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Faculty of Color at the Kentucky Community and Technical College System: A Survey of Ethnic Diversity, Geographic Location, and Personal Perspectives

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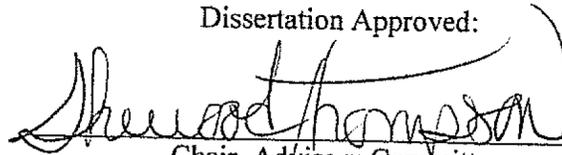
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FACULTY OF COLOR AT KENTUCKY'S COMMUNITY COLLEGES:
A SURVEY OF ETHNIC DIVERSITY, GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION,
AND PERSONAL PERSPECTIVES

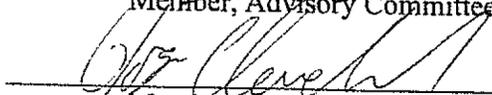
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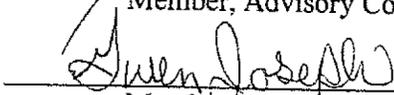
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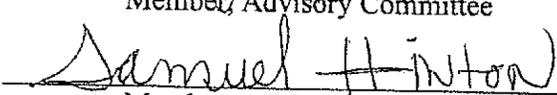
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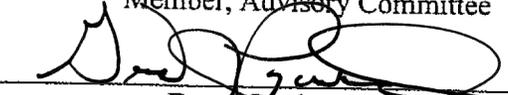

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FACULTY OF COLOR AT THE KENTUCKY COMMUNITY AND
TECHNICAL COLLEGE SYSTEM: A SURVEY OF ETHNIC DIVERSITY,
GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION, AND PERSONAL PERSPECTIVES

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Doctorate of Education
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2016

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of
Eastern Kentucky University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of
DOCTORATE OF EDUCATION
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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family and friends for their support, encouragement, and belief in me to begin and complete this journey. Thank you for listening to what must have seemed like endless moaning and groaning.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my major professor, Dr. Sherwood Thompson, for his guidance, patience, and continued support. I would also like to thank the other committee members, Dr. Tara Shepperson, Dr. Roger Cleveland, Dr. Samuel Hinton, and Dr. Gwen Joseph, for their valuable comments and assistance over the last several years. I would like to express my thanks to a dear friend and colleague, Nancy, for pushing and encouraging me when I didn't think I could take another step. I want to thank my parents, who are not here to see me complete this part of my journey, but who instilled in me the love of learning and provided me with the tools to undertake unknown challenges. Finally, I give my greatest thanks to God, without whom I could not have done this.

ABSTRACT

Rural universities and colleges with traditionally homogeneous ethnic and cultural populations have to work especially hard to ensure faculty diversity. Despite efforts to increase the number of faculty of color in Kentucky's statewide system of community colleges, minority representation remains proportionally low, especially on the state's rural college campuses. The purpose of this study was to investigate how faculty of color in the Kentucky Community and Technical College System (KCTCS) perceived their work climate and resident communities in order to distinguish if these faculty members were content and therefore more inclined to remain at their jobs and offer the degree of diversity sought for the community college system.

Specifically, the study involved sending online surveys to 242 full and part-time faculty of color employed at a KCTCS college. Responses were then tabulated presenting descriptive statistics on faculty of color locations around the state and their perceptions about the diversity of their work and home communities. Additionally, analyses of variances (ANOVAs) were conducted to separate the faculty of color into groups based on (a) their ethnicity, (b) personal characteristics, (c) professional attributes, and (d) geographic location within the state.

Correlation analyses revealed that the only statistically significant differences in perception of work climate and community environment were: significantly more negative perception on community environment for the age group of 30-39 years old compared to those who were 60 years or older, and significantly more negative perception on work climate for those who were divorced as compared to those who were married and those who had deceased spouses. There were no statistically

significant differences in perception of work climate and community environment between the different groups by place of childhood upbringing, and between the different groups by setting before current college.

The study's contribution to knowledge about faculty of color in Kentucky's community colleges is related to addressing diversity issues and support for their full-time educational staff. The findings may indicate a need for Kentucky colleges and universities to pay greater attention to factors associated with tenure for faculty of color, and ensure equity of work assignments across ethnicities in order to avoid creating extra obstacles. Additional research, specifically a qualitative research design, would be useful in elaborating upon the findings of the present study.

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CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

Civil rights imperatives, federal requirements, state initiatives, institutional recruitment, and overall social changes resulted in increasingly diverse student populations at institutions of higher education (Heilig, Reddick, Hamilton, & Dietz, 2011; Phillip, 2011). Nationally, institutions of higher education have not hired or retained faculty of color at a level reflecting the overall population in the United States (U.S.) (Bunzel, 1990; Glazer, 2003; Logan, 1997; Plata, 1996; Smith, 2000). Historically, Kentucky reported very low numbers of faculty of color and staff at colleges and universities, which resulted in court ordered desegregation from 1982 to 1995 (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2007). The federally mandated *Kentucky Plan* was implemented and increased minority hiring by requiring the state's colleges and universities to increase the number and proportion of African American faculty and staff to mirror the levels of the local population (Council on Postsecondary Education, 1999).

Universities and colleges in rural locations with traditionally low ethnic and cultural diversity have had to work especially hard to ensure faculty diversity. Faculty diversity is critical for providing positive role models, support resources, and mentoring for minority students as well as for exposing non-minority students to diverse perspectives (Isaac & Boyer, 2007; Jayakumar, Howard, Allen, & Han, 2009). In addition, ethnically diverse faculty can contribute to institutional and societal transformation by educating a future workforce who understands intercultural and

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international dynamics and is prepared to work in a global society and economy (Mamiseishvili, 2011).

Rationale and Significance of the Study

Kentucky's history of limited diversity has traditionally extended to higher education including community colleges, where diversity can have a strong impact on the future and where positive changes can occur. The needs of today's workforce require institutions of higher education to produce graduates prepared to work in diverse environments and who have the ability to think critically and creatively. The nation's campuses are ideal living laboratories for developing these culturally competent graduates (Smith & Schonfeld, 2000). Though the legislation to increase diversity in higher education has been in place for decades and has been adhered to, the requirements were unduly limited to a sole focus on increasing African Americans in institutions of education and were not inclusive of a broader group of minorities. In Kentucky, the sole focus on increasing African American representation in higher education institutions was the result of the court ordered desegregation plan. The *Commonwealth of Kentucky Higher Education Desegregation Plan*, created to speak to Kentucky's violation of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, specifically addressed the admission status of Kentucky African American students, the employment of African American faculty, staff, and administrators in state controlled postsecondary institutions, and evaluated the improvement of Kentucky State University, the state's historically black university (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2008).

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In addition to a narrow definition of diversity, there are other factors that can affect diversity efforts. Research suggested that faculty of color employed in higher education often left or changed jobs due to underlying institutional climates at odds with their ethnic identity (Jayakumar et al., 2009). Further, research on workplace climate and its impact on faculty of color showed that community – where faculty live and raise their families – was a factor that influenced levels of satisfaction in the workplace (Isaac & Boyer, 2007; Joseph & Hirshfield, 2011; Ponjuan, Conley, & Trower, 2011).

Community satisfaction can be an important factor for individuals living in rural areas because of the social supports (friends and family) found and maintained in smaller communities (Kulig et al., 2009). These authors reported that social supports affect community satisfaction by influencing a person's sense of community and belongingness. There is little research available that addresses the level of satisfaction Kentucky Community and Technical College System (KCTCS) faculty of color have with their workplace and community environments. Much of the literature focusing on faculty of color's job satisfaction acknowledges community satisfaction as a factor contributing to faculty satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the work-place climate.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate how faculty of color in the Kentucky Community and Technical College System (KCTCS) perceived their work climate and their community in terms of diversity. In this study, faculty of color refers to college faculty who identified themselves as American Indian/Alaskan Native, Asian, Black/African American, Hispanic/Latino, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, Nonresident

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Alien, and two or more races. A survey was used to seek an understanding of the degree to which faculty of color experienced their workplace and home community to be diverse and/or supportive of diversity. A community that is supportive of diversity is one that promotes an inclusive culture rather than an exclusive culture and promotes social integration rather than isolation (Douglas, 2006). In addition, this study provides current data on the makeup of faculty of color within KCTCS and how they identified themselves ethnically and culturally. Results offer personal perceptions from faculty of color viewpoints, including opinions about both work and home settings, as well as provide comparisons between rural and urban locations and comparisons between different ethnic identities.

Research Questions

The over-arching research question guiding this study was: Do faculty of color find Kentucky community colleges and neighboring communities to be diverse and/or supportive of diversity by promoting an inclusive culture rather than an exclusive culture and promoting social integration rather than isolation (Douglas, 2006)?

Specific questions to be answered are:

1. What are the personal and professional characteristics of full-time faculty self-identified as being faculty of color employed by KCTCS including a) background and ethnicity, b) marital status and presence of dependent children, and c) employment and position?
2. To what extent do faculty of color perceive their work climate and home community to be diverse and/or supportive of diversity?

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3. Are there differences in faculty of color perceptions of diversity based on ethnicity and/or other personal or professional characteristics?
4. Are there differences in faculty of color perceptions of diversity based on geographic location and/or environment?

Background to the Study

Campus Diversity

Underrepresentation of faculty of color continues despite efforts to diversify college campuses. As of 2008, ethnic minorities represented less than 20% of all university and college faculty (Taylor, Apprey, Hill, McGrann, & Wang, 2010). In addition, faculty of color were more often clustered at the lower academic ranks that include instructor and lecturer rankings (Allen, Epps, Guillory, Suh, & Bonous-Hammarth, 2000). Further, difficulties were noted in recruiting and retaining faculty of color, and some studies suggested lingering discrepancies in salaries, heavier teaching loads, limited socialization/mentoring opportunities, and general patterns of discrimination (Allen et al., 2000; Daufin, 2001; Johnson, 1997; Phillips, 2002; Rowe, 1993). Yet, literature supports the value of ethnic faculty of color on college campuses. They serve as role models for minority students, provide for diverse interaction and exchange of perspectives, and expose students to members of the diverse global community (Bollinger, 2007; Smith & Schonfeld, 2000; Young & Chamley, 1990).

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The Kentucky Plan and Diversity in Higher Education

Prior to 1954, Kentucky practiced a de jure segregated system of higher education. On an order from the U.S. Office of Civil Rights (OCR), Kentucky was mandated to develop a desegregation plan that would bring the state into compliance with Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The desegregation plan, initially known as the *Kentucky Plan*, was revised several times and is currently entitled the *Strategic Plan for Kentucky Higher Education*. The newest plan's emphasis is on developing educated Kentucky citizens who value learning as well as providing equal opportunities, promoting economic development, and enhancing the quality of life for Kentuckians. Kentucky's desegregation plan is no longer court ordered, but is now a voluntary plan with a focus on providing equal access to higher education and goals for employment of faculty and staff of all ethnicities (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2007).

The most recent data available from a 2008 Council on Postsecondary Education report indicated that employment of African Americans in Kentucky's higher education system slightly improved in all employment categories. The report showed that between 1979 and 2006, there was a 4.2% increase in the employment of African American executives, administrators, and managers. Individuals employed in the staff category increased by 202%, professional staff employment rose by 2.6%, and faculty employment increased by 2.3% (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2008).

Starting in December 2007, educational institutions were required to change the manner in which racial and ethnic data were collected and reported to the Department of Education. Collection and reporting methodologies were changed in order for the Department of Education to implement the Office of Management and Budget's 1997

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Standards for Maintaining, Collecting, and Presenting Federal Data on Race and Ethnicity (1997 Standards). The new process required educational institutions to ask a two-part question: 1) Are you Hispanic or Latino? and 2) Select one or more of the following races: American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, and White. This new reporting category afforded two advantages – alleviating double reporting of individuals identifying with multiple races and reducing the amount of paperwork used in reporting because the categories are the same as those used by other government agencies receiving aggregate educational data (Department of Education, 2007).

Local Ties of Community Colleges

More than other institutions of higher education, community colleges are intrinsically tied to their local communities. They often serve as a starting point for both young and older adult learners to advance their education, they offer job training and mobility to workers, they offer programs for continuing education and community cultural enrichment, and they offer workforce development that is often linked to the specific needs of community and local businesses (Isaac & Boyer, 2007; Miller & Kissinger, 2007; Miller & Tuttle, 2007). Community colleges are especially important in providing educational opportunities to minority, lower income, and first generation college students (Smith & Wolf-Wendel, 2005). Community college students are typically more diverse and include more ethnic minorities. As such, some see faculty of color at the community college level as particularly important to mentoring and modeling

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an expectation of continued education for minority students (Isaac & Boyer, 2007; Johnson, 1997; Smith & Schonfeld, 2000).

Kentucky Community and Technical College System

The Kentucky Community and Technical College System (KCTCS), a statewide system of community and technical colleges, was created after the passage of the Kentucky Postsecondary Education Improvement Act of 1997. KCTCS is comprised of 16 colleges with over 70 campuses strategically located throughout the Commonwealth of Kentucky in both rural and urban areas. Its mission is to “improve the employability and quality of life of Kentucky citizens as the primary provider of: College and Workforce Readiness, Transfer Education, and Workforce Education and Training” (KCTCS, 2012).

During the fall 2011 semester, there were 132 full-time faculty of color employed at KCTCS, which accounted for 6.7% of the total faculty. Hopkinsville Community College had the largest percentage of faculty of color (13%), while Madisonville Community College had the smallest percentage (2.78%). Jefferson Community and Technical College (15,092 students) and Bluegrass Community and Technical College (14,210 students) had the largest student enrollments, while Henderson Community College had the smallest student enrollment (2,142 students). Jefferson Community and Technical College had the largest number of minority students (4,737 students) followed by Bluegrass Community and Technical College (2,847 students); Hazard Community and Technical College had the fewest number (96 students) of minority students

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(KCTCS, 2012). To allow for comparisons, Table 1 provides county, faculty, and student characteristics of the community colleges cited above.

Table 1:

County, faculty, and student numbers of selected KCTCS colleges

School	County / Population*	Percentage of Faculty of color**	Total Student Enrollment	Minority Student Enrollment**
Bluegrass Community Technical College	Fayette 295,803	6.8	14,210	2,847
Hazard Community Technical College	Perry 28,712	6	4,726	96
Henderson Community College	Henderson 46,250	8.3	2,142	240
Hopkinsville Community College	Christian 73,955	13	4,464	1,703
Jefferson Community College	Jefferson 741,096	9	15,092	4,737
Madisonville Community College	Hopkins 46,920	1.9	4,595	398

Source: * KCTCS. (2013). *KCTCS Fact Book 2012-2013: 2010 Census*. Retrieved from http://www.kctcs.edu/About_KCTCS/KCTCS_Factbook/2012-13_Fact_Book.aspx

Source: ** KCTCS. (2012). *KCTCS Fact Book 2011-2012: KCTCS mission, goals, and leadership*. Retrieved from http://www.kctcs.edu/About_KCTCS/KCTCS_Factbook/2011-12_Fact_Book.aspx

KCTCS is committed to promoting working and educational climates supportive of diversity. Each of the 16 KCTCS colleges employ directors of cultural diversity who are responsible for developing and implementing diversity plans according to their college’s strategic plan. The diversity directors are members of the KCTCS Diversity Peer Team that is responsible for assuring that KCTCS is a culturally competent organization. To accomplish this endeavor, KCTCS has adopted a 2010-2016 Diversity Action Plan for Inclusion, Engagement and Equity (IE2), *Beyond the Numbers*, which outlines system-wide priorities that build access and promote the transformation of

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KCTCS colleges into culturally competent institutions (KCTCS, 2011a). The KCTCS Diversity Action Plan “was developed to be consistent with the requirements of the Council on Postsecondary Education’s *Kentucky Public Education Diversity Policy and Framework for Institution Diversity Plan Development*” (KCTCS, 2011a, p. 9).

Methodology of Study

Participant responses were solicited through an electronic survey sent to full-time faculty of color at all KCTCS campuses. Results inform institutional leaders about factors that impact ethnic faculty of color decisions to seek employment and/or to remain in communities that are traditionally less diverse. Institutional leaders can take these factors into consideration when developing policies and practices that serve to strengthen faculty of color hiring and retention and increase faculty of color satisfaction with workplace and community environments that are traditionally less diverse.

A quantitative approach was used to investigate the composition of ethnic faculty of color employed at KCTCS institutions and to what degree, based on their perceptions, they believed their workplace and home community environments were diverse and/or supportive of diversity. Specifically, this study attempted to describe the perceptions of faculty of color related to their work climate and the community in which they lived, and the relationship among faculty perceptions, faculty characteristics, and geographic location.

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Participants

The participants included full-time tenured, tenure-track, and non-tenured track faculty of color employed at KCTCS colleges. The entire population of full-time faculty of color was selected and was fully representative of the ethnic diversity. Access to participants was obtained with the assistance of the Director of Human Resources for the Kentucky Community and Technical College System's office. The researcher met with the Director of Human Resources to explain the details of the study and obtain the names and email addresses of all self-identified ethnic faculty of color within KCTCS. A letter was sent to each college president explaining the study, proposed uses for the data, the plan to work through the Director of Human Resources, and the process of obtaining Eastern Kentucky University and KCTCS Institutional Review Board approval. A recruitment letter soliciting participation and a link to the electronic survey was sent via email to each potential participant. A follow-up email reminder was sent to participants one week and then two weeks after the initial survey was sent.

Survey Instrument

The Faculty Diversity Survey instrument, adapted with permission from the Association of Independent Colleges and Universities of Pennsylvania's (AICUP) Campus Diversity Survey, contained three parts: background demographic information, perceptions of work climate, and perceptions of community environment.

Items included in the background section are:

- gender,
- ethnic/racial identification,

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- age,
- marital status,
- length of current employment,
- religious affiliation,
- presence of school age children living at home,
- place of childhood upbringing,
- U.S. citizenship,
- faculty rank and tenure status,
- highest degree earned and degree discipline,
- program/discipline in which teaching, and
- institution/campus of primary employment.

Faculty perceptions of work and community climates explored diversity issues affecting those areas. The majority of questions in these sections were presented on a 5-point Likert scale with point one denoting the highest level of agreement, point four the lowest level of agreement, and point five denoting the respondent had no basis for judgment. Three questions were presented on an ordinal scale in which respondents were asked to rank the frequency in which they encountered identified events.

The original Campus Diversity Survey instrument had not been validated with community college faculty. The Faculty Diversity Survey used in this study was pilot tested on a group of community college ethnic faculty of color. This pilot group consisted of tenure and non-tenure track faculty representing three ethnic/racial groups (African American, Asian/Pacific Islander, and Chicano/Latino/Hispanic). The faculty taught in

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the disciplines of Natural/Physical Sciences, Social Sciences, and Technical/Health Care. Each participant received a Pilot Participation and Consent letter, a paper copy of the pilot survey, and a questionnaire review form. Upon completion of the survey, each participant was asked to complete the questionnaire review form assessing the content appropriateness, meaningfulness, correctness, language, and clarity. Space for additional comments and suggestions was provided. Based on all comments gathered, revisions were made to the Faculty Diversity Survey prior to administering the survey to the study participants.

Data Collection and Analysis

An initial letter introducing the project and the forthcoming survey was emailed to participants. A cover letter and link to the electronic survey was emailed to participants the following week. The recruitment letter and the cover letter identified the researcher's name, role, institution, and the name and purpose of the project. Participants were informed that their individual responses would be confidential and would be combined with information from other peoples taking part in this study. When the results of the study are written, only the combined information would be shared. Individuals would not be identified, nor would individual responses be shared with any KCTCS institution. Participants were also informed of the benefits of participation, and the date for survey completion. Information on participant withdrawal, data security, and researcher contact information was provided.

A follow-up email reminder was sent to participants one week and then two weeks after the initial survey had been sent. Data collection ended three weeks after the

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initial letter and survey were electronically delivered. The electronic survey was developed and administered via Survey Monkey, an on-line software program designed to create and administer on-line surveys.

SPSS Statistics 21 software was utilized for data analysis. Descriptive statistics (frequencies, means, and standard deviations) were used to describe the participants' demographic characteristics, their perceptions of the work climate (diverse and/or supportive of diversity) where they were employed, and their perceptions of diversity and/or support of diversity in the communities where they resided. ANOVAs were calculated to determine group differences related to work climate and home community diversity and/or support for diversity based on location and ethnicity. If the response rate was low resulting in a small population size, the nonparametric chi-square was conducted.

Definition of Terms

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): a statistical test examining the differences among groups by considering the variation across all groups at the same time.

Council on Postsecondary Education (CPE): a state organization charged with overseeing educational reform efforts identified in the Kentucky Postsecondary Education Improvement Act of 1997 (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2011).

Diversity: characteristics differentiating individuals such as gender, race, ethnicity, age, disability, sexual orientation, and religious beliefs (Chun & Evans, 2009).

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Ethnic Diversity: subjective and objective characteristics such as racial, national, religious, and cultural characteristics shared by a group of individuals that differentiates one group from another (Goldmann, 2001).

Ethnicity: ideas and practices that identify individuals as belonging to a group based on commonalities such as language, customs, place or origin, religion, physical appearance, and genealogy and/or ancestry (Markus, 2008).

Faculty of Color: members of underrepresented groups employed within a college setting who identify themselves as American Indian/Alaskan Native, Asian, Black/African American, Hispanic/Latino, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, Nonresident Alien, and two or more races; also referred to as faculty of color, diverse faculty, and ethnic minority.

Kentucky Plan: a desegregation plan created to address the finding that Kentucky was in violation of Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act by not fully eliminating a de jure racially dual system of public higher education (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2007).

Positivism: a philosophical approach espousing the idea that phenomena are hard facts and that the relationship between these facts establishes scientific laws. The goal is to produce objective data or knowledge that is independent of any social context (Al-Hamdan & Anthony, 2010).

Rural areas: regions outside metropolitan and micropolitan areas with less than 10,000 residents (Vanderboom & Madigan, 2007).

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Social climate: the degree to which individuals feel accepted, valued, supported, and respected in the academic setting (Turner & Myers, 2000).

Urban areas: includes metropolitan areas of 50,000 or more residents or micropolitan areas of 10,000-49,000 residents (Vanderboom & Madigan, 2007).

Summary

Faculty of color employed in colleges and universities have not been hired and/or retained in numbers that mirror the United States population for people of color (Bunzel, 1990; Glazer, 2003; Logan, 1997; Plata, 1996; Smith, 2000). Institutions of higher education located in rural locations with low ethnic and cultural diversity need to ensure faculty diversity. Faculty diversity is important for furnishing positive role models, support resources, mentoring for minority students, and exposing non-minority students to diverse perspectives (Isaac & Boyer, 2007; Jayakumar et al., 2009).

Discrepancies in salaries, heavier teaching loads, limited socialization/mentoring opportunities, and general patterns of discrimination were cited as reasons for not retaining faculty of color. Research suggested that faculty of color employed in higher education often left or changed jobs due to underlying institutional climates at odds with their ethnic identity (Jayakumar et al., 2009). Research on workplace climate and its impact on faculty of color showed that communities where faculty live and raise their families were factors that influenced levels of satisfaction in the workplace.

In this study, the researcher investigated how faculty of color in the KCTCS perceived their work climate and their community in terms of diversity. The Faculty Diversity Survey instrument, adapted with permission from the Association of

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Independent Colleges and Universities of Pennsylvania, was used to seek an understanding of the degree to which faculty of color found their workplace and home community to be diverse and/or supportive of diversity.

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CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

Years after the passage of affirmative action legislation, faculty of color remain underrepresented in many colleges and universities in the United States. While some progress has been made in increasing the number of African American students enrolled in the nation's colleges and universities, the same progress has not been made in the representation of African American faculty, especially in the southern states (Perna, Gerald, Baum, & Milem, 2007). Snyder, Tan and Hoffman (2006) reported that in 2004 ethnic minorities represented 30% of the total student body. By 2010, the ethnic minority student body population grew to 36%, a 6% increase (Snyder & Dillow, 2012). In contrast, in 2003 faculty of color numbered 15% and by 2009, faculty of color numbers increased to 18% (Snyder & Dillow, 2012; Snyder, Tan, & Hoffman, 2006).

Minorities are defined by factors such as demographic characteristics, socio-economic status, ethno-cultural factors (including ethnicity, religion, and race), and even relationship to political parties (Goldmann, 2001). However, in this study, faculty of color refers to college faculty who identify themselves as American Indian/Alaskan Native, Asian, Black/African American, Hispanic/Latino, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, Nonresident Alien, and two or more races. Along with reviewing the percentages of faculty of color in the United States, specific issues related to institutional, academic, social, and cultural benefits of an ethnically and culturally diverse faculty will be discussed. Specific issues include faculty of color shortages, recruitment and retention of faculty of color, and faculty of color within the context of rural community colleges.

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Definition of Diversity and Higher Education

Literature provides descriptive characteristics of diversity as encompassing the appreciation of individual differences and those attributes that distinguish individuals such as race, gender, age, sexual orientation, ethnicity, disability, generational differences, and religious beliefs (Baumgartner & Johnson-Bailey, 2008; Caudron & Hayes, 1997; Chun & Evans, 2009; Michaels, 2006). Nazarko (2004) described diversity as an added value to an organization leading to improved recruitment efforts, retention, and creativity. In 2009, Chun and Evans also suggested that diversity reflects inclusiveness and social justice. Caudron and Hayes (1997) challenged the notion of diversity as inclusive, rather they concur with Elise Cross, a Philadelphia organizational advancement specialist, who stated that by including every known difference there is, the focus is taken off all forms of oppression.

Reevaluating the meaning of diversity in higher education came to the forefront with the 1978 *Bakke v. Board of Regents* (1978) court case in which the Supreme Court ruled that race-based college admissions were permissible if they served as a means for achieving a diverse student population. Colleges and universities had a legitimate interest in taking race into account in the same way they had a legitimate interest in taking into account geographical diversity or academic major in order to ensure student body diversity as a legitimate consideration for admissions. As a result of the *Bakke* decision, institutions of higher education appeared to overwhelmingly support diversity as a positive student outcome of the educational experience (Friedl, 1999).

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Importance of Diversity in Higher Education

Educators are in a unique position to prepare an increasingly heterogeneous student population for the complex and diverse world that is before them. Creating a learning environment that understands and values diversity allows students and faculty to fully participate in campus life. Literature has shown that diversity in higher education is important not only for minority and non-minority students, but for faculty and staff as well.

Benefits to Students

Faculty of color are critical to education because of their capacity to serve as role models for minority students. A lack of knowledge about other cultures can lead to ethnocentrism – the belief that one’s own culture supersedes all others (Young & Chamley, 1990). Ethnocentrism promotes cultural insensitivity to the degree that the educational needs of ethnic minority students and the employment needs of ethnic faculty of color and staff are not being met. In a study conducted during the 1995-1996 academic year, Johnson (1997) observed that many faculty of color believed minority student success increased if those students had role models who had successfully navigated the process of higher education.

The presence of faculty of color also benefits non-minority students. The opportunities to interact with others from different cultures, ethnic backgrounds, and religious beliefs have increased faster than ever before, especially in college and university settings. Smith and Schonfeld (2000) suggested that having a critical mass of diverse people lets stereotypes be dismantled by allowing individuals to be seen as

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distinct entities, assists students in becoming less fearful in interracial settings, and provides opportunities for students to address oppression and prejudice. They also suggested that non-minority students benefit, in the area of cognitive development, from interactions with those unlike themselves as critical thinking skills and problem solving abilities are enhanced when students are exposed to diversity in and out of the classroom.

Community colleges have acted as an entry point into higher education for a large percentage of nonresidential and commuter students, including a large number of minority students. Today, community colleges enroll a larger percentage of minority students in comparison with four-year degree granting institutions. In 2010, African American enrollment in community colleges was 15%; Hispanic's accounted for 18%; Asian's 6%, Pacific Islander's 0.4%; American Indian/Alaska Natives 1%; and multiracial students accounted for 2% (Snyder & Dillow, 2012). Special programs, such as educational opportunity programs and minority scholarships, that serve students from diverse backgrounds, have been cited as part of the reason for the increase in enrollment of minority students (Smith & Wolf-Wendel, 2005).

Bollinger (2007) suggested that, in an increasingly global society, it is essential for college students to learn to live and study with others from diverse backgrounds. Colleges have an obligation to train students to reach out instead of clinging to what they know as familiar and natural. Mayhew, Grunwald, and Dey (2006) emphasized that the importance and value of diversity is not limited to students and faculty, but staff and members of other organizational settings as well; however, many system-wide diversity efforts do not include support for all the stakeholders (including staff) in the organization.

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Smith and Schonfeld (2000) reported that having a diverse faculty, staff, and student body creates more opportunities for social support, role modeling, and mentoring; thus, eliminating or limiting stereotyped beliefs about those who differ from the majority.

Harbour, Middleton, Lewis, and Anderson (2003) described two recurring themes: dominant culture privilege and assimilation among college students. Dominant culture privilege, also known as white culture privilege, determines the shape and content of how people from different cultures interact. Students of the dominant culture see faculty and staff that look like them, understand their language, and share cultural values. The same does not hold true for students in underrepresented and marginalized groups who can be overlooked and not assisted in their attempt to negotiate the educational system. Harbour et al. implied that assimilation, the process where “individuals from diverse populations are explicitly and implicitly pressured to accept the host culture and subordinate their own cultural identity,” can be a contributing factor in the obstacles faculty of color experience as they try to find their place among the dominant culture in predominantly white colleges and universities (p. 832). Ensuring diversity in college communities can eliminate challenges faced by minority students and faculty.

Institutional Benefits

An environment that welcomes and embraces diversity impacts the entire college and university community by providing opportunities for interaction and support for all groups. Smith and Schonfeld (2000) noticed faculty diversity increased support for diverse students, encouraged the inclusion of diverse content and issues into the curricula, and resulted in more varied scholarship and pedagogical perspectives. Diversity at the

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different levels of campus leadership also demonstrates a commitment to inclusion; thus, improving the campus climate (Smith & Schonfeld, 2000).

Racial diversity in an educational setting improves student and faculty interactions by increasing course offerings, texts, and promoting understanding among students and faculty from differing backgrounds. Alger (1997) realized that student learning was enhanced through face-to-face interaction with each other and with faculty members. Wilson (2000) quoted Wheaton College President D. R. Marshall, who said in support of diversity, “Our backgrounds shape our ideas. If everybody is an upper-class white male from Harvard, a whole bunch of ideas aren’t going to emerge” (p. 3). Springer and Baez (2002) suggested that diversity exposed individuals to different ideas and that was a key to quality education. The exclusion of faculty of color viewpoints and ideas resulted in discrimination.

Aguirre (1995) believed that colleges and universities faltered in actively pursuing minorities for faculty positions by utilizing organizational culture to narrowly define parameters regulating entry into the faculty practice arena. Aguirre gave an example of faculty who argued that permitting minorities to join faculty ranks threatened institutional integrity. He posited that an institutional culture that is limit setting and insensitive toward faculty of color can lead to a decreased presence of faculty of color.

Alger (2000) reported that some deans and affirmative action officers credited their own faculty with producing the biggest obstacles for minority recruitment and retention. To ensure that rules are fair and consistently applied, Alger suggested employing practices that level out the playing field. Criteria used to evaluate potential

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candidates should be broadly applied so that each person's total contributions are taken into account. Search committees need training and resources to ensure that they are reaching a broader pool of applicants. Active mentoring programs can serve as a selling point for institutions to market themselves. Additionally, Alger suggested that senior faculty members should seek out faculty with different backgrounds and should maintain an open dialogue and conversation with faculty of color about department, campus, and community climates.

Challenges for Diversity

Fostering diversity is a major issue facing American society. Marichal (2009) suggested that hunkering, or being hesitant to interact with people from diverse backgrounds, threatens America's democratic existence. Higher education is in a unique position to foster cultural and ethnic involvement as well as the dialogue necessary for building global societies. Marichal listed several obstacles that prevent the development of diverse and inclusive institutions such as limited financial resources allotted for minority students, political pressures affecting the distribution of resources, legal issues limiting institutional flexibility toward creating a diverse campus, and the ineffective way in which elementary and secondary schools prepare underrepresented students for college level work. Institutions are seeing a shift from a social justice stance to an educational stance that promotes the pedagogical benefits of a diverse learning environment. He contended that this shift is a practical response to courts challenging affirmative action policies deemphasizing social inequality in gaining access to higher education.

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Brown (2004) asserted that a major challenge to achieving diversity is a lack of institutional recognition that commitment to diversity is more than achieving adequate numbers of diverse faculty and students. Many institutions believe that overcoming a history of exclusion simply means increasing the presence of minority individuals. Brown argued the need for a more inclusive stance on diversity; one with a view that embraces moving beyond surface solutions to more meaningful actions.

Moving beyond surface solutions can include changing the placement of the emphasis on diversity. Caudron and Hayes (1997) believed that many organizations place too much emphasis on changing the attitudes of people instead of changing the culture of the organization. Changing attitudes involves little more than a few hours of sensitivity training. Changing the culture of an organization is a long-term process that includes recruitment and retention programs, mentoring programs, and fair and equitable merit increases.

Historical and Landmark Diversity Cases in Higher Education

Recent legal and political activities have shed a negative light on the concept of diversity. An early affirmative action legal proceeding addressed by the Supreme Court, the *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke* (1978), involved a white male student who argued that he was denied admission into medical school in order to allow admission of a less qualified minority student, which was a violation of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Four liberal justices ruled the school's policy of setting aside a certain number of seats for minority applicants was valid, while four conservative justices ruled the policy was in violation of Title VI. Justice Powell, siding with the conservative

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justices, announced the court's ruling that setting aside seats for minority admissions was unconstitutional, but agreed with the liberal justices that the achievement of a diverse student body is a permissible goal for institutions of higher education (Alger, 1997; Naff, 2004). However, a federal appellate court's decision in *Hopwood v. Texas* (1996) declared that Justice Powell was wrong, and that diversity did not serve as a compelling interest in race-based affirmative action programs (Alger, 1997).

The Supreme Court again revisited affirmative action in higher education in the cases of *Gratz v. Bollinger* (2003) and *Grutter v. Bollinger* (2003). The issue was not whether affirmative action was justified as a remedy for past discrimination, but whether race could be considered in achieving a diverse student body. Although lower courts had addressed the same issue raised in the *Bakke* case, the courts did not reach an agreement. The Supreme Court's ruling on *Gratz v. Bollinger* found the University of Michigan in violation of the 14th Amendment and Title VI by allowing the awarding of points (20 points on a 150 point scale) to ethnic minority applicants in admissions considerations (Naff, 2004; Walsh, 2003). The Supreme Court sided with the University of Michigan in *Grutter v. Bollinger* allowing the law school to consider students' ethnicity and academic qualifications in determining how individual applicants contributed to creating a diverse student body (Naff, 2004).

In several early cases, the Supreme Court held that postsecondary institutions, under certain conditions, could use race as a factor in employment. These special situations included job categories that had a history of being segregated, affirmative action programs that did not place unnecessary burdens on the rights of non-minorities,

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and programs that were temporary and intended to attain, not maintain, racial balance (American Council on Education, 1999).

The following cases are examples of how courts, in conjunction with Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, handled race and employment issues. In *Wygant v. Jackson Board of Education* (1986), the Supreme Court overturned the race-based layoff of a white teacher when it applied the strict scrutiny test to the school boards affirmative action plan. In *Taxman v. Board of Education of the Township of Piscataway* (1997), the U.S. Court of Appeals held that a school board could not legally dismiss a white teacher and keep a black teacher with identical seniority for the sake of creating diversity. The reason provided by the court was that Title VII banned race as a factor for achieving diversity in the workplace. In *University and Community College System of Nevada v. Farmer* (1997), the Nevada Supreme Court found that race-based hiring did serve a compelling interest and did not necessarily violate Title VII when used to promote diversity. Additionally, both California's Proposition 209 and Washington's Initiative 200 prohibited affirmative action plans for employment, education, and contracting in the public sector. Other states were also considering similar legislation (American Council on Education, 1999).

Continuing Obstacles to Diversity in Higher Education

Diversifying faculty groups on campuses continues to be a struggle. Obstacles impeding faculty diversity can be categorized into the historical underrepresentation of minorities, higher education cultures leading to recruitment and retention issues

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(promotion, tenure, and academic ranks), and social issues (lack of mentoring and relationships with peers, and racism).

Underrepresentation of Faculty of Color

Postsecondary institutions have seen increases in the percentage of women and minorities employed. Even though the numbers are increasing, women and minorities remain an underrepresented group. Milem and Astin (1993) reported that, in 1972, whites made up 95% of all faculty groups. This percentage dropped to 90.9% in 1989. During this same time, Asian-American faculty numbers grew from 1.3% to 2.9% and African-American faculty increased from 1.3% to 2.1% while Native-American, Mexican-American, and Puerto Rican faculty numbers remained less than 1% each.

Fong (2000) reported that, according to the *2000-2001 Almanac Issue*, only 13.8% of the faculty members teaching full-time in 1997 were ethnic minorities, while 86.3% were white. These figures were comparable to the overall racial composition reported in the United States. The 1997 National Health Interview Survey reported that the makeup of the United States population at that time was 80.6% white and 19.3% ethnic minorities (Sondik, Lucas, Madans, & Smith, 2000). More recently, Taylor et al. (2010) noticed that the National Center for Education Statistics' (NCES) 2008 report indicated that minorities constituted slightly less than 20% of all college/university faculty members. There was also a significant underrepresentation of minorities in specific disciplines in the nation's top 50 educational institutions in 2007. Math, science, engineering, computer science, and physics programs represented the leading disciplines with less than 2% minority faculties (Taylor et al., 2010).

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Factors associated with ethnic faculty of color member shortages can be viewed from multiple perspectives. Glazer (2003) reported that large doctoral degree granting institutions are a major resource for identifying potential candidates for faculty positions. Ethnic minority groups were responsible for the largest gains in the number of professional and doctoral degrees earned. Cook and Cordova (2007) reported that from 1994-95 to 2004-05, there was a 45.5% change in the rate in which ethnic minority students earned professional degrees, while non-minority students had a 1.6% change in rate. Ethnic minority students earning doctoral degrees experienced a similar rate increase.

A 1999 Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) survey of over 33,000 full-time faculty members reported that participants identified family planning conflicts, family leave policies, limited supply of minorities with Ph.D.'s, coolness toward minorities, and a variety of stress factors as reasons for the small numbers of minorities and women faculty members (Phillips, 2002). However, Rowe (1993) identified job and home security issues, such as receiving anonymous threats, offensive phone calls, and emotional and physical abuse, as challenges faced by faculty of color that contributed to their small numbers.

Barriers to Career Advancement

Being overburdened with teaching and service responsibilities is another barrier hindering African American faculty members from advancing their academic careers. Allen et al. (2000) realized that African American faculty members spent greater amounts of time in the classroom, recruiting, advising, mentoring, and participating on

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institutional committees rather than on conducting research, grant writing, and publishing – activities that afforded the faculty member greater recognition and reward. Daufin (2001) observed that African American faculty members performed those roles without additional compensation or recognition of those contributions during the promotion and tenure process. Allen et al. (2000) learnt that African American faculty members who teach in less prestigious institutions or non-research-oriented institutions could find their teaching loads even heavier with fewer opportunities for publishing, resulting in a less than stellar list of publications that will keep them outside the academic mainstream throughout their careers. In addition, they discovered that faculty of color whose research focused on racial/ethnic issues were increasingly concerned their work would be viewed as self-serving, controversial, and out of the mainstream and would lead to judgments by their peers and superiors that their work was nonacademic or inappropriate.

Faculty of color with the same departmental, institutional, and community service responsibilities as other faculty members are also expected to serve on committees related to minority issues such as recruitment of faculty and students and racial/ethnic relations. Johnson (1997) noticed that faculty of color reported institutional expectations that dictated they represent the institution in minority community events. He contended that this was not only a problem with time management for faculty of color, but produced little institutional reward.

The Culture of Higher Education

Promotion and tenure practices in educational institutions. The underrepresentation of faculty of color in tenure-track positions contributes to the low

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numbers of faculty of color. Smith (2000) was of the opinion that increasing the number of faculty of color was only the first step in increasing the presence of minorities on campuses. The more challenging action was eliminating the barriers to earning promotion and tenure, once hired. Smith attributed the small number of faculty of color represented in tenured positions to campus climates. In Smith's study of 299 Ford, Mellon, and Spencer Fellows - 65% of whom were ethnic minorities - isolation, racism, perceived lack of appreciation, sexism, and lack of interest in diversity issues were identified as barriers toward faculty of color earning tenure.

Allen et al. (2000) reported that the small numbers of African American faculty members were clustered at the lower rungs of the academic ladder. African Americans represented approximately 4% of associate and full professors compared to their non-minority counterparts who made up 87% of the same ranks. Although African Americans had a slightly larger share of the pool at the instructor rank, they still lagged behind their white colleagues.

Institutional factors. Institutional characteristics challenging the recruitment and retention of faculty of color include location, financial resources, traditions, missions, and demographics. Campus and/or departmental cultures can make it difficult to implement diversity projects or facilitate change when those cultures are deeply rooted in conservative tradition and history. Institutions located in small college towns could offer limited community diversity while institutions in larger metropolitan areas, with larger diverse populations, offer a more diverse environment, but faculty members find themselves faced with higher costs of living and lower faculty salaries in the larger

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metropolitan areas. Location can also pose a problem for recruitment of faculty of color in communities facing strong anti-immigrant movements, such as those in small communities that house branch campuses (Taylor et al., 2010).

The recent downturn of the United States' and world economies impact how educational institutions achieve faculty diversity. The reduction in the number of available faculty positions adversely affects the hiring of faculty of color, especially in non-tenure track positions. In addition, the readjustment of budgets often finds the elimination of diversity programs and projects necessary because of the questions raised about their cost effectiveness (Taylor et al., 2010).

Mohamed (2010) discussed the experiences of faculty of color who provided evidence that college campuses are still struggling to promote welcoming environments for minorities. She cited three major obstacles that produced negative environments for faculty of color: a) limited efforts to recruit and maintain faculty of color, b) administrative leadership that was not conducive to change, and c) negative perceptions and expectations placed on faculty of color by administration, peers, and students. The negative perceptions and expectations resulted in faculty of color working in "alien and unfriendly environment[s] (p. 46)," faculty of color having to repeatedly prove their competency to peers and students, and faculty of color being invisible or dismissed. All of these factors are likely to result in increased job stress, job dissatisfaction, and decreased retention for faculty of color.

In a study exploring why women and minorities leave faculty positions in a medical school, Cropsey et al. (2008) identified the three most common reasons faculty

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members gave for leaving a faculty appointment: a) career advancement, b) low salary, and c) chairman/leadership issues. Among faculty of color, the most common reasons cited were career advancement, low salary, and personal reasons. When asked to rate their job characteristics, 19.4% of the non-white faculty rated their opportunities for advancement as good to excellent compared to 31.9% of their white peers. Thirteen faculty members reported experiencing racial discrimination; eight of which were non-white. Seventeen faculty members (10.2%) reported being negatively perceived by their peers in relation to their credentials or degrees, though in this category, no race or gender differences were found. The authors concluded that most of the major reasons given for leaving a faculty position were avoidable and could be easily remedied with appropriate interventions and resources. They argued that, with more opportunities for professional growth, mentorship, and changes in institutional infrastructure, faculty retention would increase and costs for recruitment would decrease.

Socialization/mentoring programs. Davis (2008) argued that new faculty and graduate students need to be socialized into the profession to assist them in learning and embracing the values, behaviors, and knowledge needed to successfully assume a role in an organization. Mentoring has traditionally been the mechanism through which new members are socialized. Logan (1997) reported that, although no universally accepted definition exists for mentorship, there are three agreed upon components: “a) advice, guidance, and emotional and logical support, b) direct assistance with career and professional development, and c) role modeling” (p. 275).

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Minority educators can find themselves negotiating the politics of education in isolation without mentoring programs. Logan (1997) reported that faculty of color employed at one institution described loneliness, lack of support from colleagues, and exhaustive workloads as factors that contributed to increased pressure and disillusionment. Plata (1996) described a faculty of color member as frequently being the “only one” in a department, which resulted in feelings of isolation and being an outcast. Plata asserted that faculty of color need colleagues with whom they can exchange ideas and ask questions.

Brinson and Kottler (1993) advocated mentoring programs for faculty of color in order to provide emotional support and encouragement, facilitate adaptation to the politics within the university setting, provide a senior faculty member who would serve as an advocate for the faculty of color member, and for role modeling. They concluded that developing a mentoring relationship provides faculty of color the chance to develop career goals that lead to professional success.

Relationships with students. Faculty of color face classroom challenges that many non-faculty of color do not. Hamilton (2002) cited the experience of a faculty of color member whose white students started out thinking multicultural content was easy, and when it proved not to be, they withdrew from the course. In addition, the black students felt they already knew the material and did not need to study. Participants in Bower’s (2002) study reported that white students had doubts regarding faculty of colors’ knowledge and expertise in the subject matter, even when the faculty members’ experiences and degrees were the same or higher than the non-faculty of colors’.

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Additionally, Bower reported that some black students assumed a familiar kinship with faculty of color and believed that this special relationship provided them with a privilege to get by with little or no effort.

Discrimination and racism. Discrimination and racism are contributing factors associated with the shortage of faculty of color in educational institutions in this country. Bower (2002) reported that faculty of color not only had to manage all the same issues that their non-minority peers did, they also faced the issue of discrimination. Rowe (1993) described subtle discrimination as covert micro-inequities that are not recognized by the perpetrator or the victim. Examples of micro-inequities include racist graffiti, ethnic jokes, confusing the identity of two ethnic minorities, failing to introduce the minority individual when in a group setting, or not wanting to share a room or office with a person of color. Although these examples involved ethnic minorities, Rowe explained that micro-inequities affect all minorities.

Daufin (2001) discovered that many potential faculty of color chose not to enter academia because of perceived racism from colleagues and students. Individuals that did enter the academic world, left early in their careers because of covert racism in educational settings. Daufin also reported that a *1999 American Faculty Poll* showed that 71.5% of faculty of color surveyed, compared to 62.1% of the white faculty surveyed, were satisfied with their jobs and would pursue an academic career again. This poll indicated, however, that the respondents who revealed they would pursue an educational career again were more likely to be males in the higher paying disciplines of medicine, science, and engineering.

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Bower (2002) contended that racism could be exhibited by colleagues who discount and devalue a faculty of color member's input. Participants in Johnson's (1997) study reported discriminatory and racist experiences with colleagues that included not being taken seriously and perceiving that they had to be twice as good as non-faculty of color to be considered equal. Price et al. (2005) found, in a qualitative study involving 17 full-time tenure-track physician faculty members, that minority physicians perceived their majority colleagues questioned their professional competence. Additionally, they expressed concerns about being invisible to their colleagues when not wearing their white lab coats and felt a lack of informal professional/social relationships and mentoring.

Faculty of color Role Clarity and Conflict

Role clarity, role conflict, and job satisfaction are dimensions of occupational roles that have significant implications for an individual's work performance, and impact the overall effectiveness of the employing institution (Kelly, Gable, & Hise, 1981). Lang, Thomas, Bliese, and Adler (2007) defined role clarity as the perception of having clear guidelines about expected roles and behaviors for a job. Individuals who lack role clarity or who have low levels of role clarity are at risk for increased job stress, decreased job satisfaction, and a higher chance of leaving an organization (Kelly et al., 1981). Ivancevich and Donnelly (1974) postulated that increasing the degree of role clarity, for individuals with a high need for clarity, produced a less tense and more satisfied employee, one that was less likely to leave the employment. Posner and Butterfield (1978) studied whether an individual's organizational level (hierarchical position) affected the relationship between the degree of role clarity and job stress, job satisfaction,

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and inclination to leave the organization. They posited that higher levels of role clarity were correlated to job satisfaction, personal influence, perceived organizational effectiveness, and task-oriented leadership, and that the degree of role clarity did differ according to one's level in the organization.

Role conflict occurs when a person's perceived role is inconsistent or in conflict with the organization's expectations (Murray & Murray, 1998). Role ambiguity is a term that is often used synonymously with role conflict; however, these two terms are not the same. Role ambiguity occurs when an individual is unclear about their role in an organization. It is an internal blurring of their role. Role conflict occurs when an outside source places conflicting or inconsistent demands upon the person (Murray & Murray, 1998). In an attempt to cope with role conflict, an individual engages in behaviors such as withdrawal, or avoidance of those causing the conflict, which leads to poor job performance, or a decision to leave an organization (Kelly et al., 1981).

Whetsel-Ribeau (2007), in a study of faculty of color retention in predominantly white public, Ohio institutions, found that over 60% of participants (n=103) responded positively to role clarity questions related to having clear and planned goals and objectives; their ability to divide time properly; knowing their responsibilities, what was expected of them, and bounds of authority; and receiving clear directions for their jobs. Only 2% of the participants responded negatively in relation to knowing their job responsibilities. Whetsel-Ribeau concluded that, while role clarity and role conflict were not significantly related to faculty retention, participants were very positive in their responses to role clarity and student relationships.

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Community Satisfaction

In the recent past, many communities have seen an increase in diversity among their residents. What was once a homogeneous community is now different in terms of size, ethnicity, culture, and values. While change and growth are vital to the survival of a community, growing pains are likely to occur (Potter & Cantarero, 2006).

The relationship between job satisfaction and the perception of and satisfaction with home community is an important factor in the recruitment and retention of faculty of color. Research demonstrated that individuals evaluate their community based on cognitive schemata of what they believe an ideal community would be like. These images are shaped by past experiences, ability to adapt, and cultural values (Potter & Cantareo, 2006). Matarrita-Cascante (2010) noted that there is a positive relationship between community services, conditions, community satisfaction, and quality of life. Theodori (2001) reported that most individuals positively view their community and that community satisfaction was proportionately higher in rural residents than in their urban counterparts.

Many definitions of community have been posited with geographical location and social institution constituting important components. Vreugdenhil and Rigby (1987) described community as encompassing groups of individuals sharing space within a geographical area, while Kulig et al. (2009) viewed it as a multifaceted social institution meeting individual personal and social needs. They discovered that the complexity of community demonstrated the interrelatedness of both geography and social processes – location can add to or take away from the formation of social processes.

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Aside from attempting to define community, an essential task is defining the variables to be used in analyzing community satisfaction, community attachment, and their link to an individual's desire to seek employment and/or remain in a community. Community satisfaction involves an evaluation of how individual community members assess their place of residence (Crowe, 2010). Variables related to community satisfaction include strong relationships, presence of social support networks, participation in civic affairs, effective government, a heterogeneous mixture of residents, duration of residence, migrant status, residential mobility, satisfaction with employment and income, satisfaction with physical and social living conditions, and local availability of services (Crowe, 2010; Kulig et al., 2009; Mararrita-Cascante, 2010; Theodori, 2001).

Community attachment denotes a commitment to one's community and can be expressed affectively or behaviorally (Crowe, 2010). An affective commitment is demonstrated in a sense of belonging, that one has an impact on the community, that the community can meet one's needs, and an emotional connection to others within the community. A behavioral commitment signifies a level of organizational participation within the community (Crowe, 2010). Kulig et al. (2009) reported that the degree of social connectedness a person has to a community would determine their level of attachment or commitment. They cited three factors that explain attachment in rural communities: a) sentiment (positive feelings toward the community), b) participation (involvement in community organizations), and c) interpersonal factors (ties to local family and friends).

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Diversity and Community Colleges

Community colleges provide services not only for the traditional college-age student, but for adult learners as well. In addition, community colleges provide job mobility for faculty of color jobs. Isaac and Boyer (2007) reported that community colleges can serve as a foundation for launching the teaching careers of faculty of color as they gain valuable experience in the classroom and laboratories. They reported that, for the adult learner, community colleges provide an excellent starting point for their educational journey, especially for those who have been away from an educational setting for a long period of time or are just taking their first steps into the academic arena. They also reported that urban community colleges tend to have more available resources and can be selective in the courses and programs they offer their communities while rural community colleges bear a major part of the responsibility for the economic development, cultural awareness, and educational opportunities for their communities regardless of the available resources. Miller and Tuttle (2007) described rural community colleges as the “catalyst for sustaining high-quality of life opportunities for rural America” (p. 118). For example, businesses are attracted to communities with a college. Rural community colleges can provide businesses with contract training, development programs, and economic development planning.

Community College Faculty of Color and Students

Faculty diversity is needed for positive role models, developing a system for student support and advocacy, and for providing opportunities for non-minority students to learn about and interact with others who do not look like them. Isaac and Boyer (2007)

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reported faculty of color representation at the community-college level is not proportional to the large numbers of minority students enrolled. Snyder and Dillow (2012) reported that in fall 2009 there were 373,778 faculty members employed in public two-year Title IV degree-granting institutions. They reported that the racial/ethnic breakdown of faculty members employed in these institutions showed whites presented the largest percentage at 77.5%; blacks represented 8%; Hispanics comprised 5%; Asian/Pacific Islanders represented 3%; and American Indian/Alaska Natives made up 1% of community college faculty.

Community college students are a diverse group of students, who tend to be nontraditional, low income, and have various reasons for seeking higher education (Provasnik & Planty, 2008). Community colleges enroll larger percentages of minority students than do four-year institutions. In 2010, white students comprised the largest racial/ethnic group with over 4,000,000 students enrolled in public two-year institutions, while Hispanic and African American students followed with slightly over 1,000,000 students in each group. Asian/Pacific Islander and American Indian/Alaska Native students had the fewest number comprising less than half the number of students than the other two minority student groups (Snyder & Dillow, 2012).

Ethnic Makeup of Appalachia

Racial diversity in Appalachia is not a widely studied concept. Whites represent the largest racial group in Appalachia (88%), which is consistent with the overall population in the United States (Hayden, 2004). Appalachia also has a large concentration of non-whites in several geographical locations, primarily large urban

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areas. There are 410 counties covering 13 states in the Appalachian region, and 26 of these counties show non-white populations over 20,000. Hayden (2004) reported that, in 2000, Jefferson County, Alabama (Birmingham) showed a 43.4% minority population; Gwinnett County, Georgia (Atlanta) a 38.2% minority population; and Allegheny County, Pennsylvania (Pittsburgh), a 16.6% minority population. An analysis of racial and ethnic groups in Appalachia reported that African American and Hispanic/Latino groups resided in almost every county. Hayden learnt that, according to the 2000 census, Maryland's Appalachian counties had the smallest numbers of Hispanic/Latinos (2,272), Georgia's Appalachian counties had the largest Hispanic/Latino population (159, 261), and the Hispanic/Latino population in the remaining states in the region ranged from 0.1-3.7%. Nationally, the Hispanic/Latino population was slightly larger than the African American population. However, in the Appalachian region, African-Americans are the second largest racial group (8.4%), while Hispanics/Latinos are the third largest group (2%). Other groups represented included multi-racial groups (1%), Asians (0.8%), American Indians and Alaska Natives (0.3%), and Native Hawaiians and other Pacific Islanders (less than .01%) (Hayden, 2004).

Census data trends revealed that the white population increased 5.9% from 1990 to 2000, while their share of the total Appalachian population dropped from 91.5% to 87.9%. The percentage of the black population increased by 19%, American Indians increased by 35.3%, and the Hispanic/Latino population grew by 239.3%. Although Asian and Pacific Islander populations also grew, they remained the smallest non-white population in the Appalachian region (Hayden, 2004).

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Decreased Faculty of Color Numbers

Smith, Turner, Osei-Kofi, and Richards (2004) argued that the low numbers of faculty of color in academia seems to reflect the perception of many institutions that they are not in a position to attract faculty of color. Factors such as the inability to offer attractive salaries, not being geographically located in a prominent area, and not having a prestigious reputation to attract the few minority candidates who are in such high demand have been cited as reasons why these institutions have been prevented from participating in the "bidding wars" to attract faculty of color. However, Smith et al. (2004) cited numerous research studies pointing to the contrary. In particular, they cited a 1996 study that examined the employment experiences of recent minority doctoral graduates and discovered that graduates in this group were not highly sought after and that the bidding wars theory was highly overrated.

Murray (2005) suggested that community college faculty shortages result from increased attrition, as large numbers of faculty retire or leave academia for other careers. As faculty numbers decrease, student enrollment increases; thus, exacerbating the problem. Community colleges are at risk for suffering the greatest losses. Many rural community colleges are not in a position to offer attractive financial incentives, nor do they have the cultural and social advantages of more urban educational institutions to attract qualified faculty, regardless of racial or ethnic background.

Affirmative Action and the Kentucky Plan

Affirmative action. The 14th Amendment to the Constitution, which provides all citizens equal protection, formed the historical basis for affirmative action. Despite this

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protection, Jim Crow laws, the *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896) case, and other racially discriminatory practices took precedence over the terms of the 14th Amendment (Clarke, 1996; DeCesare, 2002).

In 1941, President Franklin D. Roosevelt issued Executive Order No. 8802. The intent of this order was to put an end to discriminatory hiring practices in all companies with federal contracts. According to the Evans and Breinig-Chun (2007), the *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) case reinforced this order. President Kennedy expanded the concept of desegregation into education with Executive Order 10925, which prohibited discrimination in federal employment based on race, color, religion, and national origin. Order 10925 directed the federal government to take the necessary affirmative steps to realize more fully the national policy of nondiscrimination. Two years later, President Kennedy extended affirmative action to include federally assisted construction projects (Evans & Breinig-Chun, 2007).

The attitudes and practices of institutions of higher education did not change until the federal government passed the 1965 Higher Education Act that increased opportunities for minorities and women to obtain a college education and secure faculty positions. The 1964 Civil Rights Act, which prohibited discrimination in all institutions receiving federal money, made these achievements possible. The goal was to eradicate racial and gender barriers that prevented qualified students and faculty from entering institutions of higher learning (Clarke, 1996).

Minorities and women were still subject to acts of discrimination by educational institutions. The federal government realized that increasing the opportunities for

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entrance into, and employment in, educational settings was not enough to end discriminatory practices. As a result, President Lyndon B. Johnson extended the scope of President Roosevelt's order by issuing Executive Order No. 11246 (1965) which levied financial penalties against violators. The inclusion of women began in 1967 with an amended Executive Order No. 11246. The amended order stipulated, in part, that colleges and universities receiving federal money develop guidelines for the recruitment and hiring of minority and women faculty and administrators. The creation of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) to oversee and enforce all acts and executive orders pertaining to discrimination occurred in 1965. The EEOC had the power to penalize those who participated in discriminatory practices and to rectify actions for those discriminated against (Clarke, 1996).

Affirmative action became an important force in colleges and universities through the work of the Women's Equity Action League (WEAL) and its Action Committee for Federal Contract Compliance (Chamberlain, 1988). Beginning in the late 1960s, WEAL was effective in drawing attention to college and university practices beginning with legal proceedings against more than 250 colleges and universities asserting a wide spread pattern of discrimination against women in academia. Additionally, there was a national letter writing movement to congressional representatives seeking an answer as to why institutions of higher education were not being forced to comply with the executive orders. In 1972, the Health, Education, and Welfare Committee (HEW) delivered the Higher Education Guidelines. According to Chamberlain (1988), the guidelines proclaimed "that unless positive action is undertaken to overcome the effects of

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systematic institutional forms of exclusion and discrimination, a benign neutrality in employment practices will tend to perpetuate the status quo indefinitely” (pp. 175-176).

Issues tackled by the Higher Education Guidelines were the determination of underutilization of minorities and women, and the development of institutional goals and timelines for the hiring of qualified minorities and women. Many institutions misunderstood the Guideline’s requirements and posted advertisements specifically recruiting minorities and women candidates, and male candidates received letters indicating they would have been hired, if not for affirmative action. The HEW Committee put a stop to these practices and issued a statement that such practices were not only banned, but also illegal (Chamberlain, 1988).

The Kentucky plan.

Version 1. Prior to 1954, 19 states, one of which was Kentucky, practiced a de jure segregated system of higher education. The findings by the United States Office of Civil Rights (OCR), along with a court order, forced these institutions to develop desegregation plans. The *Commonwealth of Kentucky Higher Education Desegregation Plan* was created as a result of Kentucky being found in violation of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The violation stated that Kentucky “failed to eliminate the vestiges of its former de jure racially dual system of public higher education” (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2007, p. 7). The three areas containing infractions included: a) student admissions, b) faculty/staff employment, and c) the enhancement of the state’s only historically black university (Kentucky State University). Specifically, the plan addressed the admission’s status of Kentucky resident African American students,

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assessed the employment of African Americans in the state controlled postsecondary institutions, and evaluated improvement of Kentucky State University (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2008). The objectives of the original plan were to be carried out and achieved over five years (1982-1987). Although the state made strides in accomplishing many of the original objectives related to increasing enrollment of resident black students, the state had not made as much progress in increasing employment of African American workers and improving Kentucky State University (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2007).

Version 2. Since Kentucky did not reach all of their stated goals in the original plan, a second plan was adopted. This second plan, the *Kentucky Plan for Equal Opportunities in Higher Education (Kentucky Plan)*, was to be carried out over another five-year period (1990-1995). The objectives of the *Kentucky Plan* were the same as the original 1982 desegregation plan: recruitment, retention, and graduation of African American students; employment of African American faculty, administrators, and professionals; and enhancement of Kentucky State University (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2007). Annual evaluations of the *Kentucky Plan* revealed improvements were still needed in the areas of retention, baccalaureate degrees awarded, graduate enrollment and completion, and employment. In 1995, the Council of Higher Education (CHE) extended the *Kentucky Plan* for one additional year to develop revisions that would address these deficiencies (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2007).

Version 3. The third version of the plan, the *Kentucky Plan for Equal Opportunities in Higher Education 1997-2002*, focused on creating equal opportunities

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for student recruitment, retention, and graduation as well as institutional objectives for faculty and staff employment. The adoption of a flexible stance and waiver plan meant that the opportunities for African American students would not severely impinge upon the rights of any other equally-qualified Kentucky student, or impact employment opportunities for non-minorities. The caveat to this plan was a 1992 statute, KRS 164.020(9), which statutorily required CPE to not approve new academic programs at schools not meeting their own equal opportunity objectives (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2007).

Version 4. The fourth version of Kentucky’s equal opportunity plan for higher education, *Strategic Plan for Kentucky Higher Education 1996-2000: Seize the Future*, built upon and strengthened the goals of previous plans. The CPE’s vision for this new plan placed emphasis on “developing an educated citizenry that values lifelong learning, providing equal opportunities for all Kentuckians, promoting state and local economic development, contributing to the Commonwealth’s global competitiveness, and enhancing the quality of live for the people of Kentucky” (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2007, p. 21). The plan contains seven commitments and eight objectives. The commitments are as follows. The Council on Postsecondary Education and the institutions are committed to:

- increasing the proportion of Kentucky resident African American undergraduate students enrolled in postsecondary education;

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- increasing the retention of Kentucky resident African American undergraduate students and the proportion of graduates to the same level of retention as that for Kentucky resident white undergraduate students;
- increasing the proportion of Kentucky resident African American graduate students;
- increasing the number and proportion of African American faculty and staff employed by institutions of postsecondary education;
- increasing the number of African American applicants to, enrollments in, and graduates from first-professional programs in dentistry, law, and medicine;
- the Governor is committed to ensuring the appointment of African Americans to the Council on Postsecondary Education and to each board of trustees or regents (KRS 164.005); and
- establishing and maintaining campus programs and activities to accomplish the above. (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2008, pp. 1-2)

To accomplish these commitments, the state universities developed action plans covering eight objectives, and the community college system developed four objectives related to equal opportunity for African-American Kentucky residents and the employment of African Americans in executive, administrative, managerial, and faculty positions.

Community Colleges in Rural America and Kentucky

Rural regions make up a large percentage of the geographical area in the United States, but make up only a small percentage of the overall population. Miller and

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Kissinger (2007) cited high poverty rates, rising economic depression, limited educational attainment, and limited opportunities for advancement as characteristics of rural regions of the country. They argued that community survival and success are dependent upon “a social engine that drives the community’s economy and serves as a foundation for group identity formation and engagement” (p. 27). One such social engine is educational institutions. Rural community colleges act as social engines by bringing resources and opportunities to the communities where they are located. In rural areas, schools and churches are the main centers for socialization and interaction between community members. This is in contrast to urban areas, where residents are less familiar with each other and socialization tends to be more formal. Additionally, urban areas have more places for philanthropic, business, and pleasure activities (Miller & Kissinger, 2007).

Miller and Kissinger (2007) identified four programs through which rural community colleges serve their communities: a) leisure education, b) cultural enrichment, c) economic development, and d) continuing education. These programs relate to the mission of community colleges to be responsive to the individual needs of their communities. Leisure education programs can include academic and sports camps for community youth as well as various non-credit classes for community residents. Miller and Kissinger also cite the importance of the cultural awareness programs offered by rural community colleges as they can broaden one’s exposure to others and challenge conventional ways of thinking.

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Community colleges are also in a unique position to offer services to business and industry through training/retraining programs that enhance the workforce development of their communities. Workforce development activities can include employee certification programs, basic literacy instruction, and displaced worker programs through which workers are given an opportunity to learn a new skill, trade, or job to replace a job that is lost due to closure of a factory or organization.

Educational opportunities are offered by rural community colleges through a variety of courses and programs that bring together a diverse group of students, each having their own individual traits, customs, and beliefs. Through these programs, rural community colleges are connected to the community and connect community members to each other (Miller & Kissinger, 2007).

Data comparing rural and urban community colleges is limited. Geographically categorizing community colleges is one method for comparison. The Carnegie Foundation classifies colleges that offer associate degrees in categories such as publically controlled, privately controlled, and special-use institutions. The publically controlled category is geographically broken down into rural, suburban, and urban colleges. The advantage of this classification system is the ability to separate data by community college type (Hardy & Katsinas, 2007).

Miller and Tuttle (2007) reported that rural community colleges play a role in the identity development of the residents living in the college town. Those who grow up and live near a college develop different perspectives on life and from frequent contacts with

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college officials and faculty. Serving as the home for a college also promotes a community's self-identity and pride that stems from a broader worldview.

Snyder and Dillow (2012) reported that between 1980-1981 and 2009-2010, the numbers of community colleges (public and private) increased 26% (from 1,274 to 1,721) while other colleges and universities showed a 29% increase (from 1,957 to 2,774). Provasnik and Planty (2008) observed that in fall 2006, community colleges were more evenly distributed across communities than other colleges and universities, with 29% located in metropolitan and rural areas, 24% located in towns, and 18% located in suburban areas. Other colleges and universities tend to be located in cities, with 48% located in urban areas, 26% located in towns, 16% located in suburban areas, and 9% located in rural areas. They also stated that in 2006, 6.2 million (35%) of all postsecondary students were enrolled in community colleges, a 751% increase since 1963. They noticed that, in that same time period, enrollment in four-year degree-granting institutions increased by only 197%.

An increasing number of individuals from different cultures and ethnic backgrounds now interact with each other more than any other time in history. This growth in numbers and types of interactions can produce problems and create anxiety, but they also have the ability to generate solutions that lead to further growth and understanding (Nassar, 1998). Bollinger (2007) posited that an important goal for colleges and universities is to assess what students know about the world in which they live and provide opportunities for them to learn how to function in a world that requires individuals to analyze, build, and draw connections from many disciplines.

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Kentucky community colleges. According to a 2008 report by the CPE, employment of African Americans in higher education has improved slightly throughout the state, with the largest gains noted in the employment of African American staff. Between 1979 and 2006, there was a 4.2% increase in the employment of African American executives, administrators, and managers. During that same time period, African Americans employed in the staff category increased by 202%, professional staff by 2.6%, and faculty employment by 2.3% (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2008).

The Kentucky Postsecondary Education Improvement Act of 1997 (House Bill 1) was responsible for creating the Kentucky Community and Technical College System (KCTCS). House Bill 1 joined 13 community colleges (formerly known as the University of Kentucky Community College System) and 15 technical colleges. The goal of House Bill 1 was the improvement of postsecondary education and the promotion of the state's economy and quality of life. Section 2(2)(e) of House Bill 1 states:

A comprehensive community and technical college system with a mission that assures, in conjunction with other postsecondary institutions, access throughout the Commonwealth to a two (2) year course of general studies designed for transfer to a baccalaureate program, the training necessary to develop a workforce with the skills to meet the needs of new and existing industries, and remedial and continuing education to improve the employability of citizens. (General Assembly, Commonwealth of Kentucky, 1997, p. 2)

KCTCS is comprised of 16 colleges with over 65 campuses located throughout Kentucky. According to the *KCTCS Fact Book 2011-2012*, the mission of KCTCS is to

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improve the life and employability of Kentucky residents by serving as the primary provider of college and workforce readiness, transfer educational programs, and workforce training and education.

Kentucky Community and Technical College System (KCTCS) Colleges. The sixteen colleges that form the KCTCS are located throughout the Commonwealth of Kentucky. A president, who serves as the chief administrative officer, leads each community college. The Governor of Kentucky appoints a local Board of Directors, primarily advisory in nature, for each college. This organizational structure allows the community colleges to function as a unified system, while retaining the ability to be autonomous and responsive to the needs of their individual communities. The KCTCS colleges are located in the following communities: Ashland, Bowling Green, Covington, Cumberland, Elizabethtown, Hazard, Henderson, Hopkinsville, Lexington, Louisville, Madisonville, Maysville, Owensboro, Paducah, Prestonsburg, and Somerset. In addition to these main campuses, almost all of the community colleges have additional branch campuses located in the same or adjacent communities.

Kentucky Community and Technical College System Foundation. The Kentucky Community and Technical College System Foundation, created in 1999, is the fund-raising organization for KCTCS. It is a non-profit 501(c)(3) public charity, exempting the organization from federal income tax. The goals of the foundation are to:

- advance the vision, mission, goals, and objectives of KCTCS;
- function as a catalyst, leadership, and coordination for the private-sector resource development programs and activities of KCTCS;

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- raise private funds for system-wide initiatives and needs;
- seek support from state, regional, and national corporations and foundations;
- provide oversight and guidance for the management and investment of private funds;
- act as a cooperative and supportive resource for college foundations;
- act as a friend-raiser and advocate for the system; and
- function as a counselor and advisor to KCTCS President (KCTCS Foundation, n.d.).

Kentucky Community and Technical College System Employees. According to the *KCTCS Fact Book 2010-2011*, during the fall 2010 semester, there were 118 full-time faculty of color, which accounts for 6.1% of the total KCTCS full-time faculty. During this same period, the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) data revealed that there were 405 full-time faculty members holding the rank of instructor, 276 faculty members at the assistant professor rank, 636 faculty at the associate professor level, and 616 faculty with the rank of full professor. Since 2006, the number of faculty members at the instructor, associate professor and professor ranks showed a 10%, 6% and a 24% increase, respectively while the faculty numbers at the assistant professor rank demonstrated a 24% decrease (KCTCS, n.d.).

Kentucky Community and Technical College System Students. Student enrollment in KCTCS colleges has demonstrated continued growth since its inception in 1997. The *KCTCS Fact Book 2010-2011* reported that in 2010, there were 106,664 students enrolled in one of the sixteen KCTCS colleges. The majority of students

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identified themselves as white non-Hispanic (83%), followed by 9% black non-Hispanic, and 2% as Hispanic. American Indian/Alaskan and Asian/Pacific Islander students were less than 1% in each group. The breakdown of students by gender revealed that the majority of the students were female (55%) and attended college on a part-time basis (54%) (KCTCS, n.d.).

Kentucky Community Colleges and Faculty of Color Diversity

Although Kentucky has made significant strides to increase faculty of color, the distribution of faculty of color does not mirror the diversity present in America's population. Recruiting and maintaining faculty of color in rural areas in a culture that is not perceived as being multi-cultural is a plague Kentucky's educational institutions should address.

Over the past 29 years, Kentucky has operated under the auspices of the *Kentucky Plan* to increase faculty of color representation on college campuses. However, the plan specifically focused on increasing the African-American presence. The plan did not address globalizing Kentucky's institutions of higher learning or having nationally representative ratios for all ethnic minorities. This is relevant to the purpose and goals of Kentucky's educational institutions. Achieving and maintaining a diverse faculty offers world views and opportunities in step with a modern society that is not evident in the more limited diversity common within Kentucky communities. Findings from this study will contribute to understanding of the relationship(s) between faculty and institutional demographics and the perceptions of faculty of color regarding their work climate.

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Summary

There is no universally accepted definition of diversity. However, characteristics depicting diversity include the appreciation of individual differences that distinguish individuals such as race, gender, age, sexual orientation, ethnicity, disability, generational differences, and religious beliefs (Baumgartner & Johnson-Bailey, 2008; Caudron & Hayes, 1997; Chun & Evans, 2009; Michaels, 2006). The importance of diversity in higher education can be found in the benefits for students, faculty, staff, and the institution. Students benefit by learning to co-exist with others from diverse backgrounds in preparation to function in a global society (Bollinger, 2007). Faculty diversity provides support for students from diverse backgrounds and encourages the inclusion of diverse content and issues into the curricula (Smith & Schonfeld, 2000). However, diversifying faculty groups on campuses remains a struggle. Obstacles impeding faculty diversity fall into the categories of historical underrepresentation of minorities, higher education cultures, and social issues (Allen et al., 2000; Bower, 2002; Fong, 2000; Milem & Astin, 1993; Mohamed, 2010; Plata, 1996; Rowe, 1993; Smith, 2000; Sondik, Lucas, Madans, & Smith, 2000; Taylor et al., 2010).

One landmark diversity case involving higher education was the *Regents of the University of California v. Bakke* (1978) that involved a white male student who argued that his non-acceptance into medical school was a violation of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Other important notable cases included *Wygant v. Jackson Board of Education* (1986) and *Taxman v. Board of Education of the Township of Piscataway* (1997) both of which concerned race-based teacher layoffs in violation of the Equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment; the *University and Community College*

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System of Nevada v. Farmer (1997) that was related to race and gender violations under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act; and *Gratz v. Bollinger* (2003) and *Grutter v. Bollinger* (2003), both of which dealt with racial discrimination in college admission policies.

The relationship between job satisfaction and the perception of and satisfaction with home community is an important factor in the recruitment and retention of faculty of color. Matarrita-Cascante (2010) noted that there is a positive relationship between community services, conditions, community satisfaction, and quality of life. Theodori (2001) reported that community satisfaction was proportionately higher in rural residents than in their urban counterparts.

Although Kentucky has made significant strides to increase faculty of color, the distribution of faculty of color does not mirror the diversity present in America's population. Over the last two decades, Kentucky has operated under the provisions of the *Kentucky Plan* to increase African American representation on college campuses. However, the plan did not address increasing representation of all ethnic minorities. This is especially relevant to the purpose and goals of Kentucky's educational institutions. Achieving and maintaining a diverse faculty offers worldviews and opportunities in step with a modern society. According to a 2008 report by Kentucky's Council on Postsecondary Education, employment of African Americans in higher education improved slightly throughout the state between 1979 and 2006, with the largest gains noted in the employment of African American staff (an increase of 202%). African American administrators, managers, and faculty only increased by 2.3 to 4.2% during that same time period (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2008).

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The Kentucky Postsecondary Education Improvement Act of 1997 (House Bill 1) was responsible for creating the Kentucky Community and Technical College System (KCTCS). KCTCS is comprised of 16 colleges with over 65 campuses located throughout Kentucky. According to the *KCTCS Fact Book 2010-2011*, during the fall 2010 semester, faculty of color accounted for 6.1% of the total KCTCS full-time faculty. Since its inception, student enrollment in KCTCS colleges has exhibited steady growth. In 2010, there were 106,664 students enrolled in KCTCS colleges. Approximately 12% of students identified themselves as an ethnic minority.

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CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methodology used in the study including a brief overview of the purpose of the study, the research questions, and methodological details. Faculty of color remain underrepresented in Kentucky's community colleges. There was a need to understand what attracted faculty of color to the state as well as what kept them from choosing to leave. Kentucky had a history of little diversification in institutions of higher education, raising the question whether more isolated, less ethnically diverse colleges could create an environment that attracted and supported faculty of color. By asking questions, this researcher sought answers about whether community colleges and local community characteristics provided settings attractive for faculty of color. Though Kentucky had worked to increase faculty of color, this focus was largely concentrated on African-Americans, not the diversity present in the general American population. Additionally, Kentucky had difficulty recruiting faculty of color to very rural locations, especially those with a culture that is not perceived as being multi-cultural (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2008).

Purpose of the Study

The intent of this study was to investigate how faculty of color in the KCTCS perceived their work climate and their community in terms of diversity. In this study, faculty of color referred to college or university faculty who identified themselves as African American/Black, Asian/Pacific Islander, Latino/Hispanic, American Indian/Alaska Native, or biracial/multiracial. An understanding of the degree to which

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faculty of color experienced their workplace and home community to be diverse and/or supportive of diversity was accomplished through a survey. In addition, this study provides current data on the makeup of faculty of color within KCTCS and how the faculty members identify themselves ethnically and culturally. Results offer personal perceptions from faculty of color viewpoints, including opinions about both work and home settings, as well as provide comparisons between rural and urban locations and comparisons between different ethnic identities.

Research Questions

The over-arching research question guiding this study was: Do faculty of color find Kentucky community colleges and neighboring communities to be diverse and/or supportive of diversity?

Specific questions to be answered were:

1. What are the personal and professional characteristics of full-time faculty self-identified as being faculty of color employed by KCTCS including a) background and ethnicity, b) marital status and presence of dependent children, and c) employment and position?
2. To what extent do faculty of color perceive their work climate and home community to be diverse and/or supportive of diversity?
3. Are there differences in faculty of color perceptions of diversity based on ethnicity and/or other personal or professional characteristics?
4. Are there differences in faculty of color perceptions of diversity based on geographic location and/or environment?

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Research Design

This research relied primarily upon participant perceptions using quantitative data. Quantitative research is guided by the positivistic paradigm. The underlying philosophical approach to positivism is that phenomena are hard facts, and that the relationship between these facts establishes scientific laws. The goal is to produce objective data or knowledge that is independent of any social context (Al-Hamdan & Anthony, 2010). Quantitative research strategies use experimental and non-experimental designs in which data can be analyzed using statistical procedures (Creswell, 2009).

Correlational research was used to assist in the understanding of phenomena by identifying relationships among variables. This form of descriptive research was selected because it illustrated existing relationships between selected variables. Specifically, the researcher for this study attempted to describe the perceptions of faculty of color related to their work climate and the community in which they live, and the relationship among faculty perceptions, faculty characteristics, and geographic location.

A cross sectional survey was used as the data collection method. Survey research is a common method used to collect data that describes, explains, or explores a population too large to observe directly. It is also useful for measuring attitudes of respondents who mirror those in the larger population (Babbie, 2007). Creswell (2009) described survey research as a quantifiable representation of attitudes or trends of a population obtained by studying a smaller subsection of that population in order to generalize the findings from the sample to a population. Questionnaires as well as structured or unstructured interviews can serve as instruments for this type of data collection (Chadwick, Bahr, & Albrecht, 1984).

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A survey's design provides a numeric picture of trends and attitudes of a sample from which the investigator generalizes the findings to describe a larger population (Creswell, 2009). According to Babbie (1990), survey design falls into two basic categories: cross-sectional and longitudinal surveys. Cross-sectional surveys collect data at a specific point in time and are useful in describing phenomena or studying the relationships between variables occurring at the time of the study. Longitudinal surveys collect data at different points in time with the intent of studying changes occurring over time.

Selection and Identification of Participants

The population for this study was 242 full and part-time tenured, tenure-track, and non-tenure track faculty of color employed at a KCTCS college. The entire population of faculty of color was selected to be representative of ethnic diversity. Access to participants was obtained with the assistance of the Director of Human Resources for the Kentucky Community and Technical College System's office. The researcher talked, via telephone, with the Director of Human Resources and explained the details of the study and obtained the names and email addresses of the entire self-identified ethnic faculty of color within KCTCS.

Survey Instrument

Description of Original Instrument – Campus Diversity Survey

The original Campus Diversity Survey was developed in 1997-1998 by a group of member schools within the Association of Independent Colleges and Universities of

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Pennsylvania (Wilkes University, King’s College, Misericordia University, University of Scranton, and Marywood University). This group, known as “The Regional Consortium for Multicultural Education,” received a grant from the Foundation for Independent Higher Education to study campus diversity in the Northeastern Pennsylvania area. This original instrument was modified, with permission, from the one used by the University of Minnesota – Twin Cities. In 2005, a workgroup was convened to revise the instrument for a 2006 administration (B. Bogert, personal communication, October 23, 2012).

The 2008 version of the Campus Diversity Survey was developed from the two previous versions with a purpose of assessing student, staff, faculty, and administrator attitudes, behaviors, and experiences related to multiculturalism. In this version, part one identified respondent’s background information, part two measured campus experiences with diversity, part three examined attitudes and actions related to diversity, part four asked about experiences as members of specific groups, part five questioned respondents about their campus as a welcoming environment, part six explored diversity satisfaction levels with campus support services, and part seven was reserved for institution-specific questions.

Description of Modified Instrument Used in this Study – Faculty Diversity Survey

The Faculty Diversity Survey (see Appendix A), adapted with permission from the Association of Independent Colleges and Universities of Pennsylvania, was designed specifically for this study and was administered online. This instrument had three parts: part one asked for demographic information, and part two and part three measured faculty perceptions of their work climate and home community.

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Data from part one of the Faculty Diversity Survey provided a description of the sample. Items included in the demographic section included:

- gender,
- ethnic/racial identification,
- age,
- marital status,
- length of current employment,
- religious affiliation,
- presence of school age children living at home,
- dependent children attending college where participant employed,
- place of childhood upbringing,
- United States citizenship,
- faculty rank,
- highest degree earned,
- program/discipline in which teaching, and
- institution/campus of primary employment.

Part two and part three of the Faculty Diversity Survey measured faculty perceptions of work climate and home community. Part two, which measured faculty perceptions of work climate, contained 21 items exploring diversity issues affecting work climate. Part three contained 20 questions that measured faculty perceptions of diversity in their home community. The majority of items in these sections were presented on a 5-point Likert scale with point one denoting the lowest level of agreement, and point four

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the highest level of agreement, and point five denoting the respondent has no basis for judgment. Three items were presented on an ordinal scale in which respondents were asked to rank the frequency in which they had encountered identified events.

Validity and Reliability

Research on the validity and reliability of the Campus Diversity Survey had not been conducted. However, the Office of Information, Analysis, and Planning at Wilkes University has “aggregate statistics (frequency tables) which could be referenced as ‘norms’ perhaps based upon institutions using the Campus Diversity Survey since spring 2009...this includes 12 institutions with data for students and nine with data for faculty and staff” (B. Bogert, personal communication, October 23, 2012).

The validity and reliability of the Faculty Diversity Survey had not been established. To address this concern, the instrument was pilot-tested prior to the actual administration of the survey by administering the survey to 10 faculty of color from one of the KCTCS colleges. The survey, along with a letter of explanation and consent to participate, was sent to each participant. Upon conclusion of the instrument pilot study, each participant received a questionnaire seeking comments and suggestions regarding the appropriateness, meaningfulness, language, and clarity of the instrument and questions. Revisions to the instrument were made based on the feedback provided by the pilot participants.

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Data Collection

Prior to the beginning of the study, the researcher submitted an application to and received permission to conduct the study from the Eastern Kentucky University Institutional Review Board and the Kentucky Community and Technical College System Human Subjects Review Board. A letter was sent to each college president explaining the study, proposed uses for the data, the plan to work through the Director of Human Resources, and the process of obtaining EKU and KCTCS Institutional Review Board approval. An initial letter introducing the project and the forthcoming survey was emailed to participants and a reminder letter announcing the arrival date of the survey was emailed one week later. A recruitment letter and link to the electronic survey was then emailed to participants. The recruitment letter identified the researcher's name, role, institution, and the name and purpose of the project. Participants were informed of the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses, benefits of participation, and the date for survey completion. Information on participant withdrawal, data security, and researcher contact information was also included.

A follow-up email reminder was sent to participants four days later after the initial recruitment letter. At the end of the first data collection period, 58 (23.9%) participants had completed the survey. To obtain a higher response rate, the researcher sent another email reminder, letting subjects know that it was not too late to participate. Data collection ended two weeks after the initial letter and survey had been electronically delivered. Of the 242 participants invited to participate, 84 (34.7%) completed the survey.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

This section discusses the statistical tests that were used for each research question response. For research questions one and two, descriptive statistics (frequencies, means, and standard deviations) was used to describe the demographic characteristics of the participants and their perceptions of their work climate and their home community. A Shapiro-Wilk's test for normality was conducted to determine if the data were normally distributed prior to performing ANOVA tests. For research questions three and four, ANOVA's were calculated to examine group differences related to work climate and home community diversity and/or support for diversity based on ethnicity, personal and professional characteristics, and geographic location and environment. A Post-hoc test using Tukey HSD was conducted to determine which groups had significantly different perceptions on work climate and community environment.

Limitations and Delimitations

A limitation of this study was the possible effect of the small sample size upon participant honesty. Because the sample was small ($n = 62$) and only included faculty of color in Kentucky, it is possible that participants were concerned with being identified. Participant concerns about identification might have influenced them to respond to survey items in socially desirable ways. It is possible that social desirability influences resulted in responses that reflected more positive perceptions of work climates related to diversity and inclusiveness. Further, the small sample size used in this study may have been insufficient to illustrate differences in inclusiveness perceptions across the various demographic factors.

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Another limitation of this study is that non-faculty of color were not included in the sample. Because only faculty of color were included in the sample, it was not possible within this study to examine the proportion of minorities overall working in colleges and universities in Kentucky. It was therefore not possible within this study to investigate how the proportion of faculty of color in Kentucky compare with the minority population rates overall. Further, because the sample only included faculty of color, it was not possible within this study to compare perceptions of diversity inclusiveness of faculty of color against such perceptions among non-faculty of color.

Because all of the participants were working within Kentucky, the findings of this study may be especially reflective of faculty member experiences in this region. It is possible that findings are not generalizable to other regions of the United States. Finally, because this study utilized survey data that were analyzed quantitatively, it was not possible to explore the reasons for faculty of colors' perceptions of work climate and home environment inclusiveness.

A delimitation of the study is the conscious decision to use only the public two-year institutions within Kentucky. Due to the uniqueness of this community college system, and its relatively young age, generalizations to populations outside the system will not be undertaken. Although the specificity of this project's title and narrow focus made this study manageable within a prescribed amount of time, the data obtained may provide only a glimpse into the true feelings and experiences of this group of faculty. The rich context that in-depth interviews can provide is not readily discovered through survey questions (Patten, 1998).

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Summary

Faculty of color remain underrepresented in Kentucky's community colleges resulting in a need to understand what attracted faculty of color to the state as well as what kept them from leaving. The aim of this study was to investigate how faculty of color in the KCTCS perceived their work climate and their community in terms of diversity.

The Faculty Diversity Survey was used to seek an understanding of the degree to which faculty of color experienced their workplace and home community to be diverse and/or supportive of diversity. Results offer personal perceptions from faculty of color viewpoints, including opinions about both work and home settings, as well as provide comparisons between rural and urban locations and comparisons between different ethnic identities.

The research question guiding this study were: Do faculty of color find Kentucky community colleges and neighboring communities to be diverse and/or supportive of diversity? Specific questions to be answered are:

1. What are the personal and professional characteristics of full-time faculty self-identified as being faculty of color employed by KCTCS including a) background and ethnicity, b) marital and family life characteristics, and c) employment and position?
2. To what extent do faculty of color perceive their work climate and home community to be diverse and/or supportive of diversity?
3. Are there differences in faculty of color perceptions of diversity based on ethnicity and/or other personal or professional characteristics?

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4. Are there differences in faculty of color perceptions of diversity based on geographic location and/or environment?

This research project relied primarily upon participant perceptions using quantitative data. The Faculty Diversity Survey, adapted with permission from the Association of Independent Colleges and Universities of Pennsylvania, was designed specifically for this study and were administered online. This instrument had three parts: part one asked for demographic information, and parts two and three measured faculty perceptions of their work climate and home community. The population for this study included full-time tenured, tenure-track, and non-tenure track faculty of color employed at one of the KCTCS colleges. The entire population of faculty of color was selected to be representative of ethnic diversity.

Prior to the actual administration of the survey, the validity and reliability of the Faculty Diversity Survey was established through pilot-testing by administering the survey to 10 faculty of color from one of the KCTCS colleges. Revisions to the instrument were made based on the feedback provided by the pilot participants.

Data analysis was conducted using descriptive statistics and ANOVA's. Descriptive statistics (frequencies, means, and standard deviations) described the demographic characteristics of the participants and their perceptions of their work climate and their home community. ANOVAs were calculated to examine group differences related to work climate and home community diversity and/or support for diversity based on ethnicity, personal and professional characteristics, and geographic location and

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environment. Tukey HSD tests were conducted to determine which groups had significantly different perceptions of their work climate and community environment.

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CHAPTER IV RESULTS AND FINDINGS

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational research was to investigate how faculty of color in the KCTCS perceived their work climate and their community in terms of diversity. The study sought answers about whether community colleges and local community characteristics provided settings attractive for faculty of color. The study investigated how faculty of color in the KCTCS perceived their work climate and their community in terms of diversity. The faculty of color identified themselves as: African American/Black, Asian/Pacific Islander, Latino/Hispanic, American Indian/Alaska Native, or biracial/multiracial. Data on how the faculty of color perceived their workplace and home community to be diverse and/or supportive of diversity were collected through a survey instrument.

The research questions that guided this study were:

Research Question 1: What are the personal and professional characteristics of full-time faculty self-identified as being faculty of color employed by KCTCS including a) background and ethnicity, b) marital status and presence of dependent children, and c) employment and position?

Research Question 2: To what extent do faculty of color perceive their work climate and home community to be diverse and/or supportive of diversity?

Research Question 3: Are there differences in faculty of color perceptions of diversity based on ethnicity and/or other personal or professional characteristics?

Research Question 4: Are there differences in faculty of color perceptions of diversity based on geographic location and/or environment?

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Results for the Statistical Tests for Research Questions 1 and 2

Description of the Sample

Initially, the sample size was composed of 84 individuals who identified themselves as faculty members of color employed at a KCTCS college. After the survey responses were collected and examined, there were several individuals that had missing responses. Data cleaning was conducted based on the main variables of interest, the continuous variables of faculty perceptions of work climate and community environment. Individuals that had missing responses to the questions pertaining to these variables were removed, thus, arriving at the final sample size of 62 individuals. This section will provide the descriptive information of the study participants, as well as provide answers to research questions one and two.

Demographic information. The demographic information presented in this section are the following: employment status, gender, age, religion, race/ethnicity, highest degree earned, setting before present college, place of childhood upbringing, marital status, having dependent children (age 18 years or below), faculty rank, and years employed at community college. Demographic information was categorized according to employment status (part-time and full-time). In addition to presenting the demographic information of the participants, this section answers the first research question. For the demographic information presented in the frequency tables, some participants were unable to provide responses to some demographic questions, but had complete responses for the study variables. As such, these missing responses for the demographic information will be presented as 'No Response' in the frequency tables.

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Table 2 presents the frequency table of employment status of the sample. As observed, majority of the participants were full-time employed, with 82.3% ($n = 51$) being full-time faculty. Of the total, 17.7% ($n = 11$) were employed part-time.

Table 2:

Frequency table of employment status

	Frequency	Percent
Part-time	11	17.7
Full-time	51	82.3
Total	62	100.0

Table 3 presents the frequency table of gender according to employment status. For the part-time faculty, around half ($n = 6$, 54.5%) were male, and the other half ($n = 5$, 45.5%) were female. For the full-time faculty, 37.3% ($n = 19$) were male, and 62.7% ($n = 32$) were female.

Table 3:

Frequency table of gender

		Frequency	Percent
Part-time	Male	6	54.5
	Female	5	45.5
	Total	11	100.0
Full-time	Male	19	37.3
	Female	32	62.7
	Total	51	100.0

Note. Frequency table of gender according to employment status.

Faculty of color at Kentucky colleges include a broad range of age, among those employed both part-time and full-time. As Table 4 shows, a comparatively higher percentage of part-time faculty members are younger compared to full-time faculty members, where there was an even distribution across the age ranges. Table 4 presents the frequency table of age according to employment status. For the part-time faculty,

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18.2% ($n = 2$) were under 30 years of age, 36.4% ($n = 4$) were 30-39 years of age, 27.3% ($n = 3$) were 40-49 years of age, 9.1% ($n = 1$) were 60 years or older, with one participant unable to provide the age. For the full-time faculty, 21.6% ($n = 11$) were 30-39 years of age, 27.5% ($n = 14$) were 40-49 years of age, 25.5% ($n = 13$) were 50-59 years of age, and 25.5% ($n = 13$) were 60 years or older.

Table 4:

Frequency table of age

		Frequency	Percent
Part-time	Under 30 years	2	18.2
	30-39 years	4	36.4
	40-49 years	3	27.3
	60 years or older	1	9.1
	Total	10	90.9
Full-time	30-39 years	11	21.6
	40-49 years	14	27.5
	50-59 years	13	25.5
	60 years or older	13	25.5
	Total	51	100.0

Note. Frequency table of age according to employment status.

Faculty of color at Kentucky colleges include a broad range of religions for full-time faculty members, while the part-time faculty members belonged to a smaller number of religions. While the part-time faculty members are characterized by a fewer number of religions as compared to full-time faculty members, a considerable number were Protestant, with majority of the part-time faculty members being Protestant, and close to half of the full-time faculty members being Protestant, as observed in Table 5. Table 5 presents the frequency table of religion by employment status. For the part-time employed, majority were Protestant ($n = 8, 72.7\%$), 9.1% ($n = 1$) were Buddhist, and 18.2% ($n = 2$) had Other religion. For the full-time employed, 7.8% ($n = 4$) had no

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religion, 2% ($n = 1$) were Buddhist, 7.8% ($n = 4$) were Hindu, 3.9% ($n = 2$) were Muslim, 45.1% ($n = 23$) were Protestant, 15.7% ($n = 8$) were Roman Catholic, 5.9% ($n = 3$) were Other Christian, and 11.8% ($n = 6$) had Other religion.

Table 5:

Frequency table of religion

		Frequency	Percent
Part-time	Buddhist	1	9.1
	Protestant (e.g., Lutheran, Methodist)	8	72.7
	Other	2	18.2
	Total	11	100.0
Full-time	No religion	4	7.8
	Buddhist	1	2.0
	Hindu	4	7.8
	Muslim	2	3.9
	Protestant (e.g., Lutheran, Methodist)	23	45.1
	Roman Catholic	8	15.7
	Other Christian (e.g., Mormon, Jehovah)	3	5.9
	Other	6	11.8
	Total	51	100.0

Note. Frequency table of religion according to employment status.

Faculty of color at Kentucky colleges are characterized by a broad range of races, as observed in Table 6. It should be noted however, that for both part-time and full-time faculty members, the majority were African American/Black, followed by Asian/Pacific Islander. Table 6 presents frequency table of race/ethnicity by employment status. For part-time, 72.7% ($n = 8$) were African American/Black, 18.2% ($n = 2$) were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 9.1% ($n = 1$) were biracial/multiracial. For full-time, around half ($n = 26$, 51%) were African American/Black, 2% ($n = 1$) were American Indian/Alaskan Native/Aleut, 25.5% ($n = 13$) were Asian/ Pacific Islander, 3.9% ($n = 2$) were biracial/multiracial, 13.7% ($n = 7$) were Chicano/Latino/Hispanic, and 3.9% ($n = 2$) were under Other race/ethnicity.

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Table 6:

Frequency table of race

		Frequency	Percent
Part-time	African American/Black	8	72.7
	Asian/Pacific Islander	2	18.2
	Biracial/Multiracial	1	9.1
	Total	11	100.0
Full-time	African American/Black	26	51.0
	American Indian/Alaskan Native/Aleut	1	2.0
	Asian/Pacific Islander	13	25.5
	Biracial/Multiracial	2	3.9
	Chicano/Latino/Hispanic	7	13.7
	Other	2	3.9
	Total	51	100.0

Note. Frequency table of race according to employment status.

Majority of the faculty of color at Kentucky colleges, for both part-time and full-time faculty members, have master’s degrees or higher, as Table 7 shows. Table 7 presents the frequency table of the highest degree earned by employment status. For the part-time faculty, 9.1% ($n = 1$) had associate degree as the highest degree earned, around half ($n = 6$, 54.5%) had master’s degree, 27.3% ($n = 3$) had doctorate degree, while 9.1% ($n = 1$) had Other degrees. For the full-time faculty, 3.9% ($n = 2$) had associate degree as the highest degree, 3.9% ($n = 2$) had bachelor’s degree, more than half ($n = 34$, 66.7%) had master’s degree, 23.5% ($n = 12$) had doctorate degree, while 2% ($n = 1$) had Other degrees.

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Table 7:

Frequency table of highest degree earned

		Frequency	Percent
Part-time	Associate degree	1	9.1
	Master's degree	6	54.5
	Doctorate	3	27.3
	Other	1	9.1
	Total	11	100.0
Full-time	Associate degree	2	3.9
	Bachelor's degree	2	3.9
	Master's degree	34	66.7
	Doctorate	12	23.5
	Other	1	2.0
	Total	51	100.0

Note. Frequency table of highest degree earned according to employment status.

Part-time and full-time faculty of color of Kentucky colleges were from different settings before moving to their present colleges. But as observed in Table 8, for both part-time and full-time faculty members, majority comes from large cities or metropolitans. Table 8 presents the frequency table of the setting the participant spent most of their lives in before their present college. For the part-time participants, 36.4% ($n = 4$) were previously in a small city, and 63.6% ($n = 7$) were in a large city or metropolitan. For the full-time participants, 31.4% ($n = 16$) were previously in a small city, 23.5% ($n = 12$) were in a rural or agricultural city/farming area, and 45.1% ($n = 23$) were in a large city or metropolitan.

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Table 8:

Frequency table of setting before present college

		Frequency	Percent
Part-time	Small city	4	36.4
	Large city or metropolitan	7	63.6
	Total	11	100.0
Full-time	Small city	16	31.4
	Rural or agricultural city/farming area	12	23.5
	Large city or metropolitan	23	45.1
	Total	51	100.0

Note. Frequency table of setting before present college according to employment status.

Faculty of color at Kentucky colleges come from outside and within the United States (US), for both part-time and full-time. Majority however, for both part-time and full-time faculty members, were from within the US, being their place of childhood upbringing. Table 9 presents the place of childhood upbringing of the participants, whether outside or within the US. For the part-time faculty, 18.2% ($n = 2$) were brought up outside the US, while majority ($n = 9$, 81.8%) were brought up in the US. For the full-time faculty, 23.5% ($n = 12$) were brought up outside the US, while majority ($n = 38$, 74.5%) were brought up in the US, and 1 participant failed to provide the place of childhood upbringing.

Table 9:

Frequency table of place of upbringing

		Frequency	Percent
Part-time	Outside US	2	18.2
	Within US	9	81.8
	Total	11	100.0
Full-time	Outside US	12	23.5
	Within US	38	74.5
	Total	50	98.0
	No response	1	2.0

Note. Frequency table of place of upbringing according to employment status.

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Faculty of color at Kentucky colleges are either divorced, married, single, or had deceased spouses. It should be noted though, as shown in Table 10, that for both part-time and full-time faculty members, many of the faculty of color are married. Table 10 presents the frequency table of marital status of the participants. For the part-time faculty, 27.3% ($n = 3$) were divorced, 45.5% ($n = 5$) were married, and 27.3% ($n = 3$) were single or never married. For the full-time faculty, 13.7% ($n = 7$) were divorced, 60.8% ($n = 31$) were married, 21.6% ($n = 11$) were single or never married, and 3.9% ($n = 2$) had deceased spouses.

Table 10:

Frequency table of marital status

		Frequency	Percent
Part-time	Divorced	3	27.3
	Married	5	45.5
	Single, never married	3	27.3
	Total	11	100.0
Full-time	Divorced	7	13.7
	Married	31	60.8
	Single, never married	11	21.6
	Spouse deceased	2	3.9
	Total	51	100.0

Note. Frequency table of marital status according to employment status.

Around half of the faculty of color at Kentucky colleges, for both part-time and full-time, have children, as shown in Table 11. Table 11 presents the frequency table of the participants whether they had dependent children age 18 years or below. For the part-time faculty, 54.5% ($n = 6$) had no dependent children, while 45.5% ($n = 5$) had dependent children age 18 years or below. For the full-time faculty, 58.8% ($n = 30$) had no dependent children, while 41.2% ($n = 21$) had dependent children age 18 years or below.

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Table 11:

Frequency table of having dependent children (age 18 years or younger)

		Frequency	Percent
Part-time	No	6	54.5
	Yes	5	45.5
	Total	11	100.0
Full-time	No	30	58.8
	Yes	21	41.2
	Total	51	100.0

Note. Frequency table of having children under 18 years of age according to employment status.

Part-time faculty of color at Kentucky colleges were mostly of the instructor rank, while the ranks for full-time faculty members were of a wide range, including: instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, and professor. Table 12 presents the faculty ranks of the participants. For the part-time faculty, most of them had the rank of instructor ($n = 10, 90.9\%$), while only 9.1% ($n = 1$) had Other ranks. For the full-time faculty, 17.6% ($n = 9$) were instructors, 19.6% ($n = 10$) were assistant professors, 29.4% ($n = 15$) were associate professors, 31.4% ($n = 16$) were professors, and 2% ($n = 1$) had Other ranks.

Table 12:

Frequency table of faculty ranks

		Frequency	Percent
Part-time	Instructor	10	90.9
	Other	1	9.1
	Total	11	100.0
Full-time	Instructor	9	17.6
	Assistant professor	10	19.6
	Associate professor	15	29.4
	Professor	16	31.4
	Other	1	2.0
	Total	51	100.0

Note. Frequency table of faculty ranks according to employment status.

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While part-time faculty of color at Kentucky colleges were employed in their respective community colleges for the longest period of 4-6 years, full-time faculty members were employed for the longest period including 11 years or more. Table 13 presents the frequency table of the number of years employed at community college. For the part-time faculty, 18.2% ($n = 2$) were employed for less than 1 year, 27.3% ($n = 3$) were employed for 1-3 years, 54.5% ($n = 6$) were employed for 4-6 years. For the full-time faculty, 11.8% ($n = 6$) were employed for 1-3 years, 17.6% ($n = 9$) were employed for 4-6 years, 15.7% ($n = 8$) were employed for 7-10 years, and 54.9% ($n = 28$) were employed for 11 years or more.

Table 13:

Frequency table years employed at community college

		Frequency	Percent
Part-time	Less than 1 year	2	18.2
	1-3 years	3	27.3
	4-6 years	6	54.5
	Total	11	100.0
Full-time	1-3 years	6	11.8
	4-6 years	9	17.6
	7-10 years	8	15.7
	11 years or more	28	54.9
	Total	51	100.0

Note. Frequency table of years employed at community college according to employment status.

Study variables. The study variables were faculty perceptions of work climate, and faculty perceptions of community environment. Data for these variables were computed from the 5-scale items of the survey, under Part 2: Faculty Perceptions of Work Climate, and Part 3: Faculty Perceptions of Community Environment, respectively, by taking the average of the responses of the questions. Before computing for the means, responses for questions that were leaning toward a more positive outcome were recoded

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in reverse such that the responses are in line with the other questions, which were leaning toward a more negative outcome, with a higher value representing a more negative outcome. As such, the variables of work climate and community environment were operationalized in that a higher value represents a more negative perception. In addition to presenting the descriptive statistics of the study variables, this section answers the second research question.

The study variable of perceptions of work climate and community environment were presented in this section in two ways, with the sample as a whole, and with the sample categorized according to employment status. Table 14 presents the descriptive statistics of work climate and community environment with the sample as a whole. As observed, for work climate, the minimum value was 1.5, while the maximum value was 3.65, with an average of 2.35 ($SD = 0.45$). For community environment, the minimum value was 1.67, while the maximum value was 4.75, with an average of 3 ($SD = 0.66$).

Table 14:

Descriptive statistics of perceptions of work climate and community environments

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Work climate	62	1.50	3.65	2.3511	.44726
Community environment	62	1.67	4.75	3.0000	.66410

Note. N=number of participants; Std. Deviation=Standard Deviation.

Part-time faculty of color were observed to have lower scores for the perceptions of work climate and community environment as compared to their full-time counterparts, which indicates that part-time faculty of color were observed to have more positive perceptions of work climate and community environment than full-time faculty of color.

Table 15 presents the descriptive statistics of the perceptions of work climate and

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community environment of the participants categorized by employment status. For the part-time faculty, work climate had a minimum value of 1.85, a maximum value of 2.85, and an average of 2.20 ($SD = 0.34$). Community environment for the part-time faculty had a minimum value of 1.67, a maximum value of 3.67, and an average of 2.71 ($SD = 0.57$). For the full-time faculty, work climate had a minimum value of 1.50, a maximum value of 3.65, and an average of 2.38 ($SD = 0.46$). Community environment for the full-time faculty had a minimum value of 1.92, a maximum value of 4.75, and an average of 3.06 ($SD = 0.67$).

Table 15:

Descriptive statistics of perceptions of work climate and community environment according to employment status

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Part-time	Work climate	11	1.85	2.85	2.1993	.34134
	Community environment	11	1.67	3.67	2.7121	.57417
Full-time	Work climate	51	1.50	3.65	2.3839	.46323
	Community environment	51	1.92	4.75	3.0621	.67079

Note. N=number of participants; Std. Deviation=Standard Deviation.

Test for Normality

Before the analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were performed, the continuous variables of perceptions of work climate and community environment were subjected to tests for normality, to determine whether the data were normally distributed or not. Using the Shapiro-Wilk's test for normality, data of the variables for work climate and community environment were found to be normally distributed ($p = 0.279, 0.137$, respectively).

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Table 16:

Shapiro-Wilk's test for normality for work climate and community environment

	Statistic	df	Sig.
Work climate	.977	62	.279
Community environment	.970	62	.137

Note. df=degrees of freedom; Sig=Significance; $p > .05$.

Results for the Statistical Tests for Research Question 3

This section presents the results of the ANOVA tests for the third research question. The third research question asks whether there are differences in faculty of color perceptions of diversity based on ethnicity and/or other personal or professional characteristics. The dependent variables were work climate and community environment. Several ANOVAs were conducted with the following independent variables: race/ethnicity, gender, age, marital status, years employed at community college, faculty rank, employment status, and religion.

From the results of the ANOVA tests presented in the following sections, statistically significant differences in perception of community environment were observed between different age groups, while statistically significant differences in perception of work climate were found between different groups of marital status. Faculty of color at Kentucky colleges were discovered to have statistically significant differences in perception of community environment among the different age groups, specifically, those of the age group of 30-39 years had more negative perceptions of community environment as compared to those aged 60 years or older. The faculty members were also reported to have statistically significant differences among the

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different groups of marital status, specifically, faculty members with deceased spouses had more negative perceptions of work climate than those who were divorced.

Perceptions of work climate and community environment and race/ethnicity.

The first set of ANOVA tests were conducted for the work climate and community environment, with race/ethnicity as the independent variable. Table 17 presents the results of the ANOVA test for race/ethnicity as the IV, and work climate as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in perception of work climate between the different groups of race/ethnicity from the ANOVA test ($F(4, 57) = 1.159, p = 0.339$).

Table 17:

ANOVA table for race/ethnicity (IV) and work climate (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Work climate	Between Groups	.918	4	.229	1.159	.339
	Within Groups	11.285	57	.198		
	Total	12.203	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Table 18 presents the results of the ANOVA test for race/ethnicity as the IV, and community environment as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in the perception of community environment between the different groups of race/ethnicity from the ANOVA test ($F(4, 57) = 0.521, p = 0.721$).

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Table 18:

ANOVA table for race/ethnicity (IV) and community environment (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Community environment	Between Groups	.948	4	.237	.521	.721
	Within Groups	25.954	57	.455		
	Total	26.903	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Perceptions of work climate and community environment and gender. The second set of ANOVA tests were conducted for the work climate and community environment, with gender as the independent variable. Table 19 presents the results of the ANOVA test for gender as the IV, and work climate as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in perception of work climate between gender from the ANOVA test ($F(1, 60) = 1.469, p = 0.230$).

Table 19:

ANOVA table for gender (IV) and work climate (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Work climate	Between Groups	.292	1	.292	1.469	.230
	Within Groups	11.911	60	.199		
	Total	12.203	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Table 20 presents the results of the ANOVA test for gender as the IV, and community environment as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in the perception of community environment between gender from the ANOVA test ($F(1, 60) = 0.104, p = 0.748$).

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Table 20:

ANOVA table for gender (IV) and community environment (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Community environment	Between Groups	.047	1	.047	.104	.748
	Within Groups	26.856	60	.448		
	Total	26.903	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Perceptions of work climate and community environment and age. The third set of ANOVA tests were conducted for the work climate and community environment, with age as the independent variable. As for the variable of age, one participant failed to provide the age, as such, the effective sample here was 60 participants. Table 21 presents the results of the ANOVA test for age as the IV, and work climate as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in perception of work climate between the different age groups from the ANOVA test ($F(4, 56) = 0.500, p = 0.736$).

Table 21:

ANOVA table for age (IV) and work climate (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Work climate	Between Groups	.412	4	.103	.500	.736
	Within Groups	11.532	56	.206		
	Total	11.943	60			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Table 22 presents the results of the ANOVA test for age as the IV, and community environment as the DV. As observed, it was determined from the ANOVA test that there were statistically significant differences in the perception of community environment between the different age groups from the ANOVA test ($F(4, 60) = 3.070, p$

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= 0.023). To which groups had significantly different perceptions on community environment, a post-hoc test using Tukey HSD was conducted.

Table 22:

ANOVA table for age (IV) and community environment (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Community environment	Between Groups	4.834	4	1.208	3.070	.023
	Within Groups	22.041	56	.394		
	Total	26.875	60			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p < .05$.

As observed in Table 23, the statistically significant difference in perception of community environment was between the age groups of 30-39 years and 60 years or older ($p = 0.014$). Taking into account the mean difference between the two, faculty of color aged 30-39 years had higher perception of community environment compared to those aged 60 years or older. This indicates that those aged 30-39 years had a more negative perception of community environment as compared to those aged 60 years or older.

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Table 23:

Tukey HSD post-hoc test for age (IV) and community environment (DV)

Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Community environment	Under 30 years	30-39 years	-.73333	.47226	.533	-2.0645	.5978
		40-49 years	-.24510	.46898	.985	-1.5670	1.0768
		50-59 years	-.44872	.47652	.879	-1.7918	.8944
		60 years or older	.03571	.47424	1.000	-1.3010	1.3724
	30-39 years	Under 30 years	.73333	.47226	.533	-.5978	2.0645
		40-49 years	.48824	.22224	.196	-.1382	1.1147
		50-59 years	.28462	.23773	.753	-.3855	.9547
		60 years or older	.76905*	.23313	.014	.1119	1.4262
	40-49 years	Under 30 years	.24510	.46898	.985	-1.0768	1.5670
		30-39 years	-.48824	.22224	.196	-1.1147	.1382
		50-59 years	-.20362	.23114	.903	-.8551	.4479
		60 years or older	.28081	.22642	.728	-.3574	.9190
	50-59 years	Under 30 years	.44872	.47652	.879	-.8944	1.7918
		30-39 years	-.28462	.23773	.753	-.9547	.3855
		40-49 years	.20362	.23114	.903	-.4479	.8551
		60 years or older	.48443	.24164	.277	-.1967	1.1655
	60 years or older	Under 30 years	-.03571	.47424	1.000	-1.3724	1.3010
		30-39 years	-.76905*	.23313	.014	-1.4262	-.1119
		40-49 years	-.28081	.22642	.728	-.9190	.3574
		50-59 years	-.48443	.24164	.277	-1.1655	.1967

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Perceptions of work climate and community environment and marital status.

The fourth set of ANOVA tests were conducted for the work climate and community environment, with marital status as the independent variable. Table 24 presents the results of the ANOVA test for marital status as the IV, and work climate as the DV. As observed, it was determined from the ANOVA test that there were statistically significant differences in the perception of work climate between the different groups of marital status from the ANOVA test ($F(3, 58) = 3.364, p = 0.025$). To which groups had significantly different perceptions on work climate, a post-hoc test using Tukey HSD was conducted.

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Table 24:

ANOVA table for marital status (IV) and work climate (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Work climate	Between Groups	1.809	3	.603	3.364	.025
	Within Groups	10.394	58	.179		
	Total	12.203	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p < .05$.

As observed in Table 25, the statistically significant differences in perception of work climate were between the marital status groups of divorced and spouse deceased ($p = 0.029$), and married and spouse deceased ($p = 0.024$). Taking into account the mean differences, faculty of color who had deceased spouses had higher perceptions of work climate than those who were divorced. This indicates that faculty of color with deceased spouses had a more negative perception on work climate than those who were divorced. Faculty of color who had deceased spouses also had higher perceptions of work climate than those who were married. This indicates that faculty of color with deceased spouses had a more negative perception on work climate than those who were married. As such, those who had deceased spouses had significantly more negative perceptions of work climate than those who were divorced and who were married.

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Table 25:

Tukey HSD post-hoc test for marital status (IV) and work climate (DV)

Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Work climate	Divorced	Married	-.03568	.15132	.995	-.4359	.3646
		Single, never married	-.20495	.17527	.648	-.6686	.2587
		Spouse deceased	-.93846*	.32791	.029	-1.8058	-.0711
	Married	Divorced	.03568	.15132	.995	-.3646	.4359
		Single, never married	-.16926	.13334	.586	-.5219	.1834
		Spouse deceased	-.90278*	.30754	.024	-1.7163	-.0893
	Single, never married	Divorced	.20495	.17527	.648	-.2587	.6686
		Married	.16926	.13334	.586	-.1834	.5219
		Spouse deceased	-.73352	.32001	.112	-1.5800	.1129
	Spouse deceased	Divorced	.93846*	.32791	.029	.0711	1.8058
		Married	.90278*	.30754	.024	.0893	1.7163
		Single, never married	.73352	.32001	.112	-.1129	1.5800

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Table 26 presents the results of the ANOVA test for marital status as the IV, and community environment as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in the perception of community environment between the groups of marital status from the ANOVA test ($F(3, 58) = 2.293, p = 0.088$).

Table 26:

ANOVA table for marital status (IV) and community environment (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Community environment	Between Groups	2.852	3	.951	2.293	.088
	Within Groups	24.051	58	.415		
	Total	26.903	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance.; $p > .05$.

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Perceptions of work climate and community environment and years

employed at community college. The fifth set of ANOVA tests were conducted for the work climate and community environment, with years employed at community college as the independent variable. Table 27 presents the results of the ANOVA test for years employed at community college as the IV, and work climate as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in perception of work climate between the different groups of years employed at community college from the ANOVA test ($F(4, 57) = 0.099, p = 0.982$).

Table 27:

ANOVA table for years employed at community college (IV) and work climate (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Work climate	Between Groups	.084	4	.021	.099	.982
	Within Groups	12.118	57	.213		
	Total	12.203	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Table 28 presents the results of the ANOVA test for years employed at community college as the IV, and community environment as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in the perception of community environment between the different groups of years employed at community college from the ANOVA test ($F(4, 57) = 0.937, p = 0.449$).

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Table 28:

ANOVA table for years employed at community college (IV) and community environment (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Community environment	Between Groups	1.659	4	.415	.937	.449
	Within Groups	25.244	57	.443		
	Total	26.903	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Perceptions of work climate and community environment and faculty rank.

The sixth set of ANOVA tests were conducted for the work climate and community environment, with faculty rank as the independent variable. Table 29 presents the results of the ANOVA test for faculty rank as the IV, and work climate as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in perception of work climate between the different groups of faculty rank from the ANOVA test ($F(4, 57) = 0.827, p = 0.514$).

Table 29:

ANOVA table for faculty rank (IV) and work climate (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Work climate	Between Groups	.669	4	.167	.827	.514
	Within Groups	11.534	57	.202		
	Total	12.203	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Table 30 presents the results of the ANOVA test for faculty rank as the IV, and community environment as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in the perception of community environment between the different groups of faculty rank from the ANOVA test ($F(4, 57) = 2.164, p = 0.085$).

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Table 30:

ANOVA table for faculty rank (IV) and community environment (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Community environment	Between Groups	3.548	4	.887	2.164	.085
	Within Groups	23.355	57	.410		
	Total	26.903	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Perceptions of work climate and community environment and employment

status. The seventh set of ANOVA tests were conducted for the work climate and community environment, with employment status as the independent variable. Table 31 presents the results of the ANOVA test for employment status as the IV, and work climate as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in perception of work climate between the part-time and full-time faculty from the ANOVA test ($F(1, 60) = 1.555, p = 0.217$).

Table 31:

ANOVA table for employment status (IV and work climate (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Work climate	Between Groups	.308	1	.308	1.555	.217
	Within Groups	11.894	60	.198		
	Total	12.203	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Table 32 presents the results of the ANOVA test for employment status as the IV, and community environment as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in the perception of community environment between the part-time and full-time faculty from the ANOVA test ($F(1, 60) = 2.578, p = 0.114$).

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Table 32:

ANOVA table for employment status (IV) and community environment (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Community environment	Between Groups	1.108	1	1.108	2.578	.114
	Within Groups	25.795	60	.430		
	Total	26.903	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Perceptions of work climate and community environment and religion. The eighth set of ANOVA tests were conducted for the work climate and community environment, with religion as the independent variable. Table 33 presents the results of the ANOVA test for religion as the IV, and work climate as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in perception of work climate between the different groups of religion from the ANOVA test ($F(7, 54) = 1.478, p = 0.195$).

Table 33:

ANOVA table for religion (IV) and work climate (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Work climate	Between Groups	1.962	7	.280	1.478	.195
	Within Groups	10.240	54	.190		
	Total	12.203	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Table 34 presents the results of the ANOVA test for religion as the IV, and community environment as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in the perception of community environment between the different groups of religion from the ANOVA test ($F(7, 54) = 0.860, p = 0.544$).

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Table 34:

ANOVA table for relation (IV) and community environment (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Community environment	Between Groups	2.698	7	.385	.860	.544
	Within Groups	24.205	54	.448		
	Total	26.903	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Summary for Research Question 3 analyses findings. The third research question was addressed through conducting several ANOVA tests, with perceptions of work climate and community environment as the dependent variables, and the demographic variables of: race/ethnicity, gender, age, marital status, years employed at community college, faculty rank, employment status, and religion, as the independent variables. ANOVA results were only statistically significant between community environment and age groups, and work climate and marital status. The findings showed that for the perceptions of community environment were statistically significantly different between age groups, specifically, scores for perceptions of community environment were significantly higher for 30-39 year old faculty members as compared to faculty members 60 years or older. This shows that faculty member aged 30-39 years old had more negative perceptions of community environment as compared to faculty members aged 60 years or older. Perceptions of work climate were statistically significantly different between marital status, specifically, scores for work climate were significantly higher for faculty members with deceased spouses as compared to those who were divorced. This shows that faculty members with divorced spouses had more negative perceptions of work climate as compared to divorced faculty members.

Results for the Statistical Tests for Research Question 4

This section presents the results of the ANOVA tests for the fourth research question. The fourth research question asks whether there are differences in faculty of color perceptions of diversity based on geographic location and/or environment. The dependent variables were work climate and community environment. Two ANOVAs were conducted with the independent variables of place of childhood upbringing and setting before current college. From the results of the ANOVA tests presented in the following sections, there were no statistically significant differences in perceptions of work climate and community environment between place of childhood upbringing and between setting before current college.

Perceptions of work climate and community environment and place of childhood upbringing. The first set of ANOVA tests were conducted for the work climate and community environment, with place of childhood upbringing as the independent variable. As mentioned while presenting the descriptive information, one participant was unable to provide the place of childhood upbringing, as such, the effective sample size for this set of ANOVAs was 60 participants. Table 35 presents the results of the ANOVA test for place of childhood upbringing as the IV, and work climate as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in perception of work climate between the different groups of place of childhood upbringing from the ANOVA test ($F(1, 59) = 0.015, p = 0.904$).

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Table 35:

ANOVA table for place of childhood upbringing (IV) and work climate (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Work climate	Between Groups	.003	1	.003	.015	.904
	Within Groups	12.022	59	.204		
	Total	12.025	60			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Table 36 presents the results of the ANOVA test for place of childhood upbringing as the IV, and community environment as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in the perception of community environment between the different groups of place of childhood upbringing from the ANOVA test ($F(1, 59) = 0.466, p = 0.497$).

Table 36:

ANOVA table for place of childhood upbringing (IV) and community environment (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Community environment	Between Groups	.198	1	.198	.466	.497
	Within Groups	25.116	59	.426		
	Total	25.315	60			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Perceptions of work climate and community environment and setting before current college. The second set of ANOVA tests were conducted for the work climate and community environment, with setting before current college as the independent variable. Table 37 presents the results of the ANOVA test for setting before current college as the IV, and work climate as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in perception of work climate between the different groups of setting before current college from the ANOVA test ($F(2, 59) = 0.853, p = 0.431$).

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Table 37:

ANOVA table for place of setting before current college (IV) and work climate (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Work climate	Between Groups	.343	2	.171	.853	.431
	Within Groups	11.860	59	.201		
	Total	12.203	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Table 38 presents the results of the ANOVA test for setting before current college as the IV, and community environment as the DV. As observed, there was no statistically significant difference in the perception of community environment between the different groups of setting before current college from the ANOVA test ($F(2, 59) = 0.631, p = 0.536$).

Table 38:

ANOVA table for setting before current college (IV) and community environment (DV)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Community environment	Between Groups	.563	2	.281	.631	.536
	Within Groups	26.340	59	.446		
	Total	26.903	61			

Note. IV=Independent Variable; DV=Dependent Variable; df=degrees of freedom; F=F ratio; Sig.=Significance; $p > .05$.

Summary for Research Question 4 analyses findings. The fourth research question was addressed through conducting several ANOVA tests, with perceptions of work climate and community environment as the dependent variables, and the place of childhood upbringing and setting before current college, as the independent variables. ANOVA results showed that there were no statistically significant differences in the perceptions of community environment and work climate, for both the independent variables of place of childhood upbringing and setting before current college.

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Summary of the Findings

Four research questions were investigated in the study. The first two research questions were addressed using descriptive statistics. The first research question was answered through presenting the descriptive information of the demographic characteristics of the self-identified faculty of color, which includes both personal and professional information. Results for the first research question showed that, for faculty of color at Kentucky colleges, part-time faculty members were observed to be younger than full-time faculty members. There was a broad range of religions for both part-time and full-time faculty members, but it was observed that a considerable percentage of the faculty members were Protestants. Majority of part-time faculty members, and around half of the full-time faculty members were of the African American/Black race. Both part-time and full-time faculty members hold Master's degrees or higher. Most of the part-time faculty members were of the instructor rank, while for full-time faculty members, rank was distributed among the following: instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, and professor. Part-time faculty members are currently employed in their current colleges with the longest period being six years, while the longest for full-time faculty members is 11 years or more. There were not many observable differences between part-time and full-time faculty members on the characteristics of settings before moving to present colleges, place of childhood upbringing, marital status, or having children.

The second research question was answered through presenting the descriptive information of the perceptions of the self-identified faculty of color on work climate and community environment. From the results for the second research question, full-time

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faculty of color were observed to have more negative perceptions of work climate and community environment than part-time faculty of color.

Upon investigation of the third research question using the ANOVA tests, the only statistically significant differences in perception were: significantly more negative perception on community environment for self-identified faculty of color for the age group of 30-39 years old compared to those who were 60 years or older, and significantly more negative perception on work climate for self-identified faculty of color for those who were divorced as compared to those who were married and those who had deceased spouses. Upon investigation of the fourth research question using the ANOVA tests, there were no statistically significant differences in perception of work climate and community environment between the different groups by place of childhood upbringing or setting before current college.

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CHAPTER V DISCUSSION

Kentucky has a history of employing low numbers of minorities in faculty positions (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2007). National research indicates that faculty of color leave jobs because of workplace climates that conflicted with their ethnic identities (Jayakumar et al., 2009). Further, researchers have learnt that perceptions of workplace climate and home community inclusiveness impacted faculty of color's satisfaction with their jobs (Isaac & Boyer, 2007; Joseph & Hirshfield, 2011; Ponjuan et al., 2011). This study investigated perceptions of faculty of color at Kentucky community colleges about their work climate and resident communities. Results of the survey indicated that full-time faculty of color were noted to have more negative perceptions of their work climate and community environment than part-time faculty of color. In addition, there was significantly more negative perceptions on community environment for the age group of 30-39 years old compared to those who were 60 years or older, and significantly more negative perception on work climate for those who were divorced as compared to those who were married and those who had deceased spouses. There were no statistically significant differences in perception of work climate and community environment between the different groups of place of childhood upbringing, and between the different groups of setting before current college.

Interpretation of the Findings

In this chapter, the researcher will review the findings of this study and discuss relationships of the findings to the research literature. Specifically, findings regarding

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Kentucky faculty demographics, findings regarding faculty perceptions of diversity and inclusiveness of their work climates and home communities, and findings regarding relationships between these perceptions and demographic variables will be discussed.

Personal and Professional Characteristics

The majority of this study's participants were African American, which may reflect Kentucky's history of specifically attempting to increase the number of African American faculty within its institutions of higher education (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2008) and its limited definition of diversity to African Americans, specifically. Another result of this narrow recruitment effort appears to have resulted in other minority groups being excluded (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2008). The smaller proportions of other ethnicities, such as Asian/Pacific Islander and Chicano/Latino/Hispanic, may reflect Kentucky's specific diversity recruitment policies.

Although most of the part-time faculty members who participated in this study were ranked as instructors, a majority of full-time faculty members were ranked at associate or full professor level. This finding represented an optimistic outlook that differed from Allen et al.'s (2000) finding that the small numbers of African American faculty members employed by colleges and universities were clustered at the lower levels of the academic hierarchy. Allen et al. (2000) reported that faculty of color were often prevented from engaging in professional activities that increased likelihood of recognition and promotion, such as research and publication, and instead were assigned heavier classroom teaching responsibilities and other duties such as recruitment or advising. Similarly, Smith (2000) found that minorities experienced barriers to tenure

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including isolation, racism, and lack of interest in issues related to diversity. The number of faculty of color working in tenured positions in this study's sample possibly reflected social progress with regard to diversity and inclusiveness in Kentucky colleges and surrounding communities (Douglas, 2006).

Part-time instructors were more likely to be employed in instructor positions, and they were also more likely to be young compared with full-time faculty members. It is possible that the higher number of part-time faculty members who were working at instructor levels were newer to their positions, affirming Isaac and Boyer's (2007) finding that community colleges often functioned as starting points for faculty of color as they developed their careers. Similarly, women were equally represented within the sample for this study, which differed from findings of earlier studies that indicated that women were under-represented in academia (Milem & Astin, 1993). This too may indicate a social shift in hiring practices over the last few decades.

Differences between Work Climate and Home Community

A review of survey respondents' perceptions of diversity of work climate and home community indicated broad variability.

Work climate. Higher scores on work climate and community environment measures reflected more negative perceptions of the inclusiveness of these settings. For work climate, the minimum value was 1.5, while the maximum value was 3.65, with an average of 2.35 ($SD = 0.45$). A comparison of scores indicated that part-time faculty of color had lower scores for the perceptions of work climate than full-time faculty, which indicated that part-time faculty of color had more positive perceptions of their work

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climate than full-time faculty of color. Previous research reported faculty of color perceptions of non-inclusive work environments. For example, faculty of color reported subtle racism and discrimination, such as not being taken seriously, being given heavier workloads, and micro-inequities (Bower, 2002; Daufin, 2001; Phillips, 2002; Rowe, 1993). Rowe (1993) described micro-inequities as ethnic jokes, confusing one faculty of color member for another, and declining to share an office with faculty of color.

Home community. For community environment, the minimum value was 1.67, while the maximum value was 4.75, with an average of 3 ($SD = 0.66$). A comparison of scores indicated that part-time faculty of color had lower scores for the perceptions of community environment than full-time faculty, which indicated that part-time faculty of color had more positive perceptions of their community environments than full-time faculty of color.

The mean scores on measures of work climate and home community inclusiveness reflected perceptions of moderate levels of inclusiveness and diversity. This indicated that overall participants did not perceive their work climates and home communities as racially exclusive or overtly discriminatory based upon race or ethnicity. This finding also indicated, however, that participants did not perceive their workplaces and home communities as especially inclusive and supportive of diversity. Although this finding does not indicate what might be considered an optimal perception of inclusiveness, it may reflect progress in work climates and home communities in becoming more inclusive over time, resulting from increasing community diversity (Potter & Cantarro, 2006).

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Differences in Perceptions of Work Climate and Home Community

Employment status and work climate. Participants' responses indicated that faculty of color who worked part-time had more positive perceptions of the inclusiveness of work climate compared with full-time faculty. This is a finding that was not reflected in the research literature.

Employment status and home community. Participants' responses indicated that faculty of color who worked part-time had more positive perceptions of the inclusiveness of home community compared with full-time faculty. This is a finding that was not reflected in the research literature.

It is possible that, because these participants worked part-time, they were not exposed to the same conditions that have previously induced faculty members to report their environments as less inclusive of diversity (Price et al., 2005; Rowe, 1993). For example, faculty of color have reported loneliness, lack of support from colleagues, and heavy workloads that negatively affected their job satisfaction (Logan, 1997; Plata, 1996). It is possible that full-time faculty, who spend a greater amount of time working, experienced these stressors more frequently or acutely compared with part-time faculty. Another consideration is that part-time faculty presumably had more non-work time compared with full-time faculty, and this may have given them increased opportunity to participate in activities in their communities, which resulted in more positive perceptions of community inclusiveness (Crowe, 2010; Kulig et al., 2009; Matarrita-Cascante, 2010; Potter & Cantareo, 2006).

In previous research, faculty of color have reported discriminatory practices that created barriers to attaining tenure, such as being assigned teaching, mentorship, and

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recruitment duties that interfered with their abilities to pursue professional activities that would earn recognition and promotion (Allen et al., 2000; Smith, 2000). In the current study, full-time faculty possibly had a greater interest in working toward promotion compared with part-time faculty, and therefore may have been more attuned to non-inclusive practices within their workplaces and communities that represented barriers to tenure compared with part-time faculty. The increased relevance of diversity support and its impact on promotion for full-time faculty may explain this group's poorer perceptions of the inclusiveness of their work and community environments (Allen et al., 2000; Smith, 2000).

Age and community environment. In this study, participants who were aged 30-39 years had more negative perceptions of the inclusiveness of their community environment compared with faculty members who were 60 years of age or older. Although previous research has indicated that negative perceptions of community inclusiveness impacted faculty of color satisfaction in the workplace (Isaac & Boyer, 2007; Joseph & Hirshfield, 2011; Ponjuan et al., 2011), differences in perceptions of inclusiveness based upon age were not reflected in the research literature. One possible explanation is that older participants have been witness to the improvements in diversity inclusion and support that have occurred over the years as the result of legislation (Chamberlain, 1988; Clarke, 1996). Because of older participants' experiences with more open or blatant forms of racism and discrimination in their communities, they may have had a more positive perception of current conditions that reflect improvement in inclusiveness of diversity. On the other hand, the younger participants have grown up in

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the post-civil rights era, and their more negative perceptions of inclusiveness of home community may have reflected higher expectations in terms of diversity support and inclusion (Chamberlain, 1988; Clarke, 1996).

Marital status. This study's findings also indicated that the two participants with deceased spouses reported more negative perceptions of the inclusiveness of their work climate compared with participants who were divorced or married. This finding was not reflected in the research literature. It is possible that grief over loss of spouse exerted a more general effect over these few participants' experiences and thereby negatively colored their perceptions of their work climate.

Other demographic variables. Most of the hypothesis tests produced non-significant results. Specifically, participants' perceptions of the inclusiveness of work climate or home community did not differ based upon race/ethnicity, gender, length of employment at community college, faculty rank, full- or part-time status, religion, place of childhood upbringing, or setting before current college. Additionally, perceptions of the inclusiveness of work climate did not differ based upon age, and perceptions of the inclusiveness of home environment did not differ based upon marital status. These findings did not necessarily suggest that participants experienced their work climates and home communities to be supportive of diversity and highly inclusive. Mohamed (2010) reported that faculty of color felt that college campuses continued to struggle to provide inclusive and welcoming working environments for faculty of color, and the results of this study do not contradict such findings in prior research. These findings indicated,

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however, that this group of factors did not significantly influence or relate to differences in perceptions.

Because this study's sample was exclusively faculty of color, their perceptions of inclusiveness of diversity in the workplace and home community were not contrasted against non-minority perceptions. This may explain the non-significant findings with regard to perceptions of diversity and inclusiveness; such perceptions may be more strongly associated with minority versus non-minority status, and less associated with demographic factors measured in this study (e.g., gender, marital status, religion, and length of employment). Although perceptions of diversity and inclusiveness in work climate and home community did not differ across most of the demographic factors measured in this study, it is still possible that the perceptions of inclusiveness reflected dissatisfaction with diversity practices in participants' workplaces and communities. This study differed from other similar studies in that it did not correlate perceptions of inclusiveness with measures of job satisfaction; previous research has found that perceptions of non-inclusive work environments were related to low job satisfaction, which this study could not establish (Isaac & Boyer, 2007; Joseph & Hirshfield, 2011; Ponjuan et al., 2011).

Differences in Perceptions by Location and Environment

The fourth research question addressed differences in faculty of color perceptions of diversity based on geographic location and/or environment. There were no specific hypotheses associated with this research question. Findings indicated that there were no differences in perceptions of the inclusiveness of work climate or home community

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across groups based upon place of childhood upbringing and setting before current college.

Implications of the Findings

This study makes a contribution to knowledge related to faculty of color in Kentucky and their perceptions of the diversity and inclusiveness of their work climates and home communities. The findings of this study indicated that full-time faculty of color had more negative perceptions of the inclusiveness of their work climates and home communities compared with part-time faculty members. This information may be helpful to colleges and universities in addressing issues related to diversity support with their full-time staff, such as discrimination and workload equity (Price et al., 2005; Rowe, 1993). These findings may also indicate a need for Kentucky colleges and universities to pay greater attention to factors associated with tenure for faculty of color, and ensure equity of work assignments across ethnicities in order to avoid creating extra obstacles to promotion for faculty of color (Allen et al., 2000; Smith, 2000). Further, younger faculty of color had more negative perceptions of inclusiveness of their home communities; community colleges may use this information as a starting point when working on broader community inclusiveness projects, and possibly solicit input from younger faculty to obtain insights into areas that need improvement.

Although this study makes a contribution to knowledge related to faculty perceptions of diversity support, it does not make specific contributions to theory or methodology. The findings indicated that changes to practice in KCTCS colleges might enhance perceptions of diversity inclusiveness with full-time faculty; however, further

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information regarding the reasons for full-time faculty's poorer perceptions of inclusiveness will be needed to clearly inform and guide such changes to practice.

Recommendations for Future Research

Additional research would be useful in elaborating upon the findings of the present study. Specifically, qualitative research designs would be helpful in exploring the perceptions of faculty of color regarding diversity and inclusiveness in college settings in Kentucky in greater detail. Findings of this study indicated that full-time faculty of color perceived their work climates as less supportive of diversity compared with part-time faculty. Semi-structured interviews with a sample that included both part- and full-time faculty of color in Kentucky could be utilized to investigate these differences in perceptions and the conditions and events that are associated with different perspectives. Similarly, interviews with a sample that included faculty of color of different ages could be used to explore differences in perceptions of inclusiveness of home communities.

In order to investigate generalizability of this study's findings, future research could be conducted using the same design with a sample that was nationally representative. Such research would provide context for the present study's findings, and would clarify the extent to which the present study's findings are reflective of Kentucky in particular. Use of a larger, more geographically diverse sample would also reduce risk of identifiability for participants, which may increase participant honesty in responses. Comparison of participant responses using a larger sample with responses in the current study would allow for evaluation of social desirability as an influence on responses in the current study.

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Further research could also be conducted using the same design with a sample of participants that included non-faculty of color in addition to faculty of color. The results of such a study would provide data regarding the degree to which faculty of color in colleges and universities reflect the overall proportion of minorities within Kentucky and other regions of the US. In addition, inclusion of non-minority participants would allow for comparison of perceptions of inclusiveness and diversity between minority and non-faculty of color. It is possible that these perceptions differ between minority and non-minority groups, and use of comparison groups by minority status would allow for exploration of these differences.

Finally, future research could investigate the extent to which faculty of color's perceptions of diversity and inclusiveness in work climate and home community relate to job-related variables, such as job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and organizational commitment. Understanding the relationships between these variables would be helpful to institutions of higher education in promoting environments that can successfully retain faculty of color.

Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to investigate perceptions of faculty of color in the KCTCS regarding their work climate and community related to diversity. The related research literature indicated that minorities are under-represented as faculty of colleges and universities, and that faculty of color continue to experience forms of racism and discrimination in the workplace (Daufin, 2001; Logan, 1997; Plata, 1996; Smith, 2000). Further, discrimination of different forms has been associated with lower job satisfaction

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for faculty of color (Isaac & Boyer, 2007; Joseph & Hirshfield, 2011; Ponjuan et al., 2011). Participants' responses indicated a variety of perceptions of diversity support, and some responses reflected negative perceptions of diversity support within the work climate. Overall, however, participant responses indicated a moderate perception of inclusiveness, suggesting that participants as a group viewed their work climates and home communities as being neither excessively exclusive nor especially inclusive of minorities.

The findings of this study indicated that African Americans constituted the majority of faculty of color in Kentucky colleges, which was expected based upon previous research (Council on Postsecondary Education, 2008). Findings that were unique to this study make a distinct contribution to the research literature pertaining to faculty of colors' perceptions of their work climates and home communities. Specifically, full-time faculty of color viewed their work climates and home communities as less diverse and less supportive of diversity compared with part-time faculty of color. Also, younger faculty of color viewed their home communities as less diverse and inclusive compared with older faculty of color. These findings provide additional insights into the factors that influence perceptions of inclusiveness among faculty of color in Kentucky, and provide a platform for further research in this area.

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APPENDIX

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FACULTY DIVERSITY SURVEY

This survey measures workplace and community perceptions of ethnic faculty of color employed in a KCTCS Community College. By completing this survey, you are providing consent to participate in this study and understand that individual names will not be revealed in any papers or presentations that disseminate the results of the study. Neither specifics nor data results will be released or reported to KCTCS institutions.

For each item, you will be asked to provide information regarding your professional experiences and personal background. Please select responses that accurately describe you and your experiences as faculty of color. Approximate time for completion is 15 minutes. **Once you click on the submit button, responses cannot be changed.**

Part 1: Background Information

For each question, select the response that most accurately describes you.

1. What is your sex?
 Male
 Female

2. Please indicate the **primary** racial/ethnic group with which you identify. **(Please mark only one)**
 African American/Black
 American Indian/Alaskan Native/Aleut
 Asian/Pacific Islander
 Chicano/Latino/Hispanic
 Middle Eastern
 Biracial/Multiracial
 Other (Specify)

3. Age
 Under 30 years
 30-39 years
 40-49 years
 50-59 years
 60 years or older

4. Marital status
 Single, Never Married
 Married
 Divorced
 Spouse Deceased

5. How many years have you been at your present college?
 Less than 1 year

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- 1 to 3 years
 4 to 6 years
 7 to 10 years
 11 years or more
6. What is your religion? (Please check only one)
 Roman Catholic
 Protestant (e.g., Lutheran, Methodist, Episcopalian, Quaker, Adventist, Baptist, Presbyterian, Mennonite, Brethren, etc.)
 Other Christian (e.g., Mormon, Jehovah's Witness, etc.)
 Buddhist
 Hindu
 Jewish
 Muslim
 No Religion
 Other (Please specify)
7. School age children (18 years of age or younger) living at home
 No Yes
8. Do you have dependent children attending the college where you are currently employed?
 No Yes
9. Place of childhood upbringing
 United States (Give state name) _____
 Outside the United States (Give country name) _____
10. In what setting did you spend most of your life before coming to your present college? (Mark only one. If several apply use the most recent.)
 Large city or metropolitan area
 Rural area or town
 Small city
11. Are you a native U.S. citizen?
 No Yes
12. Faculty rank
 Instructor Professor
 Assistant Professor Other (Specify)
 Associate Professor
13. Highest degree earned
 Associate Degree Doctorate
 Bachelor's Degree Other (Specify)
 Master's Degree
14. Program or discipline in which you teach
 Humanities/Fine Arts Social Sciences
 Natural/Physical Sciences Other (Specify)
 Technical/Health Care (Specify program) _____

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15. Institution of employment (Select only one and identify primary campus on which you work)

Ashland Community & Technical
College

Big Sandy Community & Technical
College

Bluegrass Community & Technical
College

Bowling Green Technical
College

Elizabethtown Community & Technical
College

Gateway Community & Technical
College

Hazard Community & Technical
College

Henderson Community
College

Hopkinsville Community
College

Jefferson Community & Technical
College

Madisonville Community
College

Maysville Community & Technical
College

Owensboro Community & Technical
College

Somerset Community
College

Southeast Kentucky Community & Technical
College

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West Kentucky Community & Technical
College

Part 2: Faculty Perceptions of Work Climate

Indicate your agreement with the following statements as they relate to your **current** Kentucky place of employment.

Use the following rating guide for your responses to questions #16 through #18

N=Never R=Rarely (once or twice a year) O=Occasionally (3-5 times a year)

V=Very Often (6-9 times a year) F=Frequently (10 or more times a year)

16. I have heard a **student** make an insensitive or disparaging remark about:
- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| Non-native English speaking persons | N | R | O | V | F |
| Persons of particular socio-economic backgrounds | N | R | O | V | F |
| Persons of particular religious backgrounds | N | R | O | V | F |
| Persons of particular racial/ethnic backgrounds | N | R | O | V | F |
17. I have heard a **college faculty member** make an insensitive or disparaging remark about:
- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| Non-native English speaking persons | N | R | O | V | F |
| Persons of particular socio-economic backgrounds | N | R | O | V | F |
| Persons of particular religious backgrounds | N | R | O | V | F |
| Persons of particular racial/ethnic backgrounds | N | R | O | V | F |

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18. I have heard a **college staff member or administrator** make an insensitive or disparaging remark about:
- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| Non-native English speaking persons | N | R | O | V | F |
| Persons of particular socio-economic backgrounds | N | R | O | V | F |
| Persons of particular religious backgrounds | N | R | O | V | F |
| Persons of particular racial/ethnic backgrounds | N | R | O | V | F |
19. I have felt discriminated against or harassed (even subtly) **on this campus**
- 1 = Yes (If you marked this response, please continue to question #20)
 2 = No (If you marked this response, please skip to question #24)
20. I have felt discriminated against or harassed on this campus for the following reasons
(Please mark all that apply)
- Age discrimination
 Disability
 Socioeconomic status
 Gender
 Race or ethnicity
 Religious Beliefs
 Sexual Orientation
 Other (Please specify) _____
21. I have felt discriminated against or harassed on this campus in the following forms
(Please mark all that apply)
- Actual physical assault or injury
 Anonymous phone calls
 Glances
 Ignoring
 Publications on campus
 Threats of physical violence
 Verbal comments
 Written comments (including electronic communications such as a website, email, or instant messaging)
 Other subtle forms: (Please specify) _____
22. Where did this discrimination or harassment occur?
- In a college classroom
 In a college office
 While working at a college job
 Via the internet (e.g., website, email, instant messaging, etc.)
 Other location on campus: (Please specify) _____

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23. To which group did the person who was the source of the discrimination or harassment belong? (Mark all that apply)

- Administration
- Faculty
- Neighbors in the areas near campus
- Security or campus police
- Staff
- Students
- Visitor to campus
- Others: (Please specify) _____

Use the following rating guide for your responses to questions #24

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3=Agree 4=Strongly Agree 5=No Basis for Judgment

24. This college adequately addresses issues on campus related to:

Race or racism	1	2	3	4	5
Religious beliefs or harassment	1	2	3	4	5
Sex/gender or sexism	1	2	3	4	5
Socioeconomic class or classism	1	2	3	4	5
Language barriers	1	2	3	4	5

25. This college has visible leadership from the president and other administrators to foster respect for diversity on campus

1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment

26. I feel awkward around campus community members who are from groups I've not encountered before.

1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment

27. The climate in the classroom/work environment is accepting of who I am.

1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment

28. I feel I need to hide some characteristics of my religion in order to fit in here.

1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment

29. Faculty create an environment in the classroom that is conducive to free and open expression of opinions and beliefs.

1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment

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30. I feel free to challenge others on racial/ethnic/sexually derogatory comments.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
31. I have had someone assume that I was employed at this campus solely because I am a person of color
1 = Yes 2 = No
32. I have received adequate support from this campus as a person of color
1 = Yes 2 = No
33. As a person of color, I have felt isolated or left out when work was required in groups
1 = Yes 2 = No
34. I have felt that I am expected to present a viewpoint that must always be different from the majority
1 = Yes 2 = No
35. I have felt that I am expected to speak on behalf of all members of my race or ethnicity
1 = Yes 2 = No
36. I have felt singled out as the “resident authority” for my particular group when issues of race or ethnicity arose
1 = Yes 2 = No

Part 3: Faculty Perceptions Community Environment

Indicate your agreement with the following statements as they relate to your **current** home community.

37. I have feared for my physical safety in my current home community because of my race/ethnicity
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
38. I have been a victim of a hate crime in my current home community because of my race/ethnicity
1 = Yes 2 = No
39. My home community has a climate that is supportive of diversity.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
40. My home community makes efforts to enhance a climate supportive of diversity.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment

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41. My home community would benefit from having more diverse neighborhoods.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
42. My neighborhood would benefit from having more diverse residents.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
43. I believe my home community treats residents fairly from all ethnic groups.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
44. Issues related to race, racism, and racial/ethnic discrimination and/or bias are taken seriously in my home community.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
45. My home community does a good job of informing residents of its diversity related goals.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
46. Residents in my home community are receptive to diversity issues.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
47. Residents in my home community express support for diversity issues.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
48. I feel comfortable talking to people of other races in my home community about issues involving race or ethnic differences.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
49. When I hear negative remarks made by residents in my home community aimed at particular ethnic groups I challenge them.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
50. I make an effort to get to know individuals from other ethnic groups in my home community.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
51. I feel comfortable participating in the diversity events and programs in my home community.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment

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52. I would like to have more formal opportunities to discuss diversity related issues and ideas in my home community.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
53. I know the steps to take within my home community if a friend/neighbor or I experience harassment or discrimination.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
54. I have personally experience and/or witnessed harassment or discrimination in my home community based on race/ethnicity.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
55. I live in a different community than where I work.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment
56. I was raised or have a history in or near the same community where I work.
1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Agree
4 = Strongly Agree 5 = No Basis for Judgment

Please click on the submit button when completed.

Thank you for completing this survey.

This faculty survey was adapted with permission from the 2008 Campus Diversity Survey developed by the Association of Independent Colleges and Universities of Pennsylvania.