172). This review of literature focused on models frequently cited and used in the study of work related stress.

The Person-Environment (P-E) Fit Model, developed in the early 1970s by French, Caplan and Van Harrison, has been the most influential model of job stress (Spielberger & Vagg, 1999). This resulted from the investigations at the University of Michigan. French, Caplan, and Van Harrison (1982) proposed that a strain might be affected by the goodness of fit between the subjective person and the subjective work environment. In the P-E model, a distinction was made between personal or subjective misfit and environmental or objective misfit. A subjective misfit occurred whenever there was a discrepancy on an individual’s perception of him or herself and his or her perceptions of the environment. French et al. identified the second type of misfit as actual or *objective* misfit between the person and the environment. The measurement or the assessment of the objective misfit has been one of the major problems of this model (Buunk et al., 1998).

Another influential model in the job stress literature has been Karasek's Demand-Control Model (1979). Under this model, psychological strains were understood as consequences of the joint effect of both the demands of the job and the available range of control that the employee has. Karasek suggested that a distinction be made between "the job demands placed on the worker, and the discretion permitted the worker deciding how to meet these demands" (p. 285). Karasek's model distinguished four different types of jobs:

1. A *passive job* was one that had low job demands and low decision latitude.
2. A *low strain job* was one that had high decision latitude and low job demands.
3. A *high strain job* was one that had high job demands and low decision latitude.
4. An *active job* was one that had high job demands and high job decision latitude.

Other approaches have been used to consider whether stressful conditions outside of work identified as non-work conditions or "life events", might be factors for occupational stress to occur (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986, p. 37). Greenhaus and Parasuraman observed that a work-nonwork spillover occurred when the strain produced by stressors outside of work produced stressful situations within the work environment. Winnubst and Diekstra (1998) affirmed that work stress could not be explained solely by job demands; family, partner relations, and other relations outside the job setting could play a relevant role in job stress. These authors identified job stress as the dependent variable directly affected by six factors. The first factor, job demands, were determined by their number, nature, and pattern. A second factor, organizational support, was the

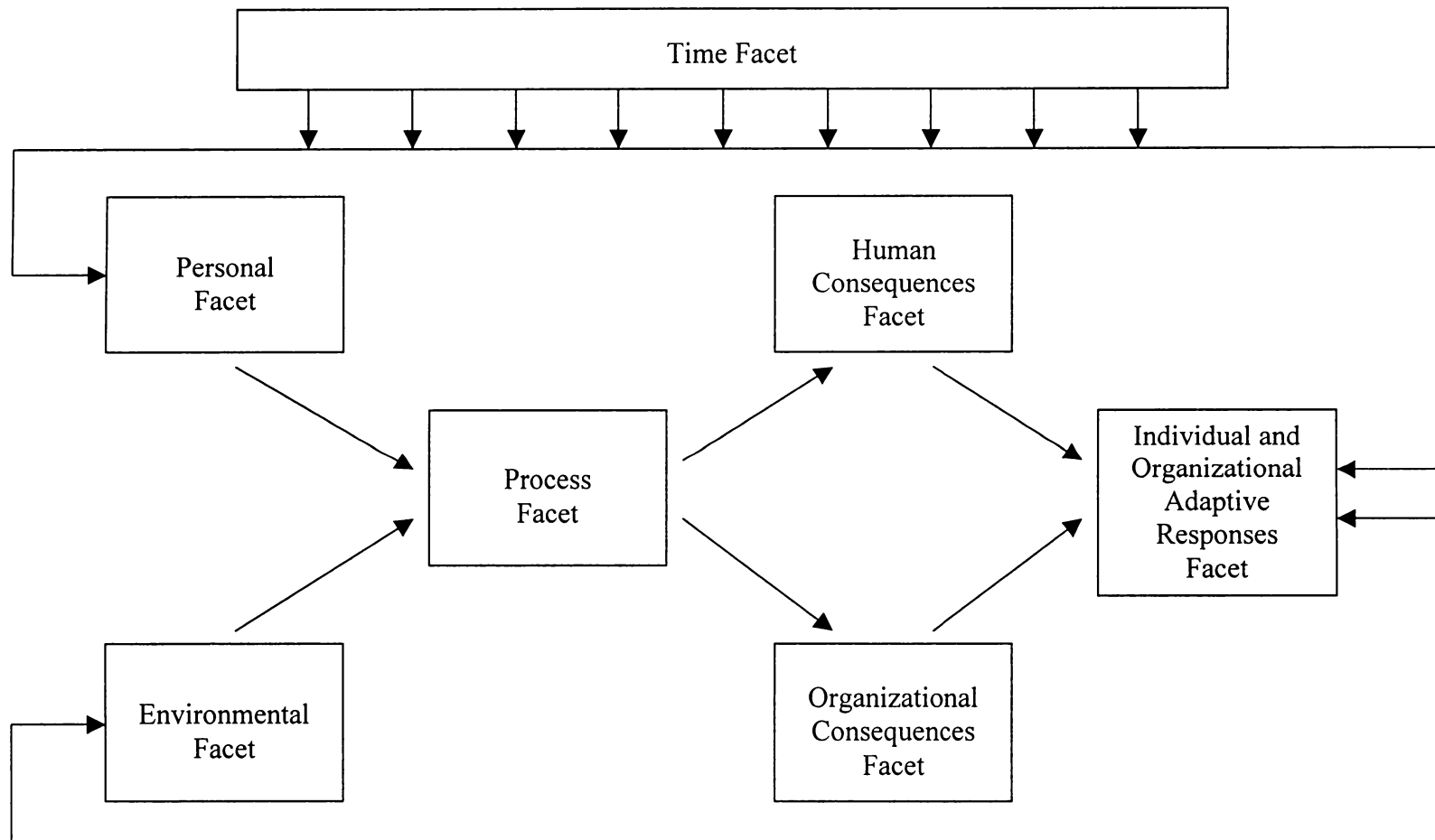
available social support for meeting the job demands. The third factor, available resources at work, involved aspects such as working conditions, working materials, and available information. A fourth factor, personal characteristics, included the individual's degree of self-confidence and self-image. A fifth element was the person's suitability to the task. Winnubst and Diekstra considered organizational and extra-organizational contexts as the sixth factor influencing job stress.

The Metamodel of Occupational Stress

The previous approaches to job stress showed job stress as a multifaceted phenomenon in which individual characteristics, job characteristics, and environmental characteristics played fundamental roles. Beehr-Newman's general model (Beehr & Newman, 1978, p. 676) of job stress, also known as the Beehr-Newman metamodel of occupational stress (Beehr, 1998a, 1998b), appeared to be one that linked the two different approaches to occupational stress. As discussed in Chapter I, the theoretical approach framing this study was Beehr-Newman's metamodel of occupational stress which "[is] general enough to be a framework for most approaches to and research on job stress" (Beehr & Franz, 1986, p. 11). Figure 2 depicts Beehr-Newman's metamodel.

Beehr and Newman (1978) considered seven facets as main components of the overall work related stress phenomenon. These facets were (a) personal, (b) process, (c) environmental, (d) human consequences, (e) organizational consequences, (f) individual and organizational adaptive responses, and (g) time. The authors explained their model:

The general model... indicates as simple as possible the general focal points of job stress... and suggests that elements of the personal facet and the environmental facet interact via the process facet to produce human and organizational consequences. Various agents then undertake the task of adaptation. The adaptive responses may, in turn, affect the personal and environmental facets. (p. 676)



21

Figure 2. Beehr-Newman general model of job stress. From “Job Stress, Employee Health, and Organizational Effectiveness: A Facet Analysis, Model, and Literature Review”, by T. A. Beehr and J. E. Newman, 1978, *Personnel Psychology*, 31(4), p.676. Copyright 1978 by Personnel Psychology, Inc. Reprinted with permission.

The personal facet encompassed personal characteristics that seemed likely to alter susceptibility to job stress. These characteristics included self-esteem and demographic variables such as age, gender, race, and occupation. The environmental facet was comprised of elements present in the work environment that might be perceived by an employee as stressful for example, work schedule, pace of work, organizational structure, and organizational climate, among others. The process facet encompassed psychological and physiological processes experienced by the worker as a consequence of both his or her personal characteristics (personal facet) and his or her perception of the work environment (environmental facet).

On the other hand, the human consequences facet related to physical and psychological health outcomes like high blood pressure, fatigue, lack of sleep, depression, low self-esteem, anxiety, and feelings of alienation, among others (Beehr & Newman, 1978). Beehr and Newman identified organizational consequences as those aspects in organizational outcomes that could be affected as consequence of the outcomes of the process facet like quality of job performance, retention, and productivity.

The adaptive response facet considered those initiatives taken for reducing work related stress like job redesign, stress training, career guidance, relaxation techniques, support seeking, and attitudinal and behavioral changes, to name a few. The time facet encompassed those aspects of job stress that required time to develop but also referred to the duration of stressful events at work. Chronic or permanent stressful events have been considered to have greater impact on both an individual's and an organization's health than short term stressful events(Beehr, 1998a; Beehr & Newman, 1978). Beehr affirmed that "the longer one is exposed to a potentially noxious event, the stronger the

consequences will be” (p. 19). The scope of this study focused on the personal facet, the process facet, and the environmental facet.

The Personal Facet

McLean (1987) wondered why some stressful situations provoked strains in some people but not in others. In search of possible answers to this question, researchers of job stress had emphasized the existence of individual differences in responses towards what could be considered as a similar demand of the environment (Bliese & Halverson, 1996). Many authors recognized that personal characteristics played a fundamental role in work-stress related responses (Beehr, 1995; Beehr & Franz, 1986; Bliese & Halverson; Bogg & Cooper, 1995; Buunk et al., 1998; French et al., 1982; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986; Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987; Reynolds, 1997; Schabracq & Cooper, 1998; Semmer, 1996; Terborg, 1985; Winnubst & Diekstra, 1998). Hence, “the way people deal with these (work) stressors is dependent on a host of personal qualities. In general, those qualities influence what one can do, is willingly to do, and allows oneself to do” (Schabracq & Cooper, p. 635).

Beehr (1995) defined the personal facet as the “employees’ relatively stable characteristics that affect their perceptions, appraisals, or reactions to stressors” (p.18). Thus, the personal facet included personality traits, demographic characteristics, physical fitness, and others moderating the core relationship between stressors and strains (Beehr).

Various studies of occupational stress have focused their attention on constructs that conceptualize personality characteristics. Some personality traits and their relationship to job stress have been widely investigated; some of these investigations addressed locus of control, self-efficacy, and Type A behavior (Buunk et al., 1998).

Empirical studies have shown an inverse relationship between job stress and self-concept (Hatcher & Underwood, 1990; Reynolds, 1996), meaning that low self-esteem might influence an individual being more vulnerable to stressful situations at work. Knautz (1982), studying the relationship of occupational stress to personality and demographic characteristics, found that personality variables (self-concept and self-esteem) had a stronger association with job stress than demographic variables. Although, the personal facet may encompass personal aspects such as demographic characteristics, such aspects could be considered trivial when they did not moderate the core relationship between stressor and strain (Beehr, 1995).

The Process Facet

The process facet included both psychological and physiological processes that are the result of responses towards stressful events occurring in the work environment. As Beehr and Newman (1978) explained, “[The] process facet refers to those events within the human organism which transform input (stimuli) and produce output (human and organizational consequences and responses)” (p. 681). These researchers observed that psychological processes differentiate into the following activities: (a) perception of the situation, (b) appraisal of the situation, (c) decision-making regarding the situation, and (d) perception of the outcomes of the decision-making responses. Appraisals involved comparisons with some relevant aspect of the individual like values, needs, expectations, or abilities (Beehr & Newman). Perceptions were considered the primary source of outcomes and were influenced by elements from the personal facet (Beehr & Newman), while appraisals developed the individual’s subjective model of the work environment (Cox & Ferguson, 1994).

The process facet could be considered relevant for the assessment of job stress because this facet included psychological and physiological outcomes resulting from the interaction between the personal and the environmental facets. For the purpose of this study, an adaptation of Beehr-Newman's metamodel of occupational stress was presented in Chapter I (refer to Figure 1). The adaptation proposed incorporating the dimension of severity, proposed by Spielberger and Vagg (1999), as an additional facet.

The Environmental Facet

Beehr and Newman (1978) defined the environmental facet as the aspects of the work environment perceived as stressful by employees and influential of both psychological and physiological responses (the previously discussed process facet). The authors divided work environment aspects in four categories: (a) job demands and task characteristics, (b) role demands and expectations, (c) organizational characteristics and conditions, and (d) organizational external demands and conditions. In the assessment of job stress, two important elements of job demands and role demands have been included in the JSS subscale identified as job pressure. Job pressures "reflect stressful aspects of the job's structure, design, or duties" (Spielberger & Vagg, 1999, p. 6). Cox and Ferguson (1994) observed that demands were not stressful in nature; rather, a demand might impose strain on individuals when they perceived it as difficult to accomplish or as unmanageable.

One aspect of organizational characteristics and conditions mentioned by Beehr and Newman (1978) was organizational support, frequently identified in the job stress literature as social support. Studies have shown that supportive relationships reduce stress

(Amason, Allen, & Holmes, 1999; Burleson, Albrecht, & Pierce, 1994; Schabracq & Cooper, 1998). Beehr (1998a) identified two possible sources of social support. First, the support might occur within the organization, sources of such support might include supervisors, coworkers and the organization itself. Second, the support might be offered outside the organization, sources of such support may include friends and family members and people in general outside the organization.

Ford (1985) proposed that lack of organizational support was a source of job stress itself. Spielberger and Vagg (1999) included the assessment of lack of organizational support in their instrument. The JSS lack of organizational support subscale has reflected the amount of job stress that can be attributed to “difficulty [in] getting along with supervisors, poorly motivated coworkers, and lack of opportunity for advancement” (Spielberger & Vagg, p. 6).

Beehr and Newman (1978) identified organizational characteristics and conditions that might influence job stress. Among all of these factors the following might be aggravated by prejudice and discrimination within the workplace: (a) subsystem relations; (b) communication system; (c) policies and procedures; (d) evaluation control, and reward systems; (e) opportunity for advancement; and (f) organizational climate. A current trend in the environmental facet is the interaction of people from different backgrounds, particularly of different ethnic backgrounds.

Ethnic Diversity in the Workplace

Blau (1977) defined demographic diversity as the degree of dispersion of a population in terms of nominal demographic attributes such as gender, age, and race or ethnic characteristics. Lau and Murnighan (1998) pointed out that analyses concerning

diversity in the workplace should consider not just demographic composition, but, more importantly, they ought to focus on the potential dynamics that certain demographic distributions could activate.

Demographic changes occurring in the United States have influenced modifications in the composition of the population and consequently of the workforce and the work environment, a trend expected to continue throughout this century (Harrison, Price & Bell, 1998; Lau & Murnighan, 1998). Table 1 shows that Hispanics currently represent 12.5% of the overall population of the United States. Thus, Hispanics have surpassed African Americans as the largest ethnic minority in this country. The Hispanic population increased in 58% compared to the Hispanic Population in 1990 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001a).

The increase in overall population among Hispanics has had ramifications for the American workforce as well. The Hudson Institute (Judy & D'Amico, 1997) estimated that the number of ethnic minority employees in the American workforce would increase from 24% in 1995 to 31% in 2020; furthermore approximately 14% of those ethnic minority employees would be individuals of Hispanic origin (Judy & D'Amico). Despite the increasing ethnic diversification of the American workplace, impacts of this diversification on both working conditions and workers' health have not been sufficiently studied (NIOSH, 1999b). The NIOSH (1998), has proposed researching the role of ethnicity in employees' safety and health, while recognizing the need of focusing on ethnic minority groups as part of its research agenda.

Thus, the study of job related outcomes in relation to ethnic diversity has become imperative (Cox & Nkomo, 1990; Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998; Johnston & Packer,

Table 1*Distribution of the U. S. Population by Race in 2000*

Race	Number	Percent of total population
Total population	281,421,906	100.0
Hispanic or Latino (of any race)	35,305,818	12.5
Not Hispanic or Latino	246,116,088	87.5
One race	241,513,942	85.8
White	194,552,774	69.1
Black or African American	33,947,837	12.1
American Indian and Alaska native	2,068,883	0.7
Asian	10,123,169	3.6
Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander	353,509	0.1
Some other race	467,770	0.2
Two or more races	4,602,146	1.6

Source: U.S. Census Bureau (2001a).

1987; Judy & D'Amico, 1997; Marsella, 1994). Organizational researchers have ignored the fact that Hispanics would soon constitute the second largest group within the American workforce (Knouse et al., 1992).

Cox and Nkomo (1990) analyzed 20 academic journals that had published articles focusing on ethnic minorities in the workplace. Out of the 140 articles they reviewed, 67% included Black and Whites as researched groups, but only 4% of the articles focused on Hispanics. This percentage showed that studies having only Hispanics as the researched population have been scarce.

Job Stress and Ethnic Diversity in the Workplace

Evers and van der Flier (1998) noticed that ethnic minorities within organizations have been in a unique situation because of their cultural background. Hofstede (1984)

developed the *cross-cultural categories of work related values*; these categories explained how people, of different cultural backgrounds, behaved differently in the workplace. The four categories identified by Hofstede were (a) power-distance, (b) uncertainty-avoidance, (c) individualism-collectivism, and (d) masculinity-femininity. The author found that people in American organizations usually behaved under power, uncertainty, individualism and masculinity values, whereas individuals in Latin American organizations behaved under the opposite approach, that is, distance, avoidance, collectivism, and femininity. These categories might explain how certain organizational cultures stressed Hispanic employees when both the organization and the employee held opposite work related values. That is, if Hispanic employees had a tendency to understand the work environment as distant, avoidant, collective, and feminine, they might feel pressured by an organizational culture that emphasized power, uncertainty, individualism, and masculinity.

The relationship between ethnic origin and stress has been the least studied among all the individual differences that may moderate job stress responses (Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987). Ford (1985) also noted that ethnic minorities have been ignored in job stress studies. Recent publications also have recognized the need for such studies (Gutierrez et al., 1994; Marsella, 1994; Perez, 1998). Marsella observed, "Anecdotal commentaries abound, the majority studies either have focused on members of majority cultures or have failed to consider ethnocultural minority status as a research variable" (p. 150). Sanchez and Brock (1996) pointed out that previous research has investigated only self-reported ethnicity and observed that few job stress studies have examined effects of ethnic minority status. These authors maintained, "Virtually no data are available

concerning whether or not ethnically relevant stressors have effect on employees outcomes that go above and beyond those stressors affecting all employees” (p. 705).

The review of literature showed some common elements that seemed to influence the relationship between strain and stressors for ethnic minority employees, Hispanic included. Because the phenomenon appeared so specific Comas-Diaz (1997) introduced a new term, “ethnocultural occupational stress” (p. 143), to refer to situations in which ethnic minority workers faced stressful working conditions that were directly related to their minority ethnic status in the workplace. Gutierrez et al. (1994) posited, “[To the] extent that such stressors are prevalent, it is doubtful that interventions developed on the basis of research conducted with White male managers will show parallel benefits for ethnic minority workers” (p. 109). Prejudice and discrimination has been identified as a possible factor that might influence ethnocultural occupational stress in ethnic minority employees (Comas-Diaz).

Ethnic diversity seemed to induce a special type of job strain, though little is known about the special characteristics of the stress that ethnic diversity has imposed on individuals (James, 1994; Marsella, 1994). The degree of job stress could be mediated by a strong self-concept, as a person with strong self-esteem has been less vulnerable to the effects of job stress than a person with low self-esteem (Van Harrison, Moss, Dielman, Horvath, & Harlan, 1987). Moreover, ways in which the self-esteem of ethnic minority workers could be affected by negative organizational outcomes (like job stress, and perceptions of discrimination) have not been investigated sufficiently (James, 1994).

Prejudice, Discrimination, and the Workplace

Allport (1954) wrote the book *The Nature of Prejudice*, which has been

considered the starting point for the study of prejudice (Brown, 1995). Allport identified the human tendency of building categories as the cognitive aspect of prejudice. He observed that the human mind thinks with the aid of categories, which represent a simplification of an individual's world experience. Categories could lead to prejudgments that might turn into prejudice (Allport). He proposed that this categorization process favored some circumstances for individuals' preference for their own group to others. Prejudice has manifested towards categories of people rather towards specific individuals, even when the source of prejudicial attitudes might be a single individual (Brown).

Whereas prejudice has been related to this tendency of building categories, discrimination is has been action based on prejudice, or as Allport (1954) observed in discriminating, "[The] prejudice person makes detrimental distinctions of an active sort" (p. 14). Conceptually, prejudice and discrimination are different, but they are so closely interrelated that they can be considered together (Cox, 1993).

Self-categorization theory (Oakes, Haslam, & Turner, 1994) recognized individuals as having a collective psychology as group members, which may influence cognitions and behaviors (Reynolds, Turner, Haslam, & Ryan, 2001). Persons could categorize their selves either as individuals or as group members. If a person has a self-concept with a dominant personal identity, he or she would categorize himself or herself as individual. On the other hand, having a strong social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) would cause the person to categorize himself or herself as a group member.

Social identity has tended to emerge when there has been salient in-group and out-group comparison (Reynolds et al., 2001). James (1994) suggested that, for ethnic

minority workers, race or ethnic origin has become a major source of their social identity. In some contexts, a particular social identity might be a target of prejudice and discrimination, whereas in other contexts the same identity has been accepted or perhaps not even considered as part of an individual's distinctiveness (Deaux & Ethier, 1998). Negative attitudes of the majority group have been associated with prejudice; therefore, individuals in the minority group might perceive the surrounding environment as hostile (Deaux & Ethier).

Prejudice and discrimination have been associated with negative impacts on psychological and physical well-being (Morgan et al., 2000). Also, prejudice and discrimination might affect organizational outcomes because "interpersonal trust is an important ingredient of effective human relations and performance in organizations. Although many factors influence trust, the existence of prejudice and discrimination takes a heavy toll" (Cox, 1993, p. 81).

Perceptions of the work environment might affect employee's job satisfaction (Brewer & Clippard, 2002). Although might be expected that prejudice and discrimination only affected the targeted group, studies have shown perception of prejudice and discrimination having a detrimental effect on all employees (Ensher, Grant-Vallone, & Donaldson, 2001; Gutierrez et al., 1994).

Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990) distinguished between access and treatment discrimination. For them, access discrimination occurred when members of some groups (e.g., ethnic minorities or women), were prevented from entering an organization. Treatment discrimination occurred when these groups received fewer opportunities for advancement, fewer rewards, or fewer resources than other groups

(Greenhaus et al.). In other words, treatment discrimination might block opportunities for career advancement or promotion. Brewer (1998) observed that opportunities for advancement are situational determinants of job satisfaction.

Treatment discrimination has taken place at the organizational level rather than the individual or group level (James, 2000). Landau (1995) sustained that major barriers for women and ethnic minority employees are no longer at the entry level but at the promotion level. Transcending the glass ceiling has been defined as the ability to move from a supervisor position to an upper management position (Comas-Diaz, 1997). This ability might be highly influenced by informal organizational systems that depend on organizational support (Comas-Diaz).

Some empirical studies have assessed the relationship between race or ethnicity and promotion. Landau (1995) researched differences in promotion potential between White and ethnic minority managers. She found that race significantly related to promotion potential. Similarly, James (2000) found that race related to promotion rates. A study conducted among African American and White managers, found that the former received lower ratings by their supervisors on job performance and promotion potential than the later (Greenhaus et al., 1990). African American managers were identified as likely of having reached a career plateau (Greenhaus et al.).

Prejudice, Discrimination, and Job Stress

Allison (1998) suggested that stress should be examined among targeted groups of prejudice and discrimination. Some authors suggested that perceptions of discrimination within the workplace have influenced occupational stress on ethnic minority workers (Comas-Diaz, 1997; Gutierrez et al., 1994; James, 1994; James, Lovato,

& Khoo, 1994; Knouse et al., 1992; Mays et al., 1996; Morgan et al., 2000; Perez, 1998; Sanchez & Brock, 1996). Although empirical evidence does not abound, what is available has supported the idea that prejudice and discrimination have influenced strain in ethnic minority workers (James; Mays et al.).

Some empirical studies have shown significant relationships between job stress and perceptions of discrimination in the workplace. Perez (1998), employing Karasek's job stress model, reported a marginal significant relation between perception of discrimination and job control. Sanchez and Brock (1996) found that perceived discrimination contributed to employees' outcomes above and beyond other work-related stressors. A study conducted by James (1994) showed that prejudice and discrimination were significantly positively correlated with blood pressure levels. In this study, blood pressure, a cardiovascular disease, measured job-related stress. Mays et al. (1996) found that discrimination significantly increased the prediction of job stress. In a study conducted among African American women, Morgan et al. (2000) found that racism at work was a significant predictor of psychological well-being. These authors found that both racism and work stress were significant predictors of well-being in African American women. Furthermore, Gutierrez et al. (1994) found higher levels of job stress among White and Hispanic employees when they perceived discrimination towards ethnic minority employees.

Assessing Prejudice and Discrimination in the Workplace

Discrimination in the workplace might be objectively assessed by lawsuits from employees complaining of a discriminatory treatment. However, lawsuits may not be the best approach for measuring discrimination in the workplace. As mentioned, treatment

discrimination has been subtle and has been manifested in politics or organizational culture. Subtle discriminatory practices have not fallen under antidiscrimination laws (Stallworth, McPherson, & Rute, 2001).

On the other hand, perceptions of prejudice and discrimination have been subjective (Deaux & Ethier, 1998). That is, a situation could be perceived as discriminatory by one individual but not by other. Two Hispanic employees working for the same firm with equivalent salary and job position may perceive differences in treatment. Individual differences have been found in employees' reactions towards features of the work environment (Griffin, Mathieu, & Jacobs, 2001). Measuring perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace could be considered as an adequate approach. Schneider (1983) observed that separating a person from his or her situation would not reflect his or her psychological construction of such situation. This author added, "The emergent environment as perceived by active members is the important situation in person-situation research" (p. 11). Since perceptions have affected outcomes and have reflected the way an individual has understood the surrounding environment, assessing prejudice and discrimination in the workplace by measuring the perception of being prejudice or being discriminated against appeared to be an adequate approach for investigating the relationship of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and job stress. The study measured perception of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace by employing the Workplace Prejudice and Discrimination Inventory (WPDI) (James, Lovato, & Cropanzano, 1994).

Demographic Aspects

Demographic factors may mediate job stress (Beehr, 1995), but individual differences also have been found on perception of prejudice (Levy, 1999). The first Chapter addressed the operational definitions and listed demographic variables investigated in the study.

The following discussion of demographic variables did not conform to an alphabetical order, as the operational definitions. The reason for not following such order was that some of these variables were discussed together.

Ethnic Diverse Workplace

Lack of representation has been identified in diversity literature as *tokenism* (Cox, 1993). Cox suggested that unbalanced group representation might affect organizational outcomes. Polarization, social isolation, and stereotyping behavior could be three possible outcomes (Cox). In terms of job performance, minority status could bring more attention from supervisors who may place more work demands on minority employees than on White workers (Gutierrez et al., 1994). Comas-Diaz (1997) observed, “[The] inconsistent occupational status that accompanies the token position can yield to unsatisfactory social relationships, unstable self-images, frustrations from dealing with contradictory demands (from self and others) and insecurity” (p.158).

Some empirical evidence has confirmed the relationship between proportional representation and occupational stress. Sanchez and Brock (1996) found that in-group representation buffered effects of perceptions of discrimination on both job satisfaction and work-related stress. In his findings, James (1994) reported a significant inverse correlation between health problems and percentage of minority employees within work

units. Gutierrez et al. (1994) compared differences on proportional representation between Hispanics and Whites, and they found that when Whites were in a minority status in their work units, their levels of job stress and health problems increased. However, Hispanics did not show higher job-related stress or health problems because of minority status. Gutierrez et al. interpreted these findings as Hispanics, but not Whites, being used to holding minority status.

Immigrant Status

Occupational stress studies also have focused on differences between immigrants and non-immigrants of specific ethnic groups (Cervantes, 1992; Sanchez & Brock, 1996; Young, 1987). Differences that could have an impact on job stress appeared to point in three directions. First, natives have not followed a process of acculturation, that is, adapting to a new culture (Sanchez & Brock). Second, immigrants might have a striving attitude that “provides an impetus to succeed within the host culture through work and education” (Comas-Diaz, 1997, p. 144). Third, immigrants also might keep a desire of returning to their homeland and inhibiting the acculturation process (Comas-Diaz).

Cervantes (1992) conducted a study on immigrant and non-immigrant Hispanics. He developed the Hispanic Stress Inventory, an instrument for measuring different stress sources “considered culturally specific to Hispanics” (p. 126). Scores of the inventory were correlated with such psychological health outcomes as depression and anxiety, among others. Immigrants verified significant relationships between most of the psychological health outcomes and occupational or economic stressor events (Cervantes).

Sanchez and Brock (1996) analyzed work stress among Hispanic employees. These authors did not find a relationship between job stress and nationality; however,

they found a significant relationship between perceived discrimination and foreign place of birth. Young (1987) determined job stress differences between immigrant Chinese and American-born Chinese. He reported that significant differences were not found between the two groups in the amount of perceived job-related stress.

Time-Related Elements: Age and Tenure

Age and tenure are two time-related demographic variables. In their study, Mays et al. (1996) found that age significantly predicted levels of job stress as well as perceptions of prejudice and discrimination.

On the other hand, tenure could lessen perceptions of prejudice and discrimination (Amason et al., 1999). Harrison et al. (1998) found that time lessened the effects of prejudice in ethnically diverse work groups. These authors observed that the attenuation effect that tenure had on perceptions of prejudice and discrimination could be explained because “as people interact to get to know one another, stereotypes are replaced by more accurate knowledge of each other as individuals, which can result in reduced prejudice” (p. 99).

However, age and tenure may have a positive relationship to treatment discrimination. Greenhaus et al. (1990) considered lack of opportunities for advancement one possible outcome of treatment discrimination. Studies have found inverse relationships between age and tenure and promotion potential (Cox & Nkomo, 1992; Landau, 1995), and between tenure and promotion potential (James, 2000).

Gender Differences

Cox (1993) suggested that gender was a cultural category in itself. In most societies, men and women have played different roles. In some cultures women

participated in household activities only, while in others, such as the American society, women increasingly have incorporated themselves into the workforce (Johnston & Packer, 1987; Judy & D'Amico, 1997). Differences in job-related stress could exist between men and women of the same ethnic origin (Ford, 1980).

Gardiner and Tiggemann (1998) investigated effects on job stress for women working in male-dominated organizations, and they found that women reported higher job stress than men. Ford (1980) analyzed job stress differences between and within Black professionals and Mexican American professionals. He found significant differences between Mexican American women and Mexican American men. Women experienced significantly more job stress than did men. In the same study, no significant differences were found between Black men and women in regard to job stress.

Region of Residence

Comas-Diaz (1997) questioned the assumption that Hispanics were a culturally homogenous group because they shared the same language and similar cultural heritage. She cited types of jobs, differences in immigration status, education level, country of origin, and uneven distribution of Hispanics within the United States as some of the factors that made Hispanics a heterogeneous group.

In terms of geographic distribution, the 1990 Census showed that 87% of Hispanics resided in 10 states: California, Texas, New York, Florida, New Jersey, Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, Massachusetts, and Illinois (Garcia & Morotta, 1997). In 2000, the actual distribution of persons of Hispanic origin in the United States by Region as reported by the U.S. Census Bureau (2001b) was 14% in the Northeast region, 8% in the Midwest region, 33% in the South region, and 45% in the West region. The

West region has become rapidly diverse; in the year 2010 it has been expected that 40% of 40-year Californians would be White non-Hispanic (Judy & D'Amico, 1997).

The review of literature revealed no studies that addressed regional differences in perceptions of workplace prejudice and discrimination. The researcher found a comparable analysis in a study conducted by Carlstrom and Rollow (1998). The authors investigated regional differences in White and African American earnings.

Education Level and Employment Status

Two additional demographic variables that were investigated in relation to job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace were education level and employment status. Though the group of participant was expected to be composed of individuals holding masters degrees, it was expected that some members would hold doctoral degrees as well. In regard to employment status, the survey took place at a time of economic recession. It was decided to include cases of participants who were unemployed by requesting them to answer the survey instruments according to what they experienced in their most recent jobs. For this study employment status had two categories employed and unemployed.

Critique of the Validity of Appropriate Theory and Research

The variety of approaches used to study job stress has caused confusion and disagreements among researchers on how the study of job-related stress can and should be conducted (Beehr, 1995). Problems included lack of a clear definition of job stress and assumption of relationships among variables without strong evidence (Beehr). Buunk et al. (1998) maintained that a general theory of occupational stress has not existed. They

also pointed out that lack of agreement in the job stress literature has resided in differences among disciplines studying the phenomenon. The literature documented the existence of many job stress models; however, this Chapter discussed only models commonly found in empirical research.

Problems have existed within methodologies that have employed Karasek's and the P-E Fit models (Buunk et al., 1998; Caplan, 1983). The Control-Demand Model could present the problem that for small and heterogeneous samples interaction effects between demands and control cannot be proven (Buunk et al.). This model appeared to be adequate for investigating occupational stress for specific jobs within a specific job setting, which was not the case of this study; this study focused on Hispanic professionals working in different organizations. The P-E Fit model appeared appropriate for conducting this study because it considered that job stress generates from subjective perceptions both at the individual and environmental levels, pertaining to all the elements that have been previously discussed. However, the strength of this model resided in the finding of a misfit between subjective perceptions and what actually occurred in the workplace (the objective person and the objective environment). The measurement of the objective person and the objective environment was out of the scope of this study and appeared to be a common problem for studies employing this model. Caplan (1983), one of the P-E authors, sustained, "The objective measurement of both P and E remains a considerable challenge for social sciences" (p. 37). Edwards and Cooper (1990) observed that many studies employing the P-E Model had theoretical and methodological problems "which severely limit the conclusiveness of their findings" (p. 294).

Finally, the small numbers of studies conducted in the area of ethnic diversity in relation to job stress made it difficult to build on a strong theoretical and empirical framework. Identified empirical studies investigating perceptions of prejudice and discrimination researched relationships to such work related outcomes as job stress, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, physical and psychological well-being. The review of literature revealed demographic variables were possible moderators of the strain-stressor relationship in ethnic minority workers. However, it is necessary to mention that there was not abundant empirical evidence for supporting or contradicting the relevance of these demographic variables relative to job stress and perception of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.

*What is Known and Unknown About Job Stress
and Prejudice and Discrimination*

Despite the paradigm employed for studying job stress there has been consistency in studies' findings that job stress was adverse to employees' health and well-being (James, 1994; James, Lovato, & Khoo, 1994; Morgan et al., 2000).). The NIOSH (1998) considered job stress as a current research trend. Job stress has affected individuals' and organizations' performance and has had costly implications for individuals, organizations, institutions, and public health (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1998).

On the other hand, demographic trends have affected the composition of the American workforce (Johnston & Packer, 1987; Judy & D'Amico, 1997). It has been expected that by the year 2020 ethnic minorities will constitute a 33% of the total workforce (Judy & D'Amico). Despite this trend, few studies have been conducted with

ethnic minorities as the researched populations, especially Hispanics (Cox & Nkomo, 1990). Hispanics have become a group of relevance for the organizational research agenda because they have been expected to become the largest minority ethnic group in the U.S. workforce (Judy & D'Amico). This demographic trend has emphasized the need for job stress studies conducted among Hispanic employees.

In the case of Hispanic workers, job stress appeared to have special characteristics influenced by cultural and situational factors (Comas-Diaz, 1997). The literature suggested that a factor increasing job stress in ethnic minority employees might be the perception of being prejudiced or being discriminated against (Comas-Diaz; Knouse et al., 1992). The little empirical evidence found (Gutierrez et al., 1994; James, Lovato, & Khoo, 1994; James, Lovato, & Cropanzano, 1994; Mays et al., 1996; Morgan et al., 2000; Perez, 1998; Sanchez & Brock, 1996) supported the direct relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.

Contribution of the Study to the Literature

The study contributed to the job stress literature by investigating the relationship of job stress to perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and demographic variables. This study added to the body of knowledge about job stress among ethnic minority employees, particularly among Hispanic employees, and to the body of knowledge investigating the relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. Furthermore, the study contributed to existing job stress literature by focusing on Hispanics, one of the least researched groups in the organizational literature, though one of the fastest growing groups in the American workforce.

Summary of the Chapter

A historical overview of the antecedents of the study of job stress introduced the review of literature. Different authors identified harmful conditions in the work place as the origin of the study of occupational stress. In the literature review, the researched addressed job stress models frequently found as theoretical bases of empirical studies investigating this phenomenon. Particularly, the metamodel of occupational stress (Beehr & Newman, 1978) provided a theoretical foundation for the study. The review of literature addressed aspects of the metamodel such as (a) the personal facet, (b) the process facet, (c) the environmental facet, and (d) the time facet. This second Chapter presented a proposed adaptation of the metamodel by adding an additional facet-- the severity facet-- considered by Spielberg and Vagg (1999) as a fundamental dimension for the assessment of job stress.

In the review of literature, the researcher discussed issues of ethnic diversity in the workplace and pointed out the increasing participation of Hispanics in the American labor force (Johnston & Packer, 1987; Judy & D'Amico, 1997). Comas-Diaz (1997) identified particular features of job stress among Hispanic workers as *ethnocultural occupational stress*. Some authors (Comas-Diaz; James, 1994; Sanchez & Brock, 1996) have identified prejudice and discrimination as influencing occupational stress among Hispanic employees. Therefore, the review of literature addressed general aspects of prejudice and discrimination. It also mentioned some approaches and empirical findings supporting the notion of a direct relationship between prejudice and discrimination and job stress (Gutierrez et al., 1994; James, Lovato, & Khoo, 1994; James, Lovato, &

Cropanzano, 1994; Mays et al., 1996; Morgan et al., 2000; Perez, 1998; Sanchez & Brock).

The review ended by presenting demographic factors related to both job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination. This chapter also discussed the validity of the appropriate theory and research and presented a summary of what had been known and unknown about job stress and prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. Finally, this Chapter addressed the contribution that this study made to the existing body of knowledge about job stress, prejudice and discrimination in the workplace, and diversity in the workplace.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter the researcher describes the methodology and the procedures employed to fulfill the research objectives, to answer the research questions, and to test the null hypotheses. She has addressed the used methods, the population under analysis, the sampling technique, the instruments for gathering the data, and the procedures used to collect and analyze the data.

Research Methodology

The research methodology employed in this study was correlational. Correlational studies investigate whether or not relationships exist between two or more variables and the degree of such relationship (Gay & Airasian, 2000). A correlational study could analyze prediction effects of one or more variables on a response or dependent variable (Gay & Airasian). The study also involved aspects of a descriptive methodology. A descriptive research may compare how subgroups differ or do not differ in certain characteristics. In this particular case, the researcher investigated differences between respondents and non-respondents relative to job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. The researcher also investigated differences in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace regarding demographic variables.

The researcher's purpose in this study was to investigate the nature of the relationship of job stress to perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and to demographic variables. She investigated whether or not perceptions of discrimination in the workplace account for a significant variability on job stress, and its

subscales of job pressure and lack of organizational support above and beyond the variability accounted for by demographic variables. The survey process was guided by the methodology suggested by Salant and Dillman (1994) and by Dillman (2000).

Population and Sampling Frame

The surveyed population was the National Society of Hispanic Masters of Business Administrators (NSHMBAs). The NSHMBAs has approximately 2000 members. This society has national representation and members in Puerto Rico. Members of the society worked for a variety of industries and organizations.

The database of members of the NSHMBAs constituted the sampling frame of the study. From this database, a list of randomly selected members was drawn at the society's central office. A file containing names, addresses and electronic mail addresses was proportioned by the society's membership office. This information served as the sample list and was used for mailing out the survey.

Sampling and Survey Procedures

According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), a sample of size 322 constitutes a representative sample for a population size of 2,000. Four hundred surveys were mailed out to subjects within the sampled group. This number represented an additional 25% of the number of sample units suggested by Krejcie and Morgan, and took into consideration cases in which addresses had changed and cases that had illegible or incomplete questionnaires. The survey took place after the human subjects permission form had been approved.

After receiving the file containing sampled members of the society, consecutive numbers from 1 to 400 were assigned to each individual in the sample for identification

purposes only. Individualized survey packages were sent out to sampled NSHMBAs members. The 400 individualized survey packages included the following materials: (a) a cover letter, (b) a job stress survey (JSS), (c) a workplace prejudice and discrimination inventory (WPDI), and (d) a demographic profile. Each instrument was labeled with an identification number to identify subjects who had responded to the survey, eliminating them from follow-up notifications. It also helped the process for requesting non-respondents to answer the survey's instruments by telephone. Figure 3 depicts the flow of the survey process. As shown in this figure, survey materials sent to potential participants included

1. An advance electronic mail was sent to individuals in the sampled group. It informed potential participants that they would be receiving an envelope containing the survey's instruments along with a demographic questionnaire. The electronic mail was preferred to postal mail due to the problems at the time with the anthrax threat. The electronic mail had the purpose of preventing the discarding of what participants might have considered as unsolicited or unexpected mail. Appendix B shows a sample of this electronic mail.
2. The mailed out package included a cover letter that gave potential participants instructions and informed them that participation in the study was voluntary and anonymous. Mailed materials also included the two survey instruments and the demographic questionnaire. A return self-stamped envelope accompanied these materials. The survey package included a dollar bill as token for thanking individuals for their participation in the study. The inclusion of the dollar bill had the purpose of encouraging potential participants to respond to the survey (Dillman, 2000). Appendix C shows a sample of the survey's cover letter.
3. A follow-up electronic mail thanked participants that had already returned the survey materials. It also reminded potential participants about the survey's deadline and encouraged them to participate. Appendix D shows a sample of this electronic mail.
4. A second follow-up electronic mail had a similar purpose to the first follow-up electronic mail. Appendix D shows a sample of this electronic mail.

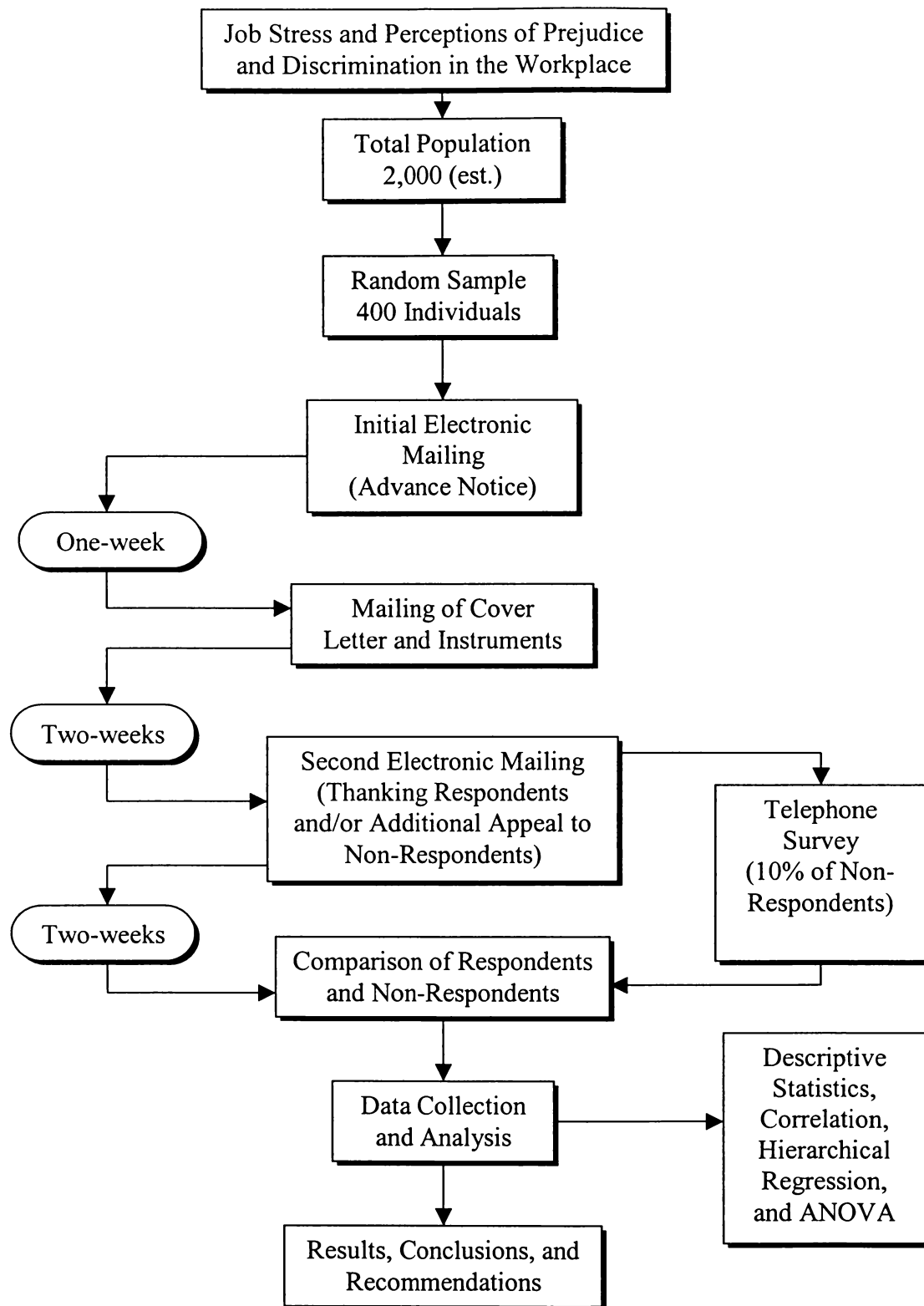


Figure 3. Flowchart illustrating the main steps for conducting the study.

5. An electronic mail was sent after the survey's deadline. This electronic mail requested survey's non-respondents to answer the survey instruments by telephone. The purpose of this request was guided by the study's objectives, which included a comparison between those individuals who mailed back their instruments and those who did not, identified in the operational definitions as respondents and non-respondents. Appendix E shows a sample of this electronic mail.

Instrumentation

The researcher selected the instruments after conducting an analysis of available instruments for the assessment of the variables under study. Regarding job stress, the analysis focused on two instruments for measuring job stress: the Occupational Stress Inventory Revised Edition (OSI-R; Osipow, 1998) and the Job Stress Survey (JSS; Spielberger & Vagg, 1999).

The OSI-R consisted of three questionnaires; each questionnaire measured one of the following constructs: (a) occupational stress, (b) occupational induced stress, and (c) coping resources. Osipow (1998) reported alpha coefficients for the three questionnaires of .88, .93, and .89, which represented adequate reliability scores (Gay & Airasian, 2000). Two factors influenced the decision for not employing this instrument in the study, both of which were directly related to the nature of the targeted population. First, the OSI-R had 140 items, and the estimated answering time ranged from 20 to 40 minutes. Potential participants could have perceived an instrument of this length as too time consuming, and answering time was considered a factor that could directly impact the response rate. As the majority of potential participants likely held executive positions, it was assumed that for them time would have been a critical factor that could have influenced their willingness to participate. Second, Osipow (1998) pointed out that although his instrument required a fifth grade reading level, "Caution should be exercised

when testing individuals whose primary language is not English” (p. 5). The nature of the targeted group suggested that the number of potential participants whose first language was not English would have been high.

The selected instrument for measuring job stress was the JSS (Spielberger & Vagg, 1999). The authors reported adequate reliability coefficients (Gay & Airasian, 2000) for their instrument as a whole ($\alpha = .87$), and for the subscales of interest: job pressure ($\alpha = .80$) and lack of organizational support ($\alpha = .80$). Regarding validity, Spielberger and Vagg indicated that several studies had been conducted to assess the construct validity of the JSS. They reported an answering time of 15 to 20 minutes, 5 minutes less than the OSI-R, on average. Each one of the 60 items of the JSS was a short statement, which suggested that the instrument was suitable for participants whose first language was not English. Furthermore, the JSS assessed a fundamental aspect of Beehr-Newman’s metamodel of occupational stress, which theoretically framed the conducted research. This aspect was the time facet, identified by Spielberger and Vagg as job stress frequency. The OSI-R did not assess this dimension of job stress.

The JSS was developed “[to] assess generic sources of occupational stress encountered by men and women in a wide variety of work settings” (Spielberger & Vagg, 1999, p. 5). As explained, the JSS considered two dimensions of occupational stress-- severity and frequency. Spielberger and Vagg identified 30 events as possible sources of job stress; events perceived both as highly severe and frequent have been the ones more likely to produce strain (Vagg & Spielberger, 1999). Respondents, using a 9-point Likert scale, graded each one of these 30 events. They assigned 1 to those events that they perceived as causing a low amount of stress and 9 to those perceived as causing a high

amount of stress. An event causing a moderate amount of stress received a grading score of 5. Instructions for the JSS directed respondents to identify the event *assignment of disagreeable duties* as an event causing a moderate amount of stress, and to compare the rest of the events to this particular event and grade them accordingly.

Three scales and six subscales form the JSS. Of these nine scales, only three considered both frequency and severity dimensions. Scales not considering either one of these two dimensions were not included in the statistical analysis. This approach aimed for consistency with the theoretical framework and the proposed adaptation of the Beehr-Newman metamodel of occupational stress (refer to Figure 1 in Chapter I). The three JSS scales of interest were

1. Job Stress Index (JS-X): provided an estimate of the overall level of occupational stress. It combined severity and frequency ratings for all 30 JSS items.
2. Job Pressure Index (JP-X): assessed job stress experienced by respondents that could be attributed directly to pressures of their work. It combined the severity and frequency ratings for 10 JSS items identified as events, which reflected “stressful aspects of the job’s structure, design or duties” (Spielberger & Vagg, 1999, p. 6).
3. Lack of Organizational Support (LS-X): assessed job stress experienced by respondents that could be attributed directly to lack of support on behalf of their supervisor, coworkers or the organization. It combined the severity and frequency ratings for all the 10 JSS items identified as events involving supervisor, coworkers, or organization policies that reflected lack of support.

A copy of this instrument was not included in this report of the study. The instrument is copyrighted by Psychological Assessment Resources (PAR) and can be purchased at PAR’s website www.parinc.com (for a comprehensive review of this instrument refer to the *Mental Measurements Year Book*).

As for the assessment of perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace, the selected instrument was the Workplace Prejudice and Discrimination Inventory (WPDI) developed by James, Lovato, and Cropanzano (1994). A search of possible instruments for assessing this variable led to no results in the *Mental Measurements Year Book*. The search for instruments measuring perceptions of discrimination in reviewed articles led to two possible options. The first option was a questionnaire developed by Mena, Padilla, and Maldonado (1987). A second article (James, Lovato, & Khoo, 1994) led to a more recently published instrument than the one developed by Mena, Padilla, and Maldonado. The WPDI measured appreciations on behalf of the respondents of “workplace bias experiences” (James, Lovato, & Cropanzano, 1994, p. 1574). The first author, Keith James, was contacted via electronic mail requesting permission for using the WPDI. Appendix F shows this permission.

The WPDI included 15 items to be answered by respondents using a 5-point Likert-type scale that varied from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. James, Lovato, and Cropanzano (1994) reported a reliability coefficient of .93 for their instrument. The authors assessed the validity of the WPDI using three different procedures. First, factor analyses were performed using two different samples. These analyses reported that a single significant factor accounted for most of the variability of the 15 items of the instrument. Second, construct validity was performed relating the WPDI overall scores to theoretical relevant constructs. The third procedure was a known-group comparison approach in which scores of the WPDI were contrasted among three different groups of individuals known to differ in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace (James, Lovato, & Cropanzano). For each respondent,

and for each non-respondent, an overall score of the WPDI was calculated. Obtained WPDI overall scores were employed in different statistical procedures. These statistical procedures helped to test hypotheses regarding perception of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. Permission for reproducing the WPDI within this report was not granted (for a comprehensive description of the instrument refer to James, Lovato, and Cropanzano, 1994, pp. 1573-1592).

A demographic questionnaire, specifically designed, served the purpose of obtaining demographic profiles of respondents and non-respondents. The questionnaire assessed the following demographic variables: age, education level, employment status, ethnic diverse workplace, gender, immigrant status, and tenure. An additional demographic variable, region of residence, was obtained from each participant's address. Categories for this variable were obtained using regions as defined by the U.S. Census Bureau (see Appendix A). Appendix G contains the demographic questionnaire.

Data Collection

Data were collected from instruments and demographic questionnaires of respondents and non-respondents. Respondents and non-respondents survey instruments and demographic questionnaires were filed in individual folders. Both instruments, the JSS and the WPDI, were scored using a spreadsheet created for this specific purpose. Demographic profiles were coded according to each variable's categories, already identified in the operational definition section.

A database, in a spreadsheet format, was generated containing each participant's demographic profile and individual scores for each measurement under analysis. A data entry validating process consisted of two steps. In the first step, each respondent's

instruments were scored twice. In those cases where mismatches were found, an additional scoring identified the correct score. In the second step, a report of the demographic variables was generated. This report was individually and visually checked against each demographic questionnaire. Identified mistakes were corrected in the database.

After conducting the data entry validating process, a spreadsheet was developed for performing statistical analyses. The employed statistical software for conducting statistical procedures was the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) version 10.1.

Data Analysis

The statistical analysis considered three independent variables assessed by the JSS. These variables were (a) the job stress index (JS-X), (b) the job pressure index (JP-X), and (c) the lack of organizational support index (LS-X). Dependent variables were perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplaces assessed by the WPDI and demographic variables assessed by the demographic questionnaire. Perception of workplace prejudice and discrimination was the independent variable for analyzing differences on these perceptions regarding demographic variables.

Due to a minimum of studies referring the use of the WPDI (James, 1994; James, Lovato & Khoo, 1994), it was considered necessary to obtain a measurement of the reliability of this instrument. This situation was addressed by the first research question. An internal consistency coefficient, or coefficient alpha, was obtained for assessing the reliability of the WPDI. For this purpose a Cronbach's alpha (α) was obtained.

To test the first null hypothesis correlation, coefficients were obtained. Gay and Airasian (2000) pointed out that a relationship between two variables could be considered low when their correlation coefficient is less than plus or minus 0.35, moderate when their correlation coefficient lies between plus or minus 0.35 and 0.65, and high when their correlation coefficient is greater than plus or minus 0.65.

The researcher obtained correlation coefficients between the overall job stress score and the overall score of perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. The researcher calculated correlation coefficients between job pressure and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination and lack of organizational support and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination. Job stress, job pressure, lack of organizational support, and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination were correlated to each demographic variable. In the next chapter, the researcher has discussed the nature of these relationships.

A hierarchical regression was used to test the second null hypothesis. A hierarchical regression analysis represents a type of multiple regression analysis. Gay and Airasian (2000) defined multiple regression equations as those including more than one independent variable. These authors observed that a multiple regression could be used with data having any type or scale of measurement. Assumptions of the general linear regression model are that dependent variables or observations are independent, having a mean or expected value and a constant variance (Neter, Wasserman, & Kutner, 1985).

Tisak (1994) explained hierarchical regression as a technique for determining the statistical significance of sets of predictor variables. Thus, hierarchical regression is a type of regression equation in which a variable or sets of variables are added to the

regression model in stages. At each stage, changes in the coefficient of determination (R^2) are calculated, and a hypothesis test is performed to calculate whether the change in R^2 is significantly different from zero (Stockburger, n.d., Fitting Sequential Models section, ¶ 2). The coefficient of determination “indicates the proportion of variability in one variable that is associated with (or explained by) variability in the other variable” (Huck & Cormier, 1996, p. 69) or in the case of hierarchical regression, sets of variables.

An eight-factor ANOVA tested the third null hypothesis. The tested ANOVA had eight factors, each factor corresponding to the each one of the following demographic variables: age, education level, employment status, ethnic diverse workplace, gender, immigrant status, region of residence, and tenure (levels for the eight-factor ANOVA were 4 x 3 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 5 x 5). Analyses of variance assume the normal distribution of the dependent variable and the same degree of variability or homogeneity of variance across groups. The conducted ANOVA only included the test of main effects no interaction effects were tested. That is, only significant effects of each one of the eight demographic variables on perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace were determined. Post hoc analyses were conducted for those factors that showed significant main effects.

The statistical procedure used to determine whether respondents and non-respondents differed in their responses to both the JSS and WPDI was a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). This is a statistical procedure that tests group differences by analyzing various dependent variables at the same time (Norusis, 1990). Assumptions for a MANOVA are that dependent variables must have a multivariate

normal distribution and the same variance-covariance matrix (equal variance) in each group (Norusis).

Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter the researcher addressed that the employed methodology was correlational and descriptive. The population under analysis was the NSHMBAs. A random sample of the population was obtained from a database of the society's members. A total of 400 survey packages were sent out to sampled members. Follow-ups were made through electronic mail. After the survey deadline, individuals who did not respond to the survey were contacted by electronic mail requesting their participation in the survey by answering the survey's instruments by telephone. Comparisons between the two groups (respondents and non-respondents) have been presented in the next chapter.

The researcher employed the JSS to measure job stress and the WPDI to measure perceptions of discrimination in the workplace. Demographic variables were assessed using demographic questionnaires. This chapter presented the procedures for data treatment and the statistical procedures conducted for answering the research questions and testing the stated null hypotheses.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. The study investigated whether or not perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace accounted for a significant variability on job stress above and beyond that accounted for by the demographic variables. The study also investigated demographic differences in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.

In this chapter the researcher has presented the response rate of the survey, the distribution of the demographic variables, respondents and non-respondents analysis, and the results that answered each research question.

Response Rate and Participation

Out of 400 surveys sent to sampled members of the NSHMBAs, 204 were returned. This represented a 51% response rate. Of the 196 non-respondents, 20 could not be contacted either because the U.S. Postal Service returned their envelopes marked as incorrect addresses or because they clearly expressed by electronic mail that they were excluding themselves from participation. These situations reduced the group of non-respondents to 176. A final electronic mail was sent to 161 non-respondents because 18 electronic mail addresses had errors or were no longer active. The electronic mail requested participation in the study by responding to the survey by telephone (refer to Appendix E). Fifteen subjects agreed to respond to the instruments by telephone, representing the non-respondents group as defined in the operational definitions. The

researcher conducted a comparison between respondent and non-respondents answers to the survey instruments, which is presented in this Chapter.

Demographic Data Summary

Frequency counts were obtained for each demographic variable. The considered demographic variables were age, education level, employment status, ethnic diverse workplace, gender, immigrant status, region of residence, and tenure. Table 2 presents frequency counts for each demographic variable. The summary includes frequencies for respondents and for non-respondents, overall frequencies, and overall demographic distributions.

A majority (51.1%) of respondents and non-respondents reported ages between 31 and 40 years. Forty-nine (22.4%) respondents and non-respondents reported ages between 21 and 30 years. Forty-eight (21.9%) respondents and non-respondents reported ages between 41 and 50 years, and 10 (4.6%) respondents and non-respondents reported ages between 51 and 60 years. None of the individuals participating in the study reported being older than 60 years.

Regarding education level, the vast majority (92%) of the participants had earned masters degrees. This report was consistent with the nature of the targeted population, as clearly stated in the society's name: National Society of Hispanic Masters of Business Administrators. Only 10 respondents and one non-respondent reported having bachelors degree; four respondents and two non-respondents reported having a doctoral degree.

As stated in Chapter I, the researcher expected that some potential participants would have been unemployed at the time that the survey was conducted. The researcher

Table 2*Demographic Data of Respondents and Non-Respondents*

Demographic Variable	Frequency			Percent (Total)	
	Respondents	Non-Respondents	Total	Valid	Cumulative
Age					
21-30	48	1	49	22.4%	22.4%
31-40	101	11	112	51.1%	73.5%
41-50	45	3	48	21.9%	95.4%
51-60	10	0	10	4.6%	100.0%
Education level					
Bachelors degree	10	1	11	5.0%	5.0%
Masters degree	190	12	202	92.2%	97.3%
Doctorate degree	4	2	6	2.7%	100.0%
Employment status					
Employed	187	15	202	92.2%	92.2%
Unemployed	17	0	17	7.8%	100.0%
Ethnic diverse workplace					
Yes	193	10	203	93.1%	93.1%
No	10	5	15	6.9%	100.0%
Gender					
Male	125	7	132	60.3%	60.3%
Female	79	8	87	39.7%	100.0%
Immigrant status					
Born in the U.S.	114	8	122	55.7%	55.7%
Born outside the U.S.	90	7	97	44.3%	100.0%
Region of residence					
Northeast	38	2	40	18.3%	18.3%
Midwest	52	8	60	27.4%	45.7%
South	66	1	67	30.6%	76.3%
West	43	4	47	21.5%	97.7%

(table continues)

Table 2 (*continued*)

Demographic Variable	Frequency			Percent	
	Respondents	Non-Respondents	Total	Valid	Cumulative
Puerto Rico	5	0	5	2.3%	100.0%
Tenure					
Less than a year	50	1	51	23.5%	23.5%
1-3	71	5	76	35.0%	58.5%
4-10	50	6	56	25.8%	84.3%
11-15	12	3	15	6.9%	91.2%
16 or more	19	0	19	8.8%	100.0%

hoped to include these cases in the analysis by requesting unemployed participants to respond to the instruments considering what they experienced in their most recent jobs. Seventeen respondents (7.8%) reported being unemployed at the time that the survey took place; all non-respondents were employed at that time. Therefore, the majority of participants (92.2%) were employed at the time that the survey took place.

To measure whether or not respondents worked in an ethnically diverse workplace, they were asked whether or not ethnic minorities like African Americans, Asians, Hispanics, and so forth., were also employed where they worked. Two-hundred three of the participants (93.1%) reported working at ethnically diverse workplaces. Only 15 participants reported working in work settings that lacked ethnic diversity.

Regarding gender, 132 participants (60.3%) were males, and 87 (39.7%) were females. The proportion of female and male participants was similar in both respondents and non-respondents groups; overall women were about equally represented with men.

The total number of participants who reported have been born in the United States was 122 (55.7%). Ninety-seven participants (44.3%) reported have been born outside the

United States. Participants born in and outside the United States were similarly represented in both respondents and non-respondents groups.

The addresses used to send the survey served the purpose of identifying individuals' region of residence. Respondents' and non-respondents' region of residence was determined by identifying the state in which they lived. Regions corresponded to those defined by the U.S. Census Bureau, which divides the United States into the following regions: (a) Northeast, (b) Midwest, (c) South, and (d) West. Appendix A presents a listing of the states grouped under each one of these regions. Forty of the participants (18.3%) resided in the Northeast; 60 of the participants (27.4%) resided in the Midwest; 67 of the participants (30.6%) resided in the South; 47 of the participants (21.5%) resided in the West; 5 of the participants (2.3%) resided in Puerto Rico. The statistical analysis excluded responses from two subjects residing in Puerto Rico because their responses presented multiple missing data.

Regarding tenure, 51 participants (23.5%) reported tenure of less than a year. Seventy-six participants (35.0%) reported tenure between 1 and 3 years; 56 (25.8%) reported tenure between 4 and 10 years; 15 (6.9%) reported tenure between 11 and 15 years; 19 (8.8%) reported tenure equal or greater than 16 years.

Analysis of Respondents and Non-Respondents

Before further analysis could be carried out, it was necessary to perform an analysis that compared instruments' scores of respondents and non-respondents groups. The analysis determined whether or not scores for the variables under analysis were significantly different for respondents and non-respondents. As part of a respondents and

non-respondents analysis, individuals who did not return surveys before the deadline were requested to answer the instruments by telephone.

Mean values and standard deviations for the four scores under analysis were obtained for respondents and non-respondents. These scores were: (a) the overall JSS score, (b) the JSS's job pressure subscale, (c) the JSS's lack of organizational support subscale, and (d) the overall WPDI score. Table 3 presents means and standard deviations for these variables. A chart of the means, as shown in Figure 4, depicted a preliminary visual analysis. This chart showed no significant differences between respondents and non-respondents for each score listed previously.

The statistical procedure used to confirm what the visual analysis of the means showed was a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). Assumptions for MANOVA are that the dependent variables combined should be normally distributed, having the same variance covariance distribution in each group under analysis (Norusis, 1990). When variables have a multivariate normal distribution, each variable should be normally distributed; the opposite does not apply (Norusis).

Therefore, normality of the four variables was tested individually. Table 4 shows results of the UNIVARIATE test of normality. Perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace, job stress, and its subscale lack of organizational support did not show to be normally distributed. The job pressure subscale was normally distributed ($p > .05$). It was concluded that when combined, the four variables under analysis did not have a multivariate normal distribution because three variables were not normally distributed.

Table 3

Scores' Mean Values and Standard Deviations for Respondents and Non-Respondents

Variable	Respondents		Non-Respondents	
	Means	SD	Means	SD
Job stress	24.1	10.6	23.8	10.6
Job pressure	28.1	13.3	27.9	9.9
Lack of organizational support	23.7	15.5	23.1	15.0
Perceptions of prejudice and discrimination	49.5	21.8	54.7	23.8

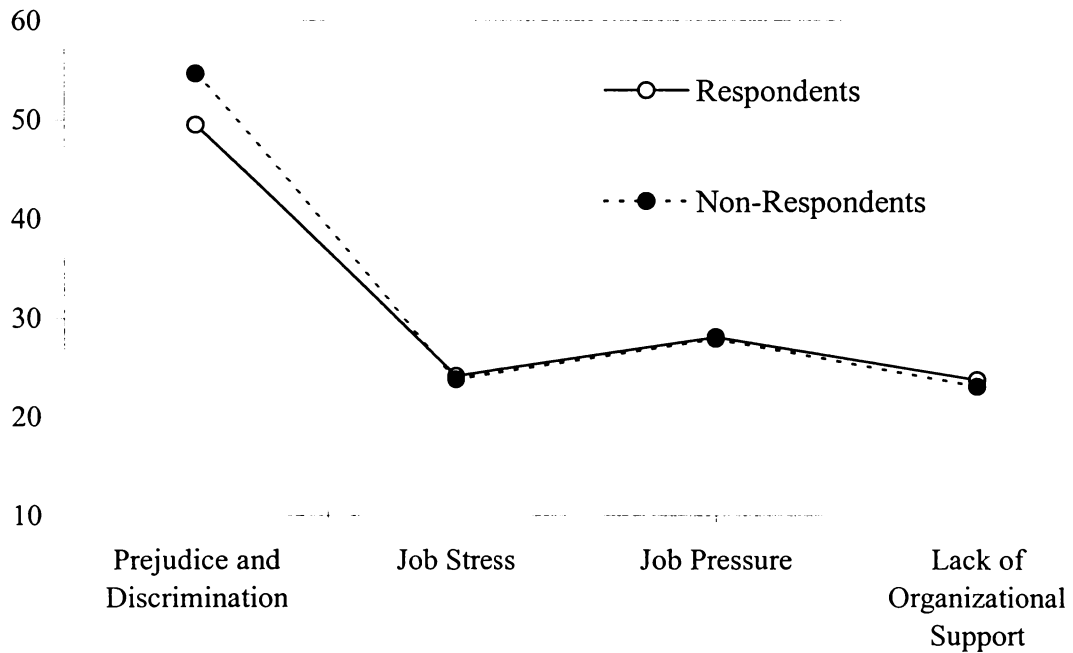


Figure 4. Mean values for respondents and non-respondents.

Table 4*UNIVARIATE Test of Normality of Variables Under Analysis*

Variable	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
	Statistic	<i>df</i>	Significance
Job stress	0.070	217	.012*
Job pressure	0.052	217	.100
Lack of organizational support	0.094	217	.000*
Prejudice and discrimination	0.081	217	.001*

* $p < .05$ can be interpreted as the distribution of the variable significantly differing from a normal distribution

A second assumption of a MANOVA test is the homogeneity of variances or that the variance-covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal. This assumption was tested with Box's M test ($F = 1.4991$, $p = .136$), showing that there was not sufficient evidence that the variance-covariance matrices differed. Therefore, the second assumption for conducting the MANOVA test was fulfilled.

Testing mean differences using a MANOVA offered different tests; usually, all of these tests are included in statistical packages that can perform MANOVA. The tests are (a) Pillai's trace, (b) Wilks' likelihood ratio test, (c) Hotelling's trace, and (d) Roy's test.

Although these tests can produce similar results, Pillai's test has been shown to be the most robust when the necessary assumptions are not met (Norusis, 1990). In this particular case, the MANOVA confirmed the visual interpretation; that is, no significant differences existed between respondents and non-respondents in job stress, job pressure, lack of organizational support, and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination scores (*Pillai's trace* = .005, $p = .907$). From this analysis, the researcher concluded that scores of non-respondents could be included in the statistical analyses. Therefore, from this

point forward, statistical analyses considered cases including both groups of respondents and non-respondents.

Research Question One

In the literature review, only two empirical studies (James, 1994; James, Lovato, & Khoo, 1994) reported using the WPDI. This situation influenced the researcher's decision of testing the reliability of the WPDI. The reliability of this instrument was determined using a method of internal consistency. The analysis resulted in a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .93, the same value reported by the instrument's authors (James, Lovato, & Cropanzano, 1994, p. 1586). The instrument showed an adequate reliability (Gay & Airasian, 2000). Thus, the answer to the first research question was affirmative; the WPDI was a reliable instrument for measuring perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.

Research Question Two

Research question Two asked whether or not perceptions of prejudice and discrimination related to job stress. To address this question, null hypothesis one was tested:

H₀₁: There is no relationship between job stress as measured by the JSS and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace as measured by the WPDI.

For testing this hypothesis, correlation coefficients between scores of perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and scores of job stress, job pressure, and lack of organizational support were obtained.

Figure 5 presents a scatter diagram depicting the relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the work place. The scatter diagram

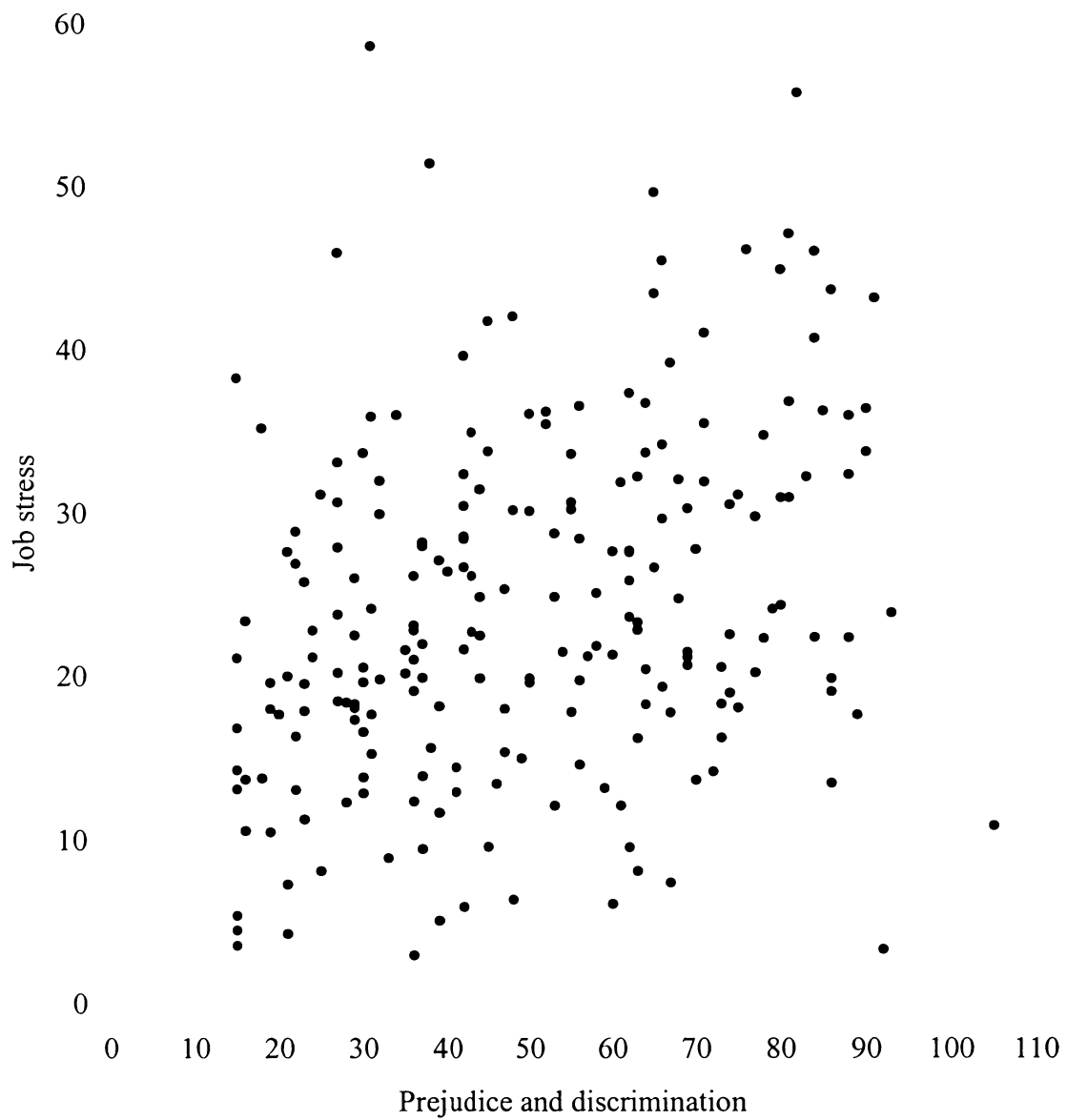


Figure 5. Scatter diagram of job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination.

shows a positive relationship or “high-high relationship” (Huck & Cormier, 1996, p. 55) between the two variables. The relationship was not a strong one because the oval shape formed by the dots in the scatter diagram appears to be wider rather than longer, a sign of a low relationship (Huck & Cormier). The visual analysis was confirmed as shown in Table 5; that is, the relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace was positive. The relationship was low, although significant ($r = .30, p < .01$).

Regarding the job stress subscales, job pressure showed no relationship to perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace ($r = .11, p = .10$). The relationship between lack of organizational support and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace showed to be positive and low though significant ($r = .35, p < .01$). Therefore, the second null hypothesis was not sustained for job stress and lack of organizational support, and it was sustained for job pressure.

Table 5 also depicts correlations between demographic variables and job stress, job pressure, lack of organizational support, and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. As shown, low and significant relationships were found between job stress and region of residence ($r = .18, p < .01$), job pressure and region of residence ($r = .14, p < .05$), lack of organizational support and region of residence ($r = .18, p < .01$), and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination and tenure ($r = .23, p < .01$).

Research Question Three

Research question Three asked whether or not perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace accounted for more variability of job stress than that

Table 5*Correlation Matrix for Scores and Demographic Variables*

Variables	1	2	3	4
1. Job stress	—			
2. Job pressure	—	—		
3. Lack of organizational support	—	—	—	
4. Prejudice and discrimination	.30**	.11	.35**	—
Age	-.02	.01	.01	.11
Education level	-.02	-.04	.02	.01
Employment status	.04	-.05	.13	.11
Ethnic diverse workplace	-.01	.01	-.01	.08
Gender	.12	.07	.07	.01
Immigrant status	.09	.08	.03	-.12
Region of residence	.18**	.14*	.18**	.07
Tenure	.01	.03	-.01	.26**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. *Note:* Because variables 2 and 3 are subscales of variable 1, correlations between these variables are not presented.

accounted for by demographic variables. To address this question null, hypothesis two was tested.

H₀₂: Prejudice and discrimination as measured by the WPDI does not account for more variability of job stress as measured by the JSS that that accounted for by the following demographic variables: age, education level, employment status, ethnic diverse workplace, gender, immigrant status, region of residence, and tenure, when considering all these demographic variables together.

A hierarchical regression tested this hypothesis. Hierarchical regression is a type of regression analysis in which a term or terms are added to the regression model in stages. At each stage changes in the coefficient of determination (R^2) are calculated. In

each step a hypothesis test is performed to determine whether the change in R^2 is significantly different from zero (Stockburger, n.d., Fitting Sequential Models section, ¶ 2). Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted for job stress, job pressure, and lack of organizational support. In the first step of the regression model, all demographic variables were entered; in the second step, perceptions of prejudice and discrimination were subsequently entered.

In regard to job stress, when demographic variables were combined, only region of residence showed to be significant ($\beta = .158, p = .023$) to job stress. The second step of the hierarchical regression model included perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. This variable added more variability to job stress above and beyond that added by demographic variables ($\Delta R^2 = .11, \Delta F = 26.698, p < .01$). Perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace accounted for 11.0% of additional variability in job stress, while demographic variables, considered together, only accounted for 5.2% of the variability in job stress. In the second step of the hierarchical regression, gender ($\beta = .136, p = .046$) showed to be significant to the model when perception of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and all demographic variables were present in the model. Table 6 depicts the results of the hierarchical regression for job stress.

In the first step of the hierarchical regression for job pressure, region of residence ($\beta = .148, p = .034$) showed to be significant to the model when the demographic variables were considered together. The increment in R^2 was not significant when perceptions of prejudice and discrimination were entered in the model ($\Delta R^2 = .014, \Delta F = 3.098, p = .08$). In the first step, all demographic variables were entered, they accounted

Table 6*Results of Hierarchical Regression for Job Stress*

Step	Predictor	ΔF	df	R^2	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β
Dependent variable:							
Job stress							
1	Age	1.418	8,205	.052	.015	.052	-.007
	Gender						.013
	Education level						.007
	Employment status						.044
	Tenure						.024
	Immigrant status						.098
	Ethnic diverse workplace						-.019
	Region of residence						.158 *
2	Prejudice and discrimination	26.698	1,204	.162	.125	.110	.351 *
	Age						.006
	Gender						.136 *
	Education level						-.008
	Employment status						.019
	Tenure						-.082
	Immigrant status						.129
	Ethnic diverse workplace						-.054
	Region of residence						.127

* $p < .05$

for 4% in the variability in job pressure. When perceptions of prejudice and discrimination were entered in the second step, they only contributed an additional 1.4% of the variability in job pressure. In the second step of the hierarchical regression, only region of residence ($\beta = .137, p = .049$) showed to be significant to the model that included perceptions of prejudice and discrimination and demographic variables. Table 7 depicts the results of the hierarchical regression for job pressure.

In reference to lack of organizational support in the first step of the hierarchical regression, employment status ($\beta = .161, p = .022$) and region of residence ($\beta = .139, p = .045$) showed to be significant to the model. In the first step the demographic variables, considered together, accounted for 5.8% of the variability in lack of organizational support. The increment in R^2 was significant when perceptions of prejudice and discrimination were entered in the model ($\Delta R^2 = .154, \Delta F = 39.852, p < .01$). In this case, perceptions of prejudice and discrimination added 15.4% to the variability in lack of organizational support. In the second step of the hierarchical regression model, perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace ($\beta = .351, p < .001$), and employment status ($\beta = .131, p = .042$) were significant to the model that included perceptions of prejudice and discrimination and demographic variables. Table 8 depicts the results of the hierarchical regression for lack of organizational support.

In synthesis, for job stress and for lack of organizational support, the second null hypothesis was not sustained; perceptions of prejudice and discrimination contributed to more of the variability in each of one these variables than that accounted for by the demographic variables. For job pressure, the null hypothesis was sustained; perceptions of prejudice and discrimination did not add more variability to job pressure than that

Table 7*Results of Hierarchical Regression for Job Pressure*

Step	Predictor	ΔF	df	R^2	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β
Dependent variable:							
Job pressure							
1	Age	1.080	8,205	.040	.003	.040	.026
	Gender						.060
	Education level						-.027
	Employment status						-.089
	Tenure						.019
	Immigrant status						.111
	Ethic diverse workplace						.007
	Region of residence						.148*
2	Prejudice and discrimination	3.098	1,204	.055	.013	.014	.127
	Age						.031
	Gender						.063
	Education level						-.033
	Employment status						-.098
	Tenure						-.019
	Immigrant status						.122
	Ethic diverse workplace						-.006
	Region of residence						.137*

* $p < .05$

Table 8*Results of Hierarchical Regression for Lack of Organizational Support*

Step	Predictor	ΔF	df	R^2	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	β
Dependent variable:							
Lack of organizational support							
1	Age	1.5868	8,205	.058	.021	.058	.004
	Gender						.084
	Education level						.027
	Employment status						.161 *
	Tenure						-.007
	Immigrant status						.018
	Ethic diverse workplace						.031
	Region of residence						.139 *
2	Prejudice and discrimination	39.852	1,204	.212	.177	.154	.416 *
	Age						.019
	Gender						.092
	Education level						.009
	Employment status						.131 *
	Tenure						-.133
	Immigrant status						.055
	Ethic diverse workplace						-.073
	Region of residence						.103

* $p < .05$

added by the demographic variables. Region of residence showed marginal effects in job stress, job pressure, and lack of organizational support when the rest of the demographic variables were present in the model. When perceptions of prejudice and discrimination was added to the model, gender showed a marginal effect on job stress; region of residence showed a marginal effect on job pressure, and employment status showed a marginal effect on lack of organizational support.

Research Question Four

Research question Four asked whether or not perceptions of prejudice and discrimination differed according to demographic characteristics of participants. To assess this question, hypothesis three was tested.

H₀₃: There are no differences in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace, as measured by the WPDI, regarding the following demographic variables: age, education level, employment status, ethnic diverse workplace, gender, immigrant status, region of residence, and tenure.

A factorial analysis of variance tested this hypothesis. As stated, factorial ANOVAs involve more than one independent variable. To test whether differences existed in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination regarding the demographic variables, only main effects, were tested. In this particular case, interest existed in finding differences in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination for each level of each demographic variable.

Factorial designs usually include the test of interaction effects. An interaction effect can be defined as the effects in the dependent variable of one independent variable depending on the levels of another independent variable (Neter, Kutner, Nachtsheim, &

Wasserman, 1996). No interaction effects were tested here. Table 9 presents mean values of perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace for each level (category) of each demographic variable.

The assumptions of ANOVA are (a) normal distribution of the dependent variable and (b) same degree of variability or homogeneity of variance across groups. As addressed previously, perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace was not normally distributed (*Kolmogorov-Smirnov* = .081, $p = .001$). In this particular case, the second assumption was tested using Levene's test of equality of variance. This test showed that the second assumption for ANOVA was fulfilled ($F = .841$, $p = .806$); homogeneity of variances existed across groups. Because one of the assumptions was fulfilled, it was decided to obtain a normal probability plot.

Figure 6 presents the obtained normal probability plot. This chart helped to determine how much the distribution of perceptions of prejudice and discrimination departure from a normal distribution. The plot showed some departures from the normal distribution, but it appeared that they could be considered as not extreme or drastic deviations. This analysis led to the decision of employing the ANOVA for testing hypothesis three.

Table 10 presents results of the factorial ANOVA. Main or significant effects in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace were found for two demographic variables: age ($F = 3.263$, $p = .02$) and tenure ($F = 4.767$, $p = .001$). Therefore, the null hypotheses was rejected for these two variables, meaning that differences on mean values of perceptions of prejudice and discrimination existed regarding age and tenure.

Table 9

*Prejudice and Discrimination Mean Values and Standard Deviations
by Demographic Variables*

Demographic Variable	Prejudice and Discrimination in the Workplace			
	Mean	SD	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Age				
21-30	40.9	17.1	36.0	45.8
31-40	53.6	21.6	49.6	57.7
41-50	51.6	24.3	44.6	58.7
51-60	43.6	22.8	27.3	59.9
Education level				
Bachelors degree	53.5	23.2	37.9	69.1
Masters degree	49.4	21.5	46.4	52.4
Doctorate degree	57.5	34.4	21.4	93.6
Employment status				
Employed	49.2	21.7	46.2	52.2
Unemployed	57.2	22.9	45.4	68.9
Ethnic diverse workplace				
Yes	49.5	21.7	46.5	52.5
No	56.5	23.0	43.8	69.3
Gender				
Male	49.8	22.5	45.9	53.6
Female	50.0	21.1	45.5	54.5
Immigrant status				
Born in the U.S.	52.3	20.9	48.5	56.0
Born outside the U.S.	46.8	22.8	42.2	51.5

(table continues)

Table 9 (*continued*)

Demographic Variable	Perception of Prejudice			
	Mean	SD	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Region of Residence				
Northeast	48.0	21.0	41.2	54.8
Midwest	47.6	21.6	42.0	53.2
South	50.4	21.7	45.1	55.7
West	55.3	22.7	48.6	62.0
Puerto Rico	28.3	13.7	6.4	50.1
Tenure				
Less than a year	39.7	19.6	34.2	45.2
1-3	49.2	21.4	44.3	54.1
4-10	55.2	20.8	49.6	60.8
11-15	54.5	20.9	42.4	66.6
16 or more	57.5	24.5	45.7	69.3

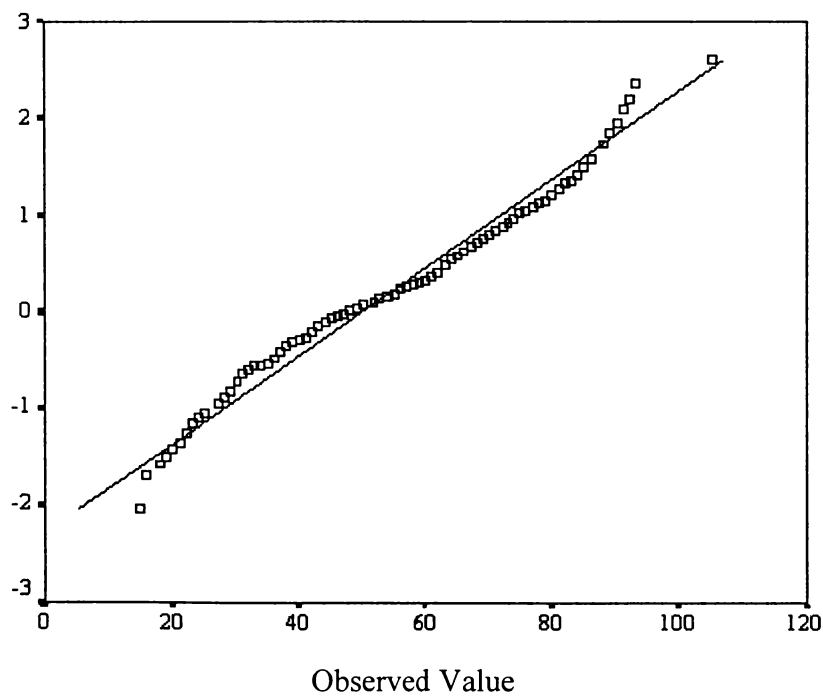
**Figure 6.** Normal probability plot for prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.

Table 10*ANOVA for Prejudice and Discrimination in the Workplace*

Source	Sums of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>
Age	4115.77	3	1371.92	3.263 *
Educational level	243.13	2	121.57	.289
Employment status	446.29	1	446.29	1.061
Ethnic diverse workplace	621.31	1	621.31	1.478
Gender	40.22	1	40.22	.096
Immigrant status	85.02	1	85.02	.202
Region of residence	2923.85	4	730.96	1.738
Tenure	8016.45	4	2004.11	4.767 *
Error	82409.62	196	420.46	—

* $p < .05$

Finding significant differences led to conducting multiple comparison tests or post hoc tests to determine those levels of age and tenure for which mean values of perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace differed. Pair comparison was the employed procedure for determining which means differed, particularly Tukey's honestly significant different (HSD) test. Table 11 presents results of the multiple comparison tests for age. Pair comparisons showed that a significant difference existed in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination between individuals aged 21 to 30 and individuals aged 31 to 40 ($D = -12.7, p < 0.05$). Table 12 depicts pair comparisons for tenure. Significant differences existed in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination between individuals whose tenures were less than a year and individuals whose tenures were between 4 and 10 years ($D = -15.5, p < .05$). Results also showed differences in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination between individuals whose tenures were less than a year and individuals whose tenures were 16 years or more ($D = -17.8, p < .05$).

Table 11*Multiple Comparison Test for Prejudice and Discrimination by Age*

Age Category	1	2	3	4
1. 21-30	—			
2. 31-40	-12.7 *	—		
3. 41-50	-10.7	2.0	—	
4. 51-60	-2.7	10.0	8.0	—

* $p < .05$. *Note:* Table shows mean differences between age categories**Table 12***Multiple Comparison Test for Prejudice and Discrimination by Tenure*

Tenure Category	1	2	3	4	5
1. Less than a year	—				
2. 1-3	-9.5	—			
3. 4-10	-15.5 *	-6.0	—		
4. 11-15	-14.8	-5.3	0.7	—	
5. 16 or more	-17.8 *	-8.3	-2.3	-3.0	—

* $p < .05$. *Note:* Table shows mean differences between tenure categories

Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has addressed the results of the study. A summary of these results has been addressed as follows:

1. Two-hundred and four individuals returned their surveys representing a 51% response rate. Fifteen individuals agreed to respond of the survey by telephone. The first group was identified as respondents, while the second group was identified as non-respondents.
2. No significant differences between respondents and non-respondents in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination, job stress, and the subscales of job pressure and lack of organizational support were found. Therefore, the statistical analyses included both respondents and non-respondents groups.
3. Perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace showed a positive and low, though significant, relationship to job stress and lack of organizational support.
4. Perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace accounted for more variability in job stress and lack of organizational support than that accounted for by demographic variables.
5. Region of residence showed marginal effects in job stress, job pressure, and lack of organizational support when the rest of the demographic variables were present in the model. When perceptions of prejudice and discrimination was entered in the model, gender showed a marginal effect on job stress; region of residence showed a marginal effect on job pressure, and employment status showed a marginal effect on lack of organizational support.
6. Age and tenure showed significant effects in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination.
7. Individuals whose ages were between 21 and 30 years differed in their perception of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace compared to individuals whose age ranged between 31 and 40 years.
8. Individuals whose tenure was less than one year differed in their perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace compared to individuals whose tenure ranged between 4 to 10 years and also to individuals whose tenure was 16 years or more.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

A national survey was conducted among members of the National Society of Hispanics Masters in Business Administrators (NSHMBAs). The purpose of the study was to investigate whether or not a relationship existed between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. The study also investigated whether or not perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace accounted for more variability on job stress than the amount of variability accounted for by demographic variables. The study also analyzed demographic differences in perception of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. This chapter presents conclusions about the demographic profile of participants and conclusions about each one of the research questions. Implications, some concerns about the study, and recommendations of the study are addressed in this chapter as well.

Demographic Profile of Participants

The majority of participants' age ranged between 31 to 40 years of age; the mean age of the participants was 36.4 years. Regarding education, 92% of the participants held masters degrees. As stated, this fact was due to the nature of the targeted population. Almost all of the participants were employed at the time the survey took place, although 7.8% of the participants reported being unemployed. The survey took place at a time when layoffs and recession were occurring. It was considered that cases of unemployment would have occurred among the sampled members. A way of including their responses in the study was by requesting unemployed participants to answer the instruments considering situations that they experienced in their previous jobs.

The majority of respondents (93%) worked in a workplace where other ethnic minority employees were working. The researcher used this demographic variable to assess whether or not individuals of other ethnic minorities, not just Hispanics, were working at the respondent's workplace. There was an adequate representation of women, who represented 40% of the total of participants. As for immigration status, 44% of participants were born abroad, and 56% of participants were born in the United States. Both immigrants and non-immigrants were almost equally represented within the overall participant group.

Different ranges of tenure were represented; 23% of the participants had tenure of less than a year; 35% had tenure of 1 to 3 years, and 26% had tenure of 4 to 10 years. It can be concluded that this group had tenure of less than 10 years, with a mean tenure of 5.8 years. Participants represented all geographical regions of the United States: 18% resided in the Northeast; 27% resided in the Midwest; 31% resided in the South; 21% resided in the West, and 2% of the respondents resided in Puerto Rico. The national distribution of Hispanics by region in 2000 as reported by the U.S. Census Bureau (2001b) was 14% in the Northeast, 8% in the Midwest, 33% in the South, and 45% in the West. Participants did not represent the geographical distribution of Hispanics in the United States. The Midwest was over-represented whereas the West was under-represented when comparing participants' distribution to the overall distribution of Hispanics in the United States.

Respondents and Non-Respondents

The analysis of respondents and non-respondents revealed whether or not differences in job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace

existed between these two groups. The MANOVA test showed that there were not significant differences between the two groups in job stress ($\mu_{\text{respondents}} = 24.1$, $\mu_{\text{non-respondents}} = 23.8$) or in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace ($\mu_{\text{respondents}} = 49.5$, $\mu_{\text{non-respondents}} = 54.7$). The analysis also included two job stress subscales: job pressure ($\mu_{\text{respondents}} = 28.1$, $\mu_{\text{non-respondents}} = 27.9$) and lack of organizational support ($\mu_{\text{respondents}} = 23.7$, $\mu_{\text{non-respondents}} = 23.1$).

Individuals who did not respond the survey were requested to respond by telephone to compare how much their answers differed from those answers of the respondents to the survey. Finding no significant differences between the two groups showed that non-respondents had similar perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and job stress to those held by individuals who returned their completed surveys. A conclusion of this analysis was that answers of respondents appeared to be not significantly biased and likely represented a similar trend with those individuals who did not respond to the survey.

Reliability of the Workplace Prejudice and Discrimination Inventory

Research question One questioned whether or not the Workplace Prejudice and Discrimination Inventory (WPDI) was a reliable measure for assessing perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. This question was addressed because only in two studies researchers reported have been employed the WPDI (James, 1994; James, Lovato & Khoo, 1994). Among participants in the study, the WPDI showed adequate reliability ($\alpha = 0.93$), the same value reported by the instrument's authors (James, Lovato, & Cropanzano, 1994, p.1586). Therefore, the WPDI proved to be a reliable instrument for assessing perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.

Job Stress and Perceptions of Prejudice and Discrimination

Research question Two asked whether or not perceptions of prejudice and discrimination was related to job stress. Obtained correlation coefficients showed a positive, low, and significant relationship between perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and job stress. This result supported theoretical suggestions of a direct relationship between perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and job stress found in the literature (Comas-Diaz, 1997; Knouse et al., 1992). A low-positive relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice in the workplace has been supported by similar empirical findings (Gutierrez et al., 1994; James, Lovato, & Khoo, 1994; Mays et al., 1996; Perez, 1998; Sanchez & Brock, 1996).

The researcher inferred that job stress significantly increased as perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace increased, though the relationship was not a strong one. The theoretical framework used for this study, the general model of occupational stress (Beehr & Newman, 1978), conceptualized job stress as a multifaceted phenomenon. The model suggested that perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace partially, but not solely, would explain job stress. Additional factors like personality traits, coping mechanisms, and organizational culture among others, are elements that could have an impact on work related stress as well. The relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace could be mediated by such factors as an individual with high self-esteem and healthy coping mechanisms experiencing less discrimination and less job stress than an individual with low self-esteem and unhealthy coping mechanisms. The mediator is an

outside factor not the perception of being discriminated against or job stress, but an additional element possibly having a direct positive or negative impact on both and on their direct relationship. Despite the low level of the relationship, it can be concluded that, in fact, for the group of participants, perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace directly related to job stress.

Concerning the job stress subscales, the relationship between job pressure and perception of discrimination in the workplace was not significant. However, the relationship between lack of organizational support and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace was significant, although there was not a strong relationship. This result was interpreted as perception of prejudice and discrimination being related to aspects of job stress due to lack of organizational support rather than aspects of job stress due to pressures of the job. In other words, perceptions of prejudice of discrimination related to aspects such as difficulty getting along with supervisor, lack of opportunity for advancement, experiencing negative attitudes towards the organization, lack of participation in policy making decisions, and poor or inadequate supervision, among others. All of these are aspects of the lack of organizational support subscale as assessed by the Job Stress Survey (JSS, Spielberger & Vagg, 1999).

On the other hand, perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace were not related to aspects such as assignment of new or unfamiliar duties, dealing with crisis situations, performing tasks not in the job description, or assignments of increased responsibility among others. These aspects are included as items of the job pressure subscale as assessed by the JSS (Spielberger & Vagg). The researcher interpreted these results as perceptions of being discriminated against having a direct impact on stressor

events related to lack of support and not impacting aspects of work related stress that dealt with job specific demands. This result appeared to contribute to the validity of the WPDI by showing a significant relationship to a variable that measured a comparable construct.

*The Effect of Perceptions of Prejudice
and Discrimination on Job Stress*

Research question Three inquired whether or not perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace accounted for more variability in job stress than that accounted for by the demographic variables. The results of the hierarchical regression showed that perceived prejudice and discrimination in the workplace predicted job stress above and beyond the demographic variables.

This finding was supported by similar findings from other researchers. Sanchez and Brock (1996) found that perceived discrimination accounted for more variability in job stress than demographic variables (number of dependents, gender, growing up in the United States). In their study, salary and job experience equally impacted job stress along with perceptions of discrimination. James, Lovato, and Khoo (1994) found that the impact of perceptions of prejudice and discrimination on job stress was greater than that accounted for by demographic variables (age and weight). Mays et al. (1996) found that the addition of discrimination to their regression model significantly increased the prediction of job stress. These authors found significant prediction effects of age, education and occupation on job stress.

The results showed that the perception of being prejudiced and discriminated in the workplace had a greater influence on job stress than did demographic factors

combined. Demographic variables did not contribute to the variability of job stress. This result suggested that other demographic factors, not assessed in the study, could have contributed to the variability in job stress to a similar degree or to a greater degree than that contributed by perceptions of prejudice and discrimination. Factors such as salary, position, and seniority, among others, were not investigated. These factors could have had an influence on job stress equal or above and beyond perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.

In the first step of the hierarchical regression, although the model including all the demographic variables was not significant in explaining job stress, only region of residence had a modest although significant effect on job stress. In the second step of the hierarchical regression, once perception of prejudice and discrimination had been entered in the model, gender showed a modest although significant effect on the model for predicting job stress. These results can be interpreted as job stress varying among regions and as gender contributing to the variability of job stress when perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and the rest of the demographic variables were present in the model.

Concerning the job stress subscales, the hierarchical regression showed that neither the demographic variables nor perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace explained the variability of job pressure; however, perceptions prejudice and discrimination explained the variability in lack of organizational support. Demographic variables and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace did not affect job demands; however perceptions of prejudice and discrimination affected the perception of not being sufficiently supported within the organization. For job pressure,

the first and second steps of the hierarchical regression showed a modest effect for region. This result was interpreted as job demands varying among geographical regions. Employment status and region of residence had some effect on lack of organizational support. Lack of organizational support varied between employed and unemployed participants as well as among geographical regions when the rest of the demographic variables and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace were present in the model.

Demographic Differences on Perceptions of Prejudice and Discrimination

Two of the eight demographic variables had significant effects on perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace; these two variables were age and tenure. Regarding age, individuals aged 21 to 30 and individuals aged 31 to 40 significantly differed in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination. In this particular case, the first group perceived less prejudice and discrimination in the workplace ($\mu = 40.9$) than the second group ($\mu = 53.6$). In regarding tenure, individuals whose tenure was 4 to 10 years and more than 16 years perceived greater prejudice and discrimination in the workplace ($\mu = 55.2$, and $\mu = 57.5$) than individuals whose tenure was less than a year ($\mu = 39.7$).

The relationship between age and discrimination appeared to be curvilinear, not linear (i.e., perceptions of prejudice and discrimination did not increase as age increased). On the contrary, from a lower value of 40.9, perceptions of prejudice and discrimination reached a maximum of 53.6 at ages 31 to 40, then they decreased to 51.6 for the age range of 41 to 50, and 43.6 for the age range of 51 to 60. This trend could be corroborated by the non-significant correlation found between age and perceptions of prejudice and

discrimination in the workplace ($r = .11$). The nature of the relationship between age and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace needs further investigation.

Some suggestions found in the literature pointed out that tenure could mitigate perceptions of prejudice and discrimination (Amason et al., 1999; Harrison et al., 1998) because people's interactions over time could reduce prejudice (Harrison et al.). Contrary to these observations, the results of the study showed that the relationship between perceptions of prejudice and discrimination and tenure was a direct relationship ($r = .26$, $p < .01$). Individuals whose tenure was equal or greater than 16 years reported the highest level of perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. This result suggested that high levels of perceptions of prejudice regarding the highest tenures were not due to participants not having enough time exposure to organizational climates and cultures. A possible explanation for this finding was that perceptions of prejudice and discrimination regarding tenure might be related to perceptions of barriers to career advancement within the organization.

This finding appeared to be supported by results of a study conducted by Landau (1995), who found that race significantly related to promotion potential and that tenure negatively related to promotion potential. Researchers who investigated promotion potential differences between White and African American managers found differences in opportunities for advancement between groups (Greenhaus et al., 1990; James, 2000).

The relationship between perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and tenure has potential for additional research. How Hispanic professionals perceive treatment discrimination in promotion systems might explain the differences that

the researcher found in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace regarding tenure.

Concerns About the Study

After presenting the results the researcher wanted to address some concerns about the study. These concerns were as follows:

1. Although an overall 51% response was obtained, an additional 45% of NSHMBA members did not participate in the study at all (individuals answering the survey by telephone represented 4% of the total sampled group). Their perceptions of job stress and prejudice and discrimination in the workplace remain unknown, as well as the effect that these perceptions would have had in the results of the study. However, the fact that respondents and non-respondents did not differ in their perceptions of job stress and prejudice and discrimination in the workplace suggested that responses to the survey were not significantly biased.
2. Limited empirical evidence of studies researching the relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace offered few studies for comparing results. Comparisons yielded similar conclusions of a low relationship between job stress prejudice and discrimination. Studies reporting contrary results could have offered additional explanations to the job stress-discrimination relationship.
3. The multi-faceted nature of job stress (Beehr & Newman, 1978) includes several possible influencing factors. The study analyzed only the relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and some demographic variables.
4. The low relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace suggested that prejudice and discrimination explained job stress, but the explanatory effect was not as strong as that suggested by Comas-Diaz (1997). Different factors of job stress above and beyond perceptions of prejudice and discrimination need further investigation.
5. The lack of influence of the demographic variables on job stress suggested that these variables did not contribute to the variability of job stress but this result did not signify that demographic aspects did not influence job stress at all. Additional demographic factors need further investigation.

Implications

From the findings of the study, the researcher has inferred that perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace are related to job stress. This perception accounted for more variability in job stress above and beyond the variability accounted for by demographic variables. The study contributed to existing knowledge by focusing on Hispanics, one of the least researched groups in organizational literature and one of the fastest growing groups in the American workforce. The study also added to the existing studies researching the relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. Literature on job stress indicated perceptions of prejudice and discrimination as a possible explanation for job stress among Hispanic employees. Results of the study indicated a low relationship between perceptions of prejudice and discrimination and work related stress, implying that perceptions of prejudice and discrimination could be only one explanatory factor among various factors explaining job stress among Hispanic employees.

Findings of the study had some practical implications for organizations in general and for human resource development in particular. Findings of the study could imply that initiatives for ethnic diversity awareness are adequate, if such initiatives aim to reduce perceptions of discrimination and prejudicial behavior within organizations. Of particular importance was the finding that perception of discrimination in the workplace related to lack of organizational support, that is, non-supportive work relationships and non-supportive organizational policies showed a direct effect on perceptions of prejudice and discrimination.

Job stress has been shown to affect employee's health and productivity. This study showed that perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace were related to job stress, implying that these perceptions also could adversely influence employee's health and productivity.

Human resource practitioners can refer to valuable tools for assessing perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace such as questionnaires, interviews, and focus groups. When such perceptions are detected, initiatives can be taken to solve potential aspects that can induce employees' job stress. Inclusive management can be an adequate response against prejudicial and discriminatory practices in the workplace. As Ballard (2001) aptly observed, "[The role of supervisors] in maintaining a "hostility-free" work environment for all employees is essential" (p. 40).

Results of the study showed that participants with the highest tenure level perceived more prejudice and discrimination in the workplace than did the rest of the participants. A possible explanation for this finding was the perception among this group of discriminatory treatment in career advancement. Career satisfaction has been related to promotion potential (Landau, 1995). This result could imply that participants with more tenure may experience less career satisfaction than participants with less tenure. Limited or lack of promotional opportunities can result in resentment and turnover (James, 2000). Some organizations might need to review their diversity policies and consider that their upper level management might require participation of ethnic minority employees with demonstrated leadership capabilities. By doing so, American organizations would address the challenge of creating a more diverse labor force at the upper management level (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990).

The human resource development field offers other initiatives like corporate training. Programs covering aspects such as leadership skills or diversity awareness, among others, could include curricula on addressing prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. Leadership skills programs that focus on more inclusive and participative approaches could assist in reducing employees' perceptions of prejudice and discrimination. In recent years, diversity training has been incorporated into existing training programs (Ensher et al., 2001). The direct impact of perceptions of workplace prejudice and discrimination on job stress should be part of curricula discussed in diversity programs. The assessment of prejudice and discrimination could be an adequate guideline for evaluating the success of diversity programs (Sanchez & Brock, 1996). Curricula focusing on job stress management also should address the direct effect that perceptions of prejudice and discrimination play in the dynamics of job stress.

Recommendations for Future Research

Results, conclusions, and limitations of the study suggested various recommendations for future research. These recommendations were

1. The low relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace suggested that additional factors such as personality traits, and level of acculturation among others might incorporate additional explanatory effects to the dynamic of job stress among Hispanic professionals. Such factors need further investigation.
2. The lack of influence of the demographic variables on job stress suggested that these variables did not contribute to the variability of job stress. This obtained result does not signify that demographic aspects do not influence job stress at all. Additional demographic factors such as seniority, income, position, or type of industry-- not included in this study-- and their possible influence on job stress need further investigation as well.
3. Studies targeting Hispanic employees with diverse educational and occupational backgrounds are needed. The majority of the participants of this

study held masters degrees. Studies with a population more diverse in terms of education are needed.

4. The study analyzed only what can be considered ethnic or race-based discrimination. The nature of the relationship between job stress and a general perception of being prejudiced and discriminated, not just race-based, needs to be investigated further.
5. Studies researching additional environmental factors such as organizational culture or leadership styles of individuals supervising Hispanic employees could lead to additional understanding of the relationship between job stress and perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.
6. The nature of the relationship between perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and age needs further investigation.
7. Differences found, in perceptions of prejudice and discrimination regarding tenure, appear to be related to career development and to promotion potential. The relationship between prejudice and discrimination in the workplace and tenure has potential for additional research.
8. In general, studies researching Hispanics in the workplace are needed. These studies could investigate job stress, prejudice and discrimination in the workplace, or other factors related to different job outcomes. Each of these studies could add to the body of knowledge in researching Hispanics, the fastest growing ethnic minority group in the American workforce.

Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, the researcher addressed the conclusions, the recommendations, and the implications of the study. She also addressed some concerns regarding results of the study. Implications of these results for organizational practices in general and human resource development initiatives in particular were discussed as well. The researcher offered various suggestions for future research deriving from this study. The conducted study has added to the body of knowledge on the relationship between job stress and workplace prejudice and discrimination and to the body of knowledge on Hispanic employees.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

United States Census Bureau States by Region

U.S. Census Bureau

States By Region Listing

Region I: Northeast

Connecticut
Main
Massachusetts
New Hampshire
Rhode Island

Vermont
New Jersey
New York
Pennsylvania

Region II: Midwest

Indiana
Illinois
Michigan
Ohio
Wisconsin
Iowa

Kansas
Minnesota
Missouri
Nebraska
North Dakota
South Dakota

Region III: South

Delaware
District of Columbia
Florida
Georgia
Maryland
North Carolina
South Carolina
Virginia
West Virginia

Alabama
Kentucky
Mississippi
Tennessee
Arkansas
Louisiana
Oklahoma
Texas

Region IV: West

Arizona
Colorado
Idaho
New Mexico
Montana
Utah
Nevada

Wyoming
Alaska
California
Hawaii
Oregon
Washington

Appendix B
Forward Electronic Mail Message

Dear {{Prefix}} {{Last Name}}:

I am a doctoral student at the University of Tennessee. As part of my dissertation, I am conducting a survey to assess whether members of NSHMBAS are experiencing high levels of job stress. The study will also assess, to what degree if any, stress level is associated with perception of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.

Within the next few days, you will receive a request to participate in my survey. For that purpose, you will receive an envelope containing the survey material along with a stamped, addressed envelope. If you have any questions or concerns feel free to contact me.

It would contribute greatly toward my graduate studies if you could assist me in this matter. I thank you for your attention, and highly appreciate your participation in my study.

Sincerely,
Maria G. Rodriguez
Ph D. Student
Department of Human Resource Development
(865)-974-4466

xc. Dr. Ernest W. Brewer
Major Professor

Appendix C

Survey's Cover Letter

November 28, 2001

«Prefix» «First_Name» «Last_Name»
«Address_1»
«Address_2»
«City», «State» «Zip»

Dear «Prefix» «Last_Name»:

As I informed you by e-mail, you were selected as a potential participant of a study that is being conducted at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville to assess whether members of the National Society of Hispanic MBAS are experiencing high levels of job stress. The study will investigate the degree, if any, in which such levels are associated with perceptions of prejudice and discrimination in the workplace. Participation in this study will require for you to answer two enclosed questionnaires and a demographic profile. If you are currently unemployed, please respond both questionnaires according to what you were experiencing in your most recent job.

In order that the results of the study truly represent the thinking of members of the NSHMBAS, it is important that each questionnaire and the demographic profile are completed in full and returned in the provided self-stamped envelope by January 15.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. Each questionnaire and the demographic profile have an identification number for mailing purposes only. This is so that we may check your name off the mailing list when your questionnaires are returned. Your name will never be placed on the questionnaires or the profile themselves. Upon completion of the study, we will be glad to provide you with a summary of the research findings. Please indicate in the demographic profile whether or not you would be interested in receiving this summary.

I realize that your schedule is busy and your time is valuable. However, I hope the short time that it takes you complete and return the enclosed materials will lead to further insight into perceptions of NSHMBAS members of today's work environment.

I would be happy to answer any question you may have about this study. You may contact me at (865)-946-8166 or via e-mail at mrodrigu@utk.edu.

Your assistance in this study is highly appreciated. Thank you in advance for your participation.
Por su participación muchas gracias.

Sincerely,

Maria G. Rodriguez
Doctoral Candidate

cc: Dr. Ernest W. Brewer
Major Professor

P.S. I have enclosed a small token as a way for saying thanks!

Appendix D
Follow-up Electronic Mail Messages

First Follow-up Message

Dear {{Prefix}} {{Last Name}}:

On November 29th, I mailed to you a Job Stress Survey. If you have already completed and returned the survey, thank you very much. Each set of questionnaires that is filled out and returned contributes enormously towards my dissertation.

If you have not received the survey materials and will like to participate, reply to this message indicating your current address.

I appreciate your attention to this message and wish you the best for the Holidays.

Sincerely,
Maria Rodriguez
(865)-946-8166

xc: Dr. Ernest W. Brewer
Major Professor

Second Follow-up Message

Dear {{Prefix}} {{Last Name}}:

January 15 is the deadline for responding to the Job Stress Survey. If you have recently completed/returned the questionnaires, please ignore this final request for your participation.

Consider that responding to the questionnaires should only take you about 20 minutes. In any case, I appreciate your attention to this matter.

Wishing you a good year,

Maria Rodriguez
(865)-946-8166

xc: Dr. Ernest W. Brewer
Major Professor

Appendix E

Electronic Mail Requesting Telephone Participation in the Survey

Dear {{Prefix}} {{Last Name}}:

The methodology of my study requires that I conduct a survey with those NSHMBA members who did not respond before the survey's deadline.

The reason for this message is to request that you allow me to interview you over the phone to answer the survey's questionnaires. This process should take about twenty minutes. Your answers will be kept confidential; you can be assured of complete anonymity.

Interviews will be conducted February 4-8. I understand that your work schedule is extremely busy; therefore I propose to conduct the interview after a regular work schedule, that is evenings from 5-9 pm.

If you wish to participate please reply to this e-mail as follows:

Phone number: (area code)-phone number

Time Zone:

Proposed times for interview (three):

(For instance: Monday 7:00, Tuesday 8:30, Friday 6:00)

Thank you very much if you have already returned the questionnaires. In such case, please ignore this request.

As before I appreciate your attention to this issue.

Sincerely,

Maria Rodriguez
Ph. D. Candidate
(865)-946-8166

xc: Dr. Ernest W. Brewer
Major Professor

Appendix F
Permissions

Permission for Using the Workplace Prejudice and Discrimination Inventory

From: Keith James
To: Maria Rodriguez
Subject: RE: Perceived Discrimination Scale

Dear Maria: You have my permission to use the Workplace Prejudice and Discrimination Inventory in your dissertation without cost. I only ask that you please provide me with a summary of that part of the results of your study that involve the inventory. I try to keep track of how scores on it relate to other constructs for long-term validation purposes.

Permission for Using the Meta-model of Occupational Stress Diagram

Permission is granted to include the diagram mentioned. Please be sure to reference Vol. 31, No. 4, the page number, title and author. If you need any further information, please let me know.

Good luck with your dissertation!

Jenny Domanski
Assistant Managing Editor

From: Maria Rodriguez
To: ppsych@personnelpsychology.com
Subject: Permission

Dear Sir or Madam,

My name is Maria Rodriguez I am a Ph. D. student at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

In 1978 in volume 31 on page 676 you published a diagram of T.A. Beehr and J. E. Newman called "General model of job stress". I would like to include such diagram in my dissertation.

Thank you so much for your attention to this message.

Maria Rodriguez
Doctoral Candidate
Human Resource Development

Appendix G
Demographic Questionnaire

Demographic Questionnaire

Instructions: Please check the answers that are appropriate to your situation

Age ☐ 21-30 ☐ 31-40 ☐ 41-50 ☐ 51-60 ☐ 61 or more

Gender ☐ Male ☐ Female

Education Highest education degree received:

- ☐ Bachelors
- ☐ Masters
- ☐ Doctorate

Employment ☐ Employed ☐ Unemployed

Tenure Years working for current employer:

- ☐ Less than a year
- ☐ 1-3 years
- ☐ 4-10 years
- ☐ 11-15 years
- ☐ 16 years or more

Country of origin

- ☐ United States
- ☐ Other, please specify

Ethnic Diverse Workplace

In your understanding, do members of ethnic minorities (Blacks, Asians, Hispanics, etc.) work where you work?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Are you interested in receiving a summary of the findings of the study?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

VITA

Maria Guadalupe Rodriguez Gomez del Campo was born in Mexico City. She is the second daughter of Rigoberto Rodriguez and Soledad Gomez del Campo. She is married to James A. Calcagno III.

She attended the Universidad Nacional Autonoma de México where she received a Bachelor's Degree in Actuarial Science. She earned a Master's Degree in Human Resource Development from the Universidad Iberoamericana in Mexico City and completed a titled *An exploratory Analysis of Retirement from a Human Development Perspective*.

Her professional career has included working 7 years in the area of human resources, particularly in compensation and benefits. She also worked 3 years in the computer systems field. Before coming to the United States she worked one year at the Universidad Iberoamericana as a research assistant, where she was involved in a research project that analyzed the relationship between locus of control and depression in women during the last phase of their pregnancies.

She also has 10 years of teaching experience. Currently she is a Graduate Teaching Associate at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville in the Department of Human Resource Development. She is instructor of an introductory computer course for human ecology majors. She also works for the Pre-College Upward Bound Program where she has been Spanish instructor for four consecutive academic years. In April of 2000 she received the Outstanding Human Resource Development Graduate Student Award, and in April of 2001 she received the Outstanding Graduate Teaching Assistant Award from the same department.

