

ROLE OF WORK CLIMATE IN JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT OF WOMEN IN A NONTRADITIONAL CAREER FIELD: THE CASE OF
WOMEN IN THE MILITARY

By

ALICIA VALLENI MATTESON

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To those who serve others, whether they have been called to military service, or serve quietly in their communities.

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NOTE: The views expressed in this article are those of the author and do not reflect the official policy or position of the United States Air Force, Department of Defense, or the U.S. Government.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	4
LIST OF TABLES	7
LIST OF FIGURES	8
ABSTRACT	9
CHAPTER	
1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	10
2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	17
An Opportunity to Study Women’s Experiences in a Nontraditional Career Field: The Case of Women who are Military Officers	18
Social Cognitive Career Theory	20
Theory of Work Adjustment	22
Retention-Related Criterion Variables: Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Work Group Effectiveness	24
Contextual Experiences: Sexist Discrimination, Racist Discrimination, and Diversity Inclusive Climate	26
Sexist Discrimination	26
Racist Discrimination	41
Diversity Inclusive Climate	46
Summary and Hypotheses	50
3 METHOD	52
Participants	52
Procedures	53
Instruments	55
Independent Variables:	61
Dependent Variables:	62
4 RESULTS	64
Descriptive Results	64
Tests of Hypotheses	66
5 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION	76

APPENDIX

A	TABLE DATA	85
B	FIGURES.....	100
	LIST OF REFERENCES.....	110
	BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH	118

LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table</u>	<u>page</u>
A-1 Air Force Gender Proportions of Rank.....	85
A-2 Three-Factor Solution with Promax Rotation for 2001 MEOCS Items 1-50 (51.00% of Total Variance).....	86
A-3 Four-Factor Solution with Promax Rotation for 2001 MEOCS Items 51-73 (53.81% of Total Variance).....	89
A-4 Assessment of Fit Indices for CFAs of 2002 Data	91
A-5 Descriptive Statistics and Mean Differences for Predictor Variables by Racial/Ethnic Group	92
A-6 Descriptive Statistics and Mean Differences for Criterion Variables by Racial/Ethnic Group	93
A-7 Entire Sample's Intercorrelations among Variables of Interest.....	94
A-8 Hispanic Sample's Intercorrelations among Variables of Interest	95
A-9 African American Sample's Intercorrelations among Variables of Interest.....	96
A-10 Asian American/Pacific Islander Sample's Intercorrelations among Variables of Interest.....	97
A-11 American Indian/Alaskan Native Sample's Intercorrelations among Variables of Interest.....	98
A-12 White Sample's Intercorrelations among Variables of Interest.....	99

LIST OF FIGURES

<u>Figure</u>	<u>page</u>
B-1 Proposed Model (fully saturated).....	101
B-2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Predictor Variables	102
B-3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Dependent Variables.....	103
B-4 Entire Sample's Fully Saturated Path Model	104
B-5 African American Sample's Fully Saturated Path Model	105
B-6 American Indian/Alaskan Native Sample's Fully Saturated Path Model	106
B-7 Asian American/PacificIslander Sample's Fully Saturated Path Model	107
B-8 Hispanic Sample's Fully Saturated Path Model	108
B-9 White Sample's Fully Saturated Path Model	109

Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School
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By

Alicia Valleni Matteson

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To date there are significant gaps in the literature examining the links between women in nontraditional career field's perceptions of workplace climate and job-related outcomes. Specifically, racial/ethnic identity of women in nontraditional career fields is often overlooked or is narrowly defined, thus important contextual facets of women's experiences are unexamined. Additionally, the majority of research that examines women in nontraditional career field's perceptions of discrimination focuses on sexist discrimination, few studies examine racist discrimination, and none have examined simultaneous links of racist and sexist discrimination with job-related outcomes. Our study examined three aspects of perceptions of workplace climate (perceived racist and sexist discrimination and perceived diversity inclusive climate) with three job-related outcomes (perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment) with a sample of 1,452 women officers in the military. Path analytic finding indicated that all three types of perceptions of workplace climate had significantly unique direct and indirect links to one or more of the three job-related outcomes. However, there were differences among the racial/ethnic groups in the strengths of the links between the variables of interest. Implications for future research and organization policy and practice are discussed.

CHAPTER 1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The field of counseling psychology has widely recognized the need to attend to contextual variables that impact persons' life experiences, mental health, and well-being (Commission for the Recognition of Specialties and Proficiencies in Professional Psychology, 1999). Furthermore, counseling psychologists are expected to *know* and *integrate* contextual factors along with intrapersonal factors that might influence persons' mental health and well-being into their practice. Such integration has been deemed particularly important in conceptualizing women's experiences, as is reflected in the Society of Counseling Psychology's principles concerning counseling/psychotherapy with women which state that "Counselors/therapists should be knowledgeable about women, particularly with regard to biological, psychological, and social issues which have impact on women in general or on particular groups of women in our society" (Fitzgerald & Nutt, 1986, p. 181).

Additionally, the field of counseling psychology traditionally attends to the role of career and vocation on individual development and functioning (American Psychological Association, 1999). Theory and research generated from the field of counseling psychology are particularly appropriate to apply to understanding the experiences of women in nontraditional career fields in American society. Such attention is important in light of the widely publicized disproportionate number of women in top positions in nontraditional career fields. For example, Benokraitis (1997) reported that although men who are Caucasian comprise 33% of the U.S. population, they comprise 85% of tenured professors, 85% of law firm partners, 95% of Fortune 500 CEOs, 97% of school superintendents, and 96% of military generals. There is speculation that higher attrition rates for women in nontraditional career fields contribute to this existing disproportion. The concern about women's attrition rates transcends numerous domains such as math and science

fields (Kuck, Marzabadi, & Buckner, 2007; Settles, Cortina, Stewart, & Malley, 2007), the legal profession (Ninth Circuit Gender Bias Task Force, 1994), academia (Betz, 1994; MacDonald, 2007), and military service (Harris & Firestone, 1997). Thus, numerous professions stand to gain by the exploration of factors that contribute to the attrition of women in nontraditional career fields. The military career field in the United States is a particularly fertile focus for examining the attrition of women in nontraditional career fields because the government's efforts to assess military women's work-related experiences has led to the accrual of rich databases. This study utilizes such data; consequently, the literature reviewed to develop hypotheses focuses primarily on military women's experiences in the workplace.

Examination of the retention of women in nontraditional career fields is informed by the vast amount of occupational and organizational literature. Specifically, a large body of research, including meta-analyses, points to job satisfaction and organizational commitment as important predictors of job retention (e.g., Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005). Indeed, there is robust evidence of the links between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and ultimately, actual turnover (e.g., Bluedorn, 1982; Koch & Steers, 1978; McIntyre, Bartle, Landis, & Dansby, 2002; Williams & Hazer, 1986). Consistent with this research, within the military arena, the *Career Progression of Minority and Women Officers* report (Office of the Under Secretary of Defense Personnel and Readiness, 2003) stated that a central contributing factor to the retention of minority and women officers is commitment to the organization and deficit in such commitment will reduce sufficient retention to maintain an effective force. Thus, to understand and improve retention of military women, it is important to identify correlates of military women's job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Perceptions of discrimination in the workplace are widely accepted to have negative psychological and physical health consequences for individuals (e.g., Baker-Fletcher, 1994; West & Fenstermaker, 1995; Yoder & Aniakudo, 1996), and also are linked with negative job outcomes such as lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and greater absenteeism (e.g., Culbertson & Rodgers, 1997; McIntyre et al., 2002; Munson, Hulin, & Drasgow, 2000; Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997). Furthermore, workplace discrimination can have negative organizational impacts. For example, sexual harassment, which is one form of sexist discrimination, has been estimated to cost a company of about 24,000 employees \$67.7 million per year (Crawford, 1993). Sexual harassment has been estimated to cost the military as much as \$40 to \$500 million per year due to nonretention of personnel, absenteeism, lowered productivity, and sick leave (Faley, Knapp, Kustis, & Dubois, 1994; Maze, 1992). Thus, women's perceptions of workplace sexist discrimination are important to explore when examining the retention of women in nontraditional career fields.

Evidence regarding sexism in the workplace suggests that (a) sexism exists in numerous forms and (b) it can have negative, and sometimes devastating, effects on women, especially for women in nontraditional career fields. In a national survey, Martin (1989) found that 50% of women in a variety of career fields reported currently being sexually discriminated against and harassed at work and 80%-90% reported having been sexually discriminated against or harassed at some point in their careers. Sexist discrimination also has been found to be highest in companies in which more than 75% of the personnel are men (Kramarae, 1992). This gender imbalanced composition characterizes nontraditional career fields for women, including the military career field. Indeed, Harris and Firestone (1997) found that 73% of military active duty women and 18% of active duty men reported experiencing blatant and/or subtle sexual

discrimination in the past 12 months. Due to the pervasiveness of sexist discrimination, especially in workplaces where women are a minority, it is reasonable to explore sexism as a possible factor contributing to the job satisfaction and organizational commitment of women in such career fields, including in the military.

Much of the existing research on sexist discrimination in the military tends to be descriptive in nature and suggests that racial/ethnic minority women officers report the highest rates of experiences of sexist discrimination and the least favorable perception of work climate (Rosenfeld, Newell, & Le, 1998). Specifically, American Indian/Alaskan Native women in the military report the highest levels of sexual discrimination, followed by Hispanic women, African American women, White women, and Asian American/Pacific Islander women who report the lowest levels of sexist discrimination (Bastian, Lancaster, & Reyst 1996).

Beyond descriptive data about the prevalence of perceived sexist discrimination, a few studies provide evidence of a link between perceived equal opportunity (EO) climate and job-related outcomes for women in the military. EO climate reflects “the perceptions that military service members have about the issues of racial and gender discrimination” (U.S. General Accounting Office, 1995, p. 3). Particularly, McIntyre et al. (2002) tested and found empirical support for a model indicating a direct relationship from perceptions of EO climate to perceived work group effectiveness, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction; with greater perceptions of discrimination related to lower levels of perceived work group effectiveness, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Furthermore, McIntyre et al. (2002) found that (a) perceived work group effectiveness partially mediated the link of EO climate to job satisfaction and (b) job satisfaction fully mediated the link of perceived work group effectiveness to organizational commitment. These findings point to the importance of considering the role of

perceived workplace discrimination in shaping important job-related outcomes. In addition, Williams, Fitzgerald, and Drasgow (1999) found that diversity affirming organizational practices that serve to counter discrimination and foster diversity inclusive workplace climate, were linked to lower reports of discrimination in the workplace. The present study integrates Williams et al.'s (1999) findings with McIntyre et al.'s (2002) model by examining perceptions of diversity inclusive workplace climate, along with perceptions of discrimination, as predictors of job-related outcomes.

An important gap in the literature is that the existing research on women's experiences of sexist discrimination in nontraditional career fields generally fails to attend to within group diversity, such as racial/ethnic variability, and instead, tends only to focus on gender. A complete women-centered psychology must attend to the experiences of all women and attend to the intersections of gender with other dimensions of identity, such as race/ethnicity (Reid & Comas-Diaz, 1990; Yoder & Kahn, 1993; Yoder, 2003). Furthermore, it has been suggested that racial/ethnic minority women would be more likely to experience sexist discrimination than nonminority women (MacKinnon, 1979) and numerous studies have demonstrated that racial/ethnic minority women do indeed report higher rates of experiences of sexist discrimination than do White women (Dansby, 1994; Dansby & Landis, 1998). Generally, however, sexist discrimination research has not examined racial/ethnic matters beyond reporting the racial/ethnic compositions of samples and corresponding rates of reported experiences of sexist discrimination (Bergman & Drasgow, 2003). It seems time to build upon existing research by further examining minority women's experiences of sexist discrimination while also attending to other salient variables, such as racist discrimination.

Another limitation is that much of the extant literature that explores the role of discrimination experiences in the workplace tends to be atheoretical in nature. Two counseling psychology vocational theories that could serve to ground investigations of factors that impact women in nontraditional career fields are Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994) and Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1964; Dawis, 1996; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Lofquist & Dawis, 1991). SCCT asserts that the complex, reciprocal relations between person, environment, and behavior variables proposed by Bandura (1986) affect one another throughout a person's career process (Lent et al., 1994). Furthermore, SCCT posits that environmental or contextual influences, such as collegial support and experiences of discrimination have a direct affect on career goals and career choice actions (Lent, Hackett, & Brown, 2000). Much of the SCCT research on women in nontraditional career fields, however, has focused on contextual influences that impact the earlier stages of career (e.g., career choice) as opposed to later stages of career (e.g., career satisfaction or commitment) development. In fact, the authors of SCCT noted that researchers must expand beyond early career processes and make SCCT relevant across the career lifespan (Lent et al., 1994).

Another major vocational psychology theory, the Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA; Dawis et al., 1964), attends to processes that occur after persons enter their chosen vocation. This theory centralizes the importance of the interaction between individuals and their chosen work environment, and has generated a large body of research that examines the construct of job satisfaction, its predictors, and its consequences. However, researchers have generally failed to integrate persons' contextual experiences, such as perceptions of sexism and racism, into empirical examinations of this theory.

Thus, while the tenants of SCCT and TWA promise to guide the examination of the impact of discrimination on women in nontraditional career fields, the research generated by both theories has critical gaps. The tenants of SCCT are generally not applied to career processes that occur after entry into chosen career fields and research on TWA typically fails to incorporate contextual influences. The present study will begin to address the gaps of both of these bodies of literature by examining contextual influences (as proposed by SCCT) on women's job-related outcomes (as proposed by TWA). Such theoretical integration is consistent with recent calls that conceptual and empirical bridges between career theories must be explored in order to further evolve the field of vocational psychology (Swanson & Gore, 2000).

Building on prior theoretical and empirical literature, the present study aims to contribute to vocational psychology literature by (a) examining empirically a theoretical bridge between SCCT and TWA and expanding the literature on career processes that occur later in the career lifespan of women, and (b) examining concomitantly the roles of perceived sexist and racist discrimination, as well as diversity inclusive workplace social climate on work-related outcomes for women in a nontraditional career field (i.e., military). As such, the present study has the potential to inform future research, intervention, and policy aimed to understand and improve the work experiences of women in nontraditional career fields.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The field of counseling psychology attends to the role of career and vocation on individual development and functioning (American Psychological Association, 1999) as well as contextual and background variables that influence individual's lives, mental health, and well-being (Commission for the Recognition of Specialties and Proficiencies in Professional Psychology, 1999). In fact, research on the roles of contextual factors (e.g., perceptions of barriers, support, work environment) and background variables (e.g., gender, race/ethnicity) in career development is an important scholarly and clinical focus of the field of counseling psychology (American Psychological Association, 1999).

Attention to contextual factors can be particularly useful in understanding women's vocational experiences, especially women's experiences as minorities in nontraditional career fields (Yoder, 2003). Specifically, there is a pervasive concern in the organizational literature about the disproportionately small number of women in top positions in nontraditional career fields and there is speculation that higher attrition rates for women in nontraditional career fields contribute to maintaining the observed gender disproportions (Benokraitis, 1997; Betz, 1994; Kuck et al., 2007; Settles, et al., 2007; MacDonald, 2007; Harris & Firestone, 1997).

Understanding the roles of contextual factors in job satisfaction and organizational commitment can inform theory, research, and policy aiming to reduce women's attrition in non-traditional career fields. To this end, the present study investigates the links of contextual factors, specifically perceptions of workplace sexism, racism, and diversity inclusive climate with job-related outcomes for women in the military, an exemplar of a nontraditional career field for women.

An Opportunity to Study Women's Experiences in a Nontraditional Career Field: The Case of Women who are Military Officers

There are a number of reasons that studying the experiences of military women can be a fruitful starting point for advancing the literature on the links of perceived workplace racism and sexism with job-related outcomes for women in nontraditional career fields. First, women comprise only 14.9% of the total active duty force in the military (Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI), 2003), making the military a clearly nontraditional career field for women. Second, as in other nontraditional career fields, in the military, women are promoted to a disproportionately small number of top positions. For example, the 2003 Demographic Profile of the Department of Defense and U.S. Coast Guard (DEOM, 2003) illustrated that the percentage of active duty Air Force women military officers steadily decreases as rank increases (see Table A-1). While 21.9% of all active duty Air Force Second Lieutenants (the lowest officer rank: O-1) are women, only 11.5% of all Air Force Colonels (O-6) are women, and there are zero Air Force women in the highest peacetime officer rank. A similar but less dramatic trend is found for Air Force women enlisted personnel. While women comprise 21.9% of the lowest enlisted rank (E-1), they comprise only 12.1% of the highest enlisted rank (E-9).

Third, there are subgroups of military women with multiple levels of minority status that can be studied to explore the possible roles of multiple types of discrimination (e.g., racist and sexist discrimination). For example, racial/ethnic minority women officers bear three identities that are proportional minorities in the military: in the military population, officers are a minority (16.0% of the total active duty force); women are a minority (14.9% of the total active duty force); and racial or ethnic groups other than White are a minority (35.4% of the total active duty force). Women officers comprise only 2.4% of the total active duty force, and racial/ethnic minority women officers comprise only 0.61% of the total active duty force (DEOMI, 2003).

Women officers also reflect minority groups in terms of the social power and privilege ascribed to their gender and, in the case of racial/ethnic minority women officers, to their racial/ethnic status.

Fourth, there are several large-scale research projects that provide potentially rich data sets about military women's experiences of discrimination. These data sets offer access to populations (such as Native American women officers) that are typically difficult to recruit and obtain large enough samples of to allow meaningful statistical analyses. Despite the availability of data about military women's perceptions of sexist and racist discrimination, however, extant research has focused almost exclusively on military women's perceptions of sexist discrimination. The present study will address this gap in the literature by using available data to examine the roles of perceived sexist and racist discrimination in women military officer's job-related experiences. Finally, according to the Office of the Under Secretary of Defense for Personnel and Readiness (2003), "Black and White women leave military service earlier on average than White men" (p. viii). This has been a focus of concern at the organizational level for the military for many years. Thus, studies that examine women's experiences in the military can inform important retention policies. For these reasons, the present study builds on the existing research on sexist and racist discrimination and women in the military, and utilizes the rich data offered by extant large-scale research efforts, to examine multiple types of discrimination that women officers may experience in the military.

To provide the groundwork for the present investigation, the remainder of this chapter describes two major counseling psychology vocational theories, namely Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT; Lent et al., 1994) and Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis et al., 1964; Dawis, 1996; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Lofquist & Dawis, 1991), that can inform examination of the

links between women's perception of the work environment and job-related outcomes. The discussion of these theories is followed by a review of relevant literature on job satisfaction, organization commitment, and perceived work group effectiveness as the retention-related variables that are the focus of the present study. Next, this chapter provides a review of the empirical literature on workplace sexist discrimination, racist discrimination, and diversity inclusive climate as contextual factors that are important for understanding women's experiences in nontraditional career fields, paying particular attention to literature that addresses racial/ethnic variability among women. Finally, this chapter provides an overview of the aims and hypotheses of the present study.

Social Cognitive Career Theory

One theory that can inform investigation of factors that influence women in nontraditional career fields is Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT; Lent et al., 1994). SCCT applied Bandura's (1986) general social cognitive theory to the academic and career domains. General social cognitive theory proposes that self-efficacy, or individuals' beliefs about their abilities to act in ways to reach specific goals, determines whether individuals will pursue certain actions, the extent to which individuals' will persist in the face of obstacles, and how well individuals' will perform in a given domain. Consistent with this conceptualization of the importance of self-efficacy to career development, a meta-analysis of 114 studies conducted by Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) supported a reliable and significant correlation ($r = .38, p < .01$) between Bandura's construct of self-efficacy and work-related performance. Recently, Bandura (2000) expanded the construct of self-efficacy to incorporate the notion of collective efficacy. More specifically, he proposed that a group's perceived efficacy acts to increase motivational commitment to the group's mission and performance accomplishments. Bandura (1986) posited that behavior is also influenced by individuals' perceptions of possible response outcomes

(outcome expectations) and goal intentions. The authors of SCCT asserted that the complex, reciprocal relationships between person, environment, and behavior variables proposed by Bandura (1986) affect each other throughout a person's career (Lent et al., 1994).

Particularly relevant for the present study is that the SCCT framework highlights that environmental or contextual influences have important roles in individuals' career development (Lent et al., 2000). The authors of SCCT distinguished between two temporal periods of individuals' career process when contextual influences occur. Distal, or background contextual affordances, (e.g., types of career role models one is exposed to as a child) can affect learning experiences at the beginning of a person's career process. The second temporal period occurs later in the active phases of career process when proximal contextual variables affect career goals and career choice actions. Proximal contextual experiences include such things as collegial support and experiences of discrimination. SCCT proposes that proximal contextual experiences have a direct affect on career goals and career choice actions and can also moderate the relationship between interests and goals and the relationship between goals and actions. As such, either anticipated or experienced contextual factors, such as perceived discrimination, can have a strong influence on career behaviors (Lent et al., 2000).

While a large volume of research focuses on the construct of self-efficacy in relation to interests and choice goals and actions, there is little research that focuses on contextual factors' relations to career process variables (Swanson & Gore, 2000). Lent, Hackett, and Brown (2000) indicated that it is vital to examine contextual factors in order to expand the applicability of SCCT to diverse populations. In addition, Lent et al. (1994) described the need for SCCT research to expand beyond processes that occur prior to, during, and just after career entry in order to attend to processes that occur later during career development. More specifically, the

authors called for the inclusion of research on work adjustment themes, thus making SCCT relevant across the career lifespan. The present study responds to this call by examining empirically the relations of proximal contextual variables, namely perceptions of workplace sexism, racism, and diversity affirming organizational practices, to work adjustment of women in a nontraditional career field.

Theory of Work Adjustment

In contrast to SCCT research, which has focused primarily on the processes leading up to career choice, the Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis et al., 1964; Dawis, 1996; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Lofquist & Dawis, 1991) attends to the latter part of the career life span in that it attempts to account for the interaction between individuals and their chosen work environment. Because of this temporal focus, TWA can be a useful framework for exploring women's experiences in nontraditional career fields, as well as retention-related factors for women in nontraditional career fields.

TWA posits that individuals and their work environment engage in a dynamic relationship that shapes work adjustment. Within the framework of TWA, four critical variables shape the dynamic process of work adjustment. These variables are individuals' expectations and requirements for their work environments (work needs), the skills or abilities that individuals bring to their work environments (abilities), the requirements work environments have of their employees (ability requirements), and the ways in which work environments meet workers' needs (reinforcement system). Satisfaction from the perspective of employees occurs when there is a match between employees' skills and the required skills of the job (termed *satisfactoriness*), while congruency between employees' needs and employers' reinforcement systems predict employees' satisfaction (termed *satisfaction*). An interaction between *satisfactoriness* and *satisfaction* determines employees' tenure in specific work environments.

When employees' and employers' needs both are met, the TWA framework posits that a state of equilibrium exists and the employee can expect to remain at that job. However, when there is a discrepancy between needs and needs met, for either the employers or employees, adjustment behaviors take place. The adjustment behaviors are described as the following: flexibility (tolerance of the incongruity), activeness (attempts to change the other), reactivity (attempts to change self), and perseverance (tolerance of the incongruity until terminating employment).

Unlike SCCT, TWA has not generated a large body of research (Swanson & Gore, 2000), perhaps because it fails to integrate personality concepts (e.g., coping style) and social or contextual factors (e.g., experiences of discrimination) that could enrich the understanding of the dynamic relationship between employee and the work environment (Hackett et al., 1991; Tinsley, 1993). While most of the tenants of TWA suffer from "empirical neglect" (Swanson & Gore, 2000, p. 239), the hypothesis that job satisfaction is related negatively to job turnover has received solid empirical support and focused interest from the fields of counseling psychology and organizational psychology. For example, Hesketh, McLachlan, and Gardner (1992) found that employee satisfaction was correlated positively with intentions to stay on the job ($.35, p < .01$) and tenure ($.17, p < .01$). These findings have been replicated in numerous studies and recently through a large-scale meta-analysis (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005). Thus, research based on the framework of TWA has shown a consistent link between job satisfaction and tenure or intentions to stay on the job.

When integrated, SCCT and TWA together provide theoretical underpinnings for the present study. Specifically, SCCT posits that proximal contextual variables, such as perceptions of discrimination, will be related to job-related actions and work adjustment. SCCT's body of

literature, however, continues to lack emphasis on job-related actions once persons have entered career fields; this is the case despite explicit calls from SCCT's founding authors to examine persons' experiences throughout their careers (Lent et al., 1994). TWA, on the other hand, focuses on the point of time in the career process when persons are engaged in a work environment and are faced with work adjustment. TWA's body of literature, however, fails to investigate contextual factors' roles in work adjustment and choice behaviors. Indeed, the two theories have complimentary strengths and gaps in their foci and associated bodies of literature. TWA literature can inform SCCT literature's lack of work adjustment focus, and SCCT literature can inform TWA literature's lack of focus on contextual influences. Thus, the present study utilizes and integrates the two frameworks in investigating the relations of proximal contextual experiences (as posited by SCCT) with work adjustment variables (as posited by TWA) for women in a nontraditional career field.

**Retention-Related Criterion Variables:
Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Work Group Effectiveness**

The centrality of job satisfaction and organizational commitment as important predictors of job retention is supported by a large body of research generated primarily by the field of industrial/organizational psychology (e.g., Bluedorn, 1982; Koch & Steers, 1978; McIntyre et al., 2002; Williams & Hazer, 1986). Organizational commitment is generally defined as the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Individuals who have high organizational commitment tend to stay with their organizations, work towards the goals of the organization, and adhere to the values of the organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Job satisfaction is defined as an affective response to the job as a whole as well as to a variety of characteristics of the job (Morrow, 1983; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) conducted a review and meta-analysis of predictors, correlates,

and consequences of organizational commitment. They found that organizational commitment and overall job satisfaction yielded a significant corrected sample size-weighted mean observed correlation ($k = 43$; $N = 15,531$; $M_r = .53$, $p < .01$). In addition, organizational commitment was found to be correlated significantly with intentions to search for a different job ($k = 5$; $N = 1,513$; $M_r = -.60$, $p < .01$), intentions to leave current job ($k = 36$; $N = 14,080$; $M_r = -.46$, $p < .01$), and actual turnover ($k = 26$; $N = 8,197$; $M_r = -.28$, $p < .05$), all of which are conceptualized as consequences of low organizational commitment.

In a more recently published meta-analysis, Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran (2005) examined the extant organizational commitment literature. After correcting for sampling error and measurement error, the following sample-size-weighted mean observed correlations emerged between organizational commitment and various job-related outcomes: job satisfaction ($k = 879$; $N = 490,624$; $M_r = .59$, $p < .01$); job performance ($k = 185$; $N = 42,354$; $M_r = .17$, $p < .05$); turnover intentions ($k = 351$; $N = 136,270$; $M_r = -.57$, $p < .01$); and actual turnover ($k = 105$; $N = 39,508$; $M_r = -.23$, $p < .05$). Thus, empirical research indicates that when individuals experience high organizational commitment, they also tend to experience higher job satisfaction and may even perform their jobs better. Furthermore, individuals who experience lower organizational commitment not only tend to have higher levels of turnover intentions, but also have higher levels of actual turnover.

The links between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions also have been supported in military samples. For example, utilizing a large data base gathered from members of the military, McIntyre et al. (2002) explored the relations between job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceived work group effectiveness. Perceived work group effectiveness (PWGE) is defined as the degree to which individuals perceive their

primary work group as productive and effective in accomplishing its mission. As such, PWGE is akin to Bandura's (2000) construct of collective efficacy (a sense of perceived group competence). Similar to the role posited for individual self-efficacy in SCCT (Lent et al., 1994), PWGE may relate to individuals' work-related choices, motivation, actions, and performance.

McIntyre et al. (2002) used structural equation modeling to test a model that posited a chain of relations from perceived work group effectiveness to job satisfaction and from job satisfaction to organizational commitment. The results supported the significance of both paths as follows: perceived work group effectiveness to job satisfaction ($\beta = .61, p < .01$) and job satisfaction to organizational commitment ($\beta = .72, p < .03$). These findings with a military sample are consistent with the previously reviewed results with non-military employees, and suggest that perceived work group effectiveness is significantly related to job satisfaction, which is in turn is significantly related to organizational commitment.

Clearly, from an organizational perspective, it is important to study and understand the factors that may either enhance or hinder individual's job satisfaction and organizational commitment because of these variables' demonstrated associations with employee avoidance or escape behaviors, such as seeking new jobs, intending to leave, or actually leaving the job. As such, the present study examines perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment as work-related criterion variables.

Contextual Experiences: Sexist Discrimination, Racist Discrimination, and Diversity Inclusive Climate

Sexist Discrimination

Sexism is a broad construct that includes "a vast network of everyday practices, attitudes, assumption, behaviors, and institutional rules" (Young, 1992, p.180) that serve to oppress or inhibit women. Sexism is comprised of three interrelated aspects: prejudice (attitudes and

feelings towards women), stereotyping (beliefs and cognitions about women), and discrimination (negative and patronizing acts or behaviors that oppress women) (Yoder, 2003). In addition, Benokraitis (1997) described three forms of sexist discrimination: blatant (intentional, highly visible, and relatively easy to document, such as sexual harassment, sexist language and jokes, physical violence), covert (intentional and hidden, such as intentional sabotage of women's work to ensure their failure in a male dominated workplace), and subtle (may be intentional or unintentional, less visible, difficult to document, such as social or professional isolation of women). While sexual harassment is only one particular manifestation of sexist discrimination, it is often the focus of empirical studies on workplace experiences of sexism. The present study aims to incorporate literature on a broad range of manifestations of sexist discrimination to include subtle, covert, and blatant forms.

In researching sexist discrimination, Harris and Firestone (1997) found that 73% of military active duty women and 18% of active duty men reported experiencing blatant and/or subtle sexist discrimination in the past 12 months. Nationally, Martin (1989) found that 50% of women reported currently being sexually discriminated against or harassed at work and 80%-90% reported having been sexually discriminated or harassed at some point in their careers. Discrimination also has been found to be highest in companies in which more than 75% of employees are men (Kramarae, 1992); this gender imbalanced composition exists in the military and in other nontraditional career fields for women.

Women's perceived experiences of sexist discrimination and the more specific manifestation of sexual harassment have been shown to be related to negative psychological and physical health indicators, such as depression, lower sense of well-being, eating disorder symptomatology (Baker-Fletcher, 1994; Klonoff, Landrine, & Campbell, 2000; Moradi, Dirks, & Matteson, 2005;

Moradi & Subich, 2003; West & Fenstermaker, 1995; Yoder & Aniakudo, 1996), as well as job-related outcomes such as lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and greater absenteeism (e.g., Culbertson & Rodgers, 1997; McIntyre et al., 2002; Munson et al., 2000; Fitzgerald et al., 1997). At the organizational level, sexual harassment has been estimated to have large negative consequences. For example, it has been estimated that sexual harassment cost the U.S. Army over \$500 million in 1988 alone due to nonretention of personnel, absenteeism, lowered productivity, and sick leave (Faley et al., 1994). Due to the pervasiveness of sexist discrimination, especially in workplaces where women are a minority, it is reasonable to explore sexism as a possible factor contributing to retention-related variables, such as job satisfaction and organization commitment of women in nontraditional career fields, especially in the military.

Fitzgerald and colleagues have generated a substantial Department of Defense (DoD) sponsored line of research through the Defense Manpower Data Center which examines the predictors and consequences of one form of sexist discrimination, specifically, sexual harassment in the military, utilizing the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ-DOD; Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995; Fitzgerald, Shullman, Bailey, Richards, Swecker, Gold, Ormerod, & Weizman, 1988). The SEQ-DOD measures three dimensions of sexual harassment: sexual coercion, unwanted sexual attention, and gender harassment. The sexual coercion dimension captures behaviors that meet the legal definition of “quid pro quo” harassment (i.e., perpetrator rewards or punishes the target for either accepting sexual advances or refusing) (Yoder, 2003). Unwanted sexual attention and gender harassment constitute the behavioral components of a hostile environment, which is an environment that condones, encourages, or incites sexual harassment behaviors. Participants are asked to respond to SEQ-DOD items on a 5-point scale (0 = *never* and 4 = *very often*) using their experiences in the military over the past 12 months as a

reference. Reported internal consistencies for SEQ-DOD items are in the acceptable range (.83 to .95).

The SEQ-DOD was used in the 1995 Status of the Armed Forces-Gender Issues Study which involved 28,296 service members (22,372 women and 5,924 men- women were purposefully over-sampled). The sample demographics were: 79% women, 69% enlisted personnel, 29% commissioned officers, and 2% warrant officers, 33% Army, 28% Air Force, 21% Navy, 10% Marine Corps, and 8% Coast Guard, 63% non-Hispanic White personnel, 24% non-Hispanic African American personnel, 8% Hispanic personnel, and 5% Asian, Pacific Islander, American Indian, or Native Alaskan personnel, 83% had taken some college courses, 6% attained associate's degree, 14% a bachelor's degree, and 14% a professional or graduate degree, 56% were married, 27% single, and 13% divorced. The mean age of the sample was 32 years and the mean tenure in the military was approximately 10 years (Fitzgerald, Magley, Drasgow, & Waldo, 1999; Hay & Elig, 1999).

Data from this sample has been used in numerous studies. Bastian et al. (1996) reported that 78% of the women from this sample reported experiencing one or more sexual harassment behaviors. Women's reported rates of sexual harassment varied across services, with highest rates reported in the Marine Corps (86%) and lowest in the Air Force (74%). The most frequently reported behaviors were hostile environment behaviors, such as crude and offensive jokes, remarks, or gestures (70% of women), while the least reported behaviors were rape or attempted rape (6% of women). Fitzgerald et al. (1999) reported that 69% of women in this sample reported some form of sexist hostility, 42% reported unwanted sexual attention, and 13% experienced some form of sexual coercion. Furthermore, their data indicated a pattern of differences in reported rates of experiences of sexual harassment across racial or ethnic groups

for women. Native American women reported the highest levels of every type of sexual harassment, followed by Hispanic women, African American women, White women, and Asian American women who reported the lowest levels of sexual harassment. While sexual harassment mean scores for the different racial or ethnic groups' were reported, the authors did not report statistical significance of differences between the various groups' mean scores.

Bergman and Drasgow (2003) attempted to expand the literature on racial/ethnic minority women's experiences of sexual harassment beyond the findings that there is a main effect for race on women's reports of the frequency of sexual harassment (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Fitzgerald, Drasgow, & Magley, 1999; Fitzgerald et al., 1999). The authors hypothesized that race is a moderator in the relations of sexual harassment to job, psychological, and health related outcomes for women.

Bergman and Drasgow (2003) used the same database as Fitzgerald et al. (1999), based on the 1995 Status of the Armed Forces-Gender Issues Study (see above for demographic information), and utilized the SEQ-DOD. Items from the SEQ-DOD were averaged for each respondent and entered simultaneously into the overall path analysis proposed by Fitzgerald et al. (1995), and also into five separate path analyses, one for each racial/ethnic group. The model depicted sexual harassment as an organizational stressor, with organizational antecedents (job grade, organizational tolerance for harassment, and job-gender context) related directly to reports of sexual harassment experiences, which, in turn, related directly to work satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, co-worker satisfaction, psychological well-being, and perceptions of health. The model additionally depicted direct relations between work, supervisor, and co-worker satisfaction to workgroup cohesion, organizational commitment, and psychological well-being. Psychological well-being was also hypothesized to have a direct link to perceptions of health. All

paths reached significance and were in the hypothesized directions. The organizational antecedents were negatively related to reports of sexual harassment experiences, sexual harassment experiences were negatively related to work, supervisor, and co-worker satisfaction, psychological well-being, and perceptions of health. Work, supervisor, and co-worker satisfaction were positively linked to workgroup cohesion, organizational commitment, and psychological well-being. Psychological well-being was positively linked to perceptions of health. The overall samples' data-model fit was acceptable (chi-square/degree of freedom = 11.64, RMSEA = .023, SRMR = .035, GFI = .98, NNFI = .95).

The authors tested the model separately with each racial/ethnic group. Sample sizes for the five racial/ethnic groups were as follows: White (N = 13,531), African American (N = 6,158), Asian/Pacific Islanders (N = 720), Hispanic (N = 1,790), Native American (N = 270); women who did not report their race were excluded (N = 377). Results of these analyses suggested that the model fit data from each group reasonably well. The chi-square/degrees of freedom values ranged from 50.41 to 2.07 (with the larger values corresponding to the larger sample sizes as expected), the root-mean-square errors of approximation (RMSEAs) ranged from .062 to .073, the standardized root-mean square residuals (SRMRs) ranged from .033 to .047, the goodness-of-fit indices (GFI) ranged from .96 to .98, the adjusted goodness-of-fit indices (AGFIs) ranged from .90 to .95, and the nonnormed fit indices (NNFIs) ranged from .89 to .93. Thus, the authors concluded that the correlates of sexual harassment can be considered similar across racial/ethnic groups. Because this model focused only on a specific form of sexist discrimination (sexual harassment), it is unknown if reports of racist and sexist discrimination (defined broadly) would yield similar results across racial/ethnic groups of women. The present study aims to explore this issue.

In addition to the research efforts that focus on sexual harassment in the military, and in response to Executive Order No. 9981 (1948), which President Harry Truman issued to establish equal treatment of military personnel regardless of race, color, religion, or national origin, the Department of Defense (DoD) established several large-scale research efforts that focus on assessing and tracking equal opportunity (EO) in the military. The original executive order specified the need to establish greater opportunities for African American persons, and subsequent legislation included language to expand opportunities for other racial/ethnic minority groups and for women (Thomas, 1995). The current definition that provides the basis for instruments used by the DoD to assess EO climate is “the perceptions that military service members have about the issues of racial and gender discrimination” (U.S. General Accounting Office, 1995, p. 3).

Using this definition of EO climate, the Navy developed the Navy Equal Opportunity/Sexual Harassment (NEOSH) Survey and has administered the survey on a biennial bases since 1989 (Newell, Rosenfeld, & Culbertson, 1995). The NEOSH contains 11 demographic questions and 104 EO items to assess perceptions of racist and sexist discrimination and fairness that comprise 10 modules (assignments, training, leadership, communication, interpersonal relations, grievances, discipline, performance evaluation, promotions, and navy satisfaction). Respondents rate their agreement or disagreement with EO items using a 6-point scale (1=*strongly disagree*, 5=*strongly agree*, 6=*don't know/not applicable*). Negatively worded items are reversed scored, thus high scores indicate more favorable perceptions and low scores indicate more negative perceptions of the work environment. In addition, the 1993 NEOSH Survey contained two new sections that assessed the degree to which respondents may have experienced racist and sexist

discrimination in the past 12 months (e.g., negative comments, not asked to socialize, physically threatened). Responses to these items are dichotomous (Yes/No).

The NEOSH Survey was mailed to a random sample of 9,537 Navy personnel, stratified by major racial/ethnic groups, gender, and officer or enlisted status, resulting in the following 12 groups: 3 (African American, Hispanic, White/Other) x 2 (male, female) x 2 (officer, enlisted). Each group was then distributed proportionally across military paygrades to reflect the actual population of military personnel. The usable response rate was 41% (N=3,801) and the internal consistency reliabilities for items on the 10 EO modules were generally acceptable, ranging from .67 to .88 for the enlisted sample, from .70 to .91 for the officer sample, and from .68 to .89 for the total sample.

Rosenfeld et al. (1998) reported results from the 1993 NEOSH Survey. Averages of each of the 10 EP modules were not reported; instead, the authors summed and averaged all 10 modules to provide an overall EO climate score that reflected respondents' global perceptions of discrimination. Analysis of variance with perceived discrimination as the dependent variable yielded significant main effects of race/ethnicity and gender for the officer group; but no significant race/ethnicity by gender interaction emerged. More specifically, women officers reported significantly greater levels of perceived discrimination than did men officers. Similarly, African American officers reported significantly greater levels of perceived discrimination than did White officers, while Hispanic officers' levels fell between White officers' levels and African American officers' levels. Parallel analyses with the enlisted group yielded significant main effects for race/ethnicity and gender; again no significant race/ethnicity by gender interaction emerged. Similar to the officer group, women enlisted personnel reported significantly higher levels of perceived discrimination than did men enlisted personnel. Also,

White enlisted personnel reported significantly lower rates of perceived discrimination than both African American and Hispanic enlisted personnel. One limitation of these analyses was that Rosenfeld et al. (1998) blended all racial/ethnic groups other than African American and Hispanic into the White category. This blending of Asian American/Pacific Islander, Native American/Native Alaskan, Other, and White participants may have introduced a confound that masked some group differences and race/ethnicity by gender interaction effects.

The authors then compared EO climate data from the 1991 NEOSH with data from the 1993 NEOSH and found evidence that the size of the race/ethnicity and gender effects among officers increased from small to medium in six of the EO modules (leadership, communication, interpersonal relations, grievances, discipline, performance evaluation), suggesting the possibility of widening gender and racial/ethnic gaps in officer's perceptions of the EO climate. This trend was not seen in the enlisted ranks.

While the above results attended to global perceptions of discrimination, Rosenfeld et al. (1998) also reported results about participants' endorsement of experiences of eight types of racist (see Racist Discrimination section) and sexist discrimination within the last 12 months. Percentages were reported separately for officers and enlisted personnel as well as separately for men and women. Not surprisingly, both women officers and enlisted women reported significantly higher levels of sexist discrimination than did men. Unfortunately, however, Rosenfeld et al.'s (1998) findings did not address potential variability in rates of perceived sexist discrimination across women of various racial/ethnic groups.

Rosenfeld et al. (1998) then used the above reports of experiencing discrimination to separate respondents who reported experiencing any form of discrimination from those who did not endorse such experiences. Using this dichotomization of the sample, the authors examined the

link between reporting discrimination experiences and three job-related outcomes (intentions to leave the Navy due to dissatisfaction; intention to stay in the Navy for 20 years; general satisfaction with the Navy). Results indicated that women officers, women enlisted members, and men enlisted members who reported at least one form of sexist discrimination were significantly less satisfied with the Navy, less likely to stay in for 20 years, and more likely to leave the Navy due to their dissatisfaction than were women officers and women and men enlisted members who did not report experiencing sexist discrimination. These links did not emerge for men officers.

Overall, Rosenfeld et al.'s (1998) findings suggest that racial/ethnic minority military personnel and women in the military report higher rates of racist and sexist discrimination than do White personnel and men, respectively. Furthermore, Rosenfeld et al.'s (1998) findings suggest that perceptions of racist and sexist discrimination in the work environment are linked with indicators of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Finally, the authors' findings indicate that women's satisfaction with the Navy decreased from 1991 to 1993, especially for women who were officers. A critical limitation of Rosenfeld et al.'s findings, however, is that they treated race/ethnicity and gender and racist and sexist discrimination as mutually exclusive identities and experiences; thus, rendering invisible the experiences of racial/ethnic minority women who might experience both racist and sexist discrimination and for whom both factors might play a role in job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

In fact, a review of the literature yields pervasive findings that racial/ethnic minority woman officer's perception of the EO climate in military organizations is the least favorable when compared with other demographic subgroups. Dansby and Landis (1998) explored several hypotheses in an attempt to explain this phenomenon. The researchers argued that minority

women officers bear a “triple” burden based on population demographics: in the military, there are fewer officers than enlisted, fewer racial/ethnic minority persons than majority persons, and fewer women than men. Tokenism literature (see Izraeli, 1983; Kanter, 1977; Yoder, 1991) suggests that subgroups representing less than 15% of populations (racial/ethnic minority women officers comprised less than 1% of the military population) are often perceived as “different” and are patronized or mistreated by others. Furthermore, women who are pioneers in nontraditional career fields are more likely to experience sexist discrimination in their work environments (Sadroff, 1992), which could lead to unfavorable perceptions of the EO climate at work. Dansby and Landis (1998) also pointed out that officers must have at least a bachelor’s degree to be commissioned, thus women officers would be expected to be better educated than their enlisted counterparts and perhaps more aware of EO concerns. A study by Terpstra and Cook (1985), as well as studies conducted by the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board (1981, 1988), revealed that women with higher levels of education tended to report higher levels of experiences of sexist discrimination. Based on the above literature, Dansby and Landis (1998) hypothesized that (a) racial/ethnic minority woman officers would have more favorable views of EO climate as their proportions in the organization increased and (b) racial/ethnic minority women with greater levels of education would report less favorable perceptions of EO climate than those with lower levels of education.

Dansby and Landis (1998) used data from the Military Equal Opportunity Climate Survey (MEOCS) developed by researchers at the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI). The MEOCS is similar to the Navy’s NEOSH, but it is administered to all military services within the DoD. The MEOCS assesses EO climate and organizational effectiveness and was administered over 5,000 times in military units and accrued a database of over 600,000 cases

between 1990 and 1997. Dansby and Landis (1991) suggested that the MEOCS measures nine EO climate factors and three organizational effectiveness factors. EO scales 1 to 5 (sexual harassment and sex discrimination; differential command behaviors towards minorities; positive equal opportunity behaviors; racist/sexist behaviors; “reverse” discrimination- I) focus on perceptions of EO behaviors within the context of the respondent’s unit. Respondents are asked to rate the likelihood that certain EO behaviors occurred in their units during the last 30 days on a 5-point scale (1= *there is a very high chance that the action occurred* to 5=*there is almost no chance that the action occurred*). Scales 6 to 8 measure job-related outcomes (organizational commitment, perceived work group effectiveness, and job satisfaction) and are rated on a 5-point scale (1=*totally agree with statement* to 5=*totally disagree with statement*). Scales 9 to 11 use the same anchors as Scales 6 to 8 but are designed to measure perceptions of EO climate across a broader service context (discrimination against minorities and women; “reverse” discrimination- II; desire for racial separation). Scale 12 allows respondents to rate their overall impression of the EO climate in their unit (1=*very poor* to 5=*very good*). The scale items have acceptable reliabilities (average Cronbach’s $\alpha = .84$, range = .75-.91) and construct validity (Dansby & Landis, 1991; Landis, Dansby, & Faley, 1993).

To test the hypothesis that racial/ethnic minority women officers would have more favorable views of EO climate as their proportions in the organization increase, representation indexes (RI; proportion of a subgroup in the total unit population) were calculated (N=883). The RI and each of the 12 MEOCS scales (all items coded so that higher scores represented *more* positive perceptions of the EO climate) were correlated separately for each demographic group. The results indicated that as the RIs increased for racial/ethnic minority female officers, minority male officers, and White male officers, their positive perceptions of the EO climate in their units

increased significantly. These findings support the tenets of the tokenism hypothesis that as their representation increases in populations, minority subgroups will perceive less discrimination in their environments.

Dansby and Landis (1998) did not find support for their second hypothesis that more educated racial/ethnic minority women would report less favorable perceptions of EO climate; in fact, they found support for the opposite. They sampled 3,102 racial/ethnic minority military women. In this sample, 11.4% were officers, 6% warrant officers, 82.5 % enlisted; 56.9% were African American, 12.6% were Hispanic, 10.3% were Asian American; 59.5% were relatively low ranked (E5 and below), and only 3.2% held the rank of major or above; 22% listed their education level as high school or general equivalency, 49% had some college work, 24% were college graduate, and 7.2% had completed advanced college work or received advanced degrees. Scores from MEOCS scales (excluding the three job-related outcome scales) were averaged and entered into a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with education level as the independent variable and personnel category (officers highest, warrant officers second, enlisted lowest) and age as covariates. There was a significant effect for education level on perceptions of EO climate above and beyond the effects of age and personnel category, but the effect was the opposite of the predicted direction. Specifically, as education level increased, the positive perception of EO climate also increased. The restricted range of educational level represented by Dansby and Landis's sample (78% had college or above) may have contributed to findings that differ from other studies and were opposite to what the authors expected to find.

Overall, Dansby and Landis's (1998) findings suggest that positive perceptions of EO environment appear to decrease as proportional representation of minority groups decreases, with greater minority status related to lower levels of positive perceptions. Furthermore, level of

education may be related positively to perceptions of the work environment; however, this finding is tentative based on the restricted nature of the educational level of their sample. This study, however, failed to examine separately the perceptions of sexist discrimination and racist discrimination and instead averaged such items together, thus not exploring the possible unique relations of sexist and racist discrimination with representation in a unit and level of education of respondents. Additionally, the items measuring diversity inclusive climate were also averaged with the sexist and racist discrimination items and this construct's possible unique relations were unexplored. Furthermore, although these authors explored perceptions of the work environment, they did not examine links between such perceptions and job-related outcomes. Clearly, further studies are needed to examine perceptions of the EO climate and the link between such perceptions and job-related outcomes for women officers of various racial/ethnic backgrounds.

This final limitation was addressed in a study by McIntyre et al. (2002). These authors utilized data from the MEOCS database to examine the relationship between EO climate and three important job-related outcomes: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceived work group effectiveness (these constructs were defined earlier in this chapter). The construct of EO climate was comprised of 21 items chosen by McIntyre et al. (2002) from the MEOCS scales 1-5 and 9-11 that tapped organizational and work group fairness, such as "A supervisor gave a minority subordinate a severe punishment for a minor infraction" and "A majority member who committed the same offense was given a less severe penalty."

McIntyre et al. (2002) drew three random samples from the MEOCS database, each containing 5,000 observations. The demographics were as follows: Measurement Model Sample (3,038 Caucasian personnel, 944 African American personnel, 124 Native American personnel, 255 Asian American personnel, 329 Latino American personnel, and 310 "other"; 4,001 men,

821 women, 178 did not identify sex); Sample 1 (3,044 Caucasian personnel, 830 African American personnel, 142 Native American personnel, 231 Asian American personnel, 441 Latino American personnel, and 312 “other”; 3,939 men, 854 women, and 207 who did not indicate sex); Sample 2 (3,027 Caucasian personnel, 863 African American personnel, 138 Native American personnel, 448 Latino American personnel, and 323 “other”; 3,965 men, 858 women, and 177 who did not indicate gender). For unaddressed reasons, the number of Asian American personnel represented in Sample 2 was not reported.

The Measurement Model Sample was used to test the measurement model via confirmatory factor analysis and goodness-of-fit indexes. The measurement model was deemed adequate and the theoretical model was examined by testing its fit with Sample 1 and then replicating the results with Sample 2. The results suggested the following significant paths: EO climate to perceived work group effectiveness ($\beta = .36, p < .01$), EO climate to organizational commitment ($\beta = .36, p < .01$), EO climate to job satisfaction ($\beta = .13, p < .01$); perceived work group effectiveness to organizational commitment ($\beta = .04, p < .02$), perceived work group effectiveness to job satisfaction ($\beta = .61, p < .01$); job satisfaction to organizational commitment ($\beta = .72, p < .03$). All effects were moderate except for the link between perceived work group effectiveness and organizational commitment, which had a small effect and most likely would not reach statistical significance in a smaller sample. Overall, these findings suggest that EO climate is related positively to perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment; perceived work group effectiveness is related positively to job satisfaction; and job satisfaction is related positively to organizational commitment.

Overall, research generated by DEOMI’s use of the MEOCS suggests that racial/ethnic minority women officers report the least favorable views of EO climate. In addition, as level of

representation increases for racial/ethnic minority women officers, so does their positive perception of the EO climate. Research utilizing the MEOCS also has highlighted the important links of perceptions of EO climate with job-related outcomes. Specifically, this research suggests positive relations between positive perceptions of EO climate and perceived work group effectiveness, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Unfortunately, like studies utilizing the NEOSH, the MEOCS literature does not explore the potential unique roles of perceived racist and sexist discrimination, or diversity inclusive climate in the work experiences of racial/ethnic minority women in the military. It seems time to build upon existing research by further examining minority women's experiences of sexist discrimination while also attending to racist discrimination.

Racist Discrimination

Broadly, racism is defined as beliefs, attitudes, and actions that tend to oppress or denigrate people based on characteristics such as skin color and ethnic affiliation (Clark, Anderson, Clark, and Williams, 1999). Similar to sexism, racism is comprised of three interrelated aspects: prejudice (attitudes and feelings towards racial/ethnic minority people), stereotyping (beliefs and cognitions about racial/ethnic minority people), and discrimination (negative and patronizing acts or behaviors that oppress racial/ethnic minority people) (Aronson, 1992). Racial/ethnic discrimination has been conceptualized by Williams and Williams-Morris (2000) as occurring at an institutional level (differential access to jobs, hiring practices, and pay) as well as at the interpersonal level (rude or dismissive behavior and character assaults). Perceptions of racial/ethnic discrimination have been linked to a variety of negative outcomes such as elevated blood pressure, compromised immune systems (Krieger, 1990; Jackson, Williams, & Torres, 1997), increased paranoia, depression, anxiety, substance abuse, lowered self-esteem (Armstead, Lawler, Gordon, Cross, & Gibbons, 1989; Browman, 1996; Cooper, 1993), and negative job-

related outcomes such as lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Roberts, Swanson, & Murphy, 2004; Rosenfeld et al., 1998).

Roberts et al. (2004) reported results from a 2002 national survey titled the General Social Survey (GSS) that contained 76 items assessing the quality of work life (QWL), including perceived racist discrimination and job satisfaction. The demographic characteristics of this national sample ($n = 1,796$; all participants were employed at least part-time) were as follows: 73.1% ($n = 1263$) identified as White/European American; 12.9% ($n = 223$) identified as Black/African American; 8.2% ($n = 142$) identified as Hispanic American; 5.8% ($n = 100$) identified as Multiracial/Multiethnic; 51% ($n = 881$) identified as female; and 49% ($n = 847$) identified as male. Perceived racist discrimination was assessed by a single dichotomous item “Do you feel in any way discriminated against on your job because of race or ethnic origin” (1 = yes, 2 = no) and job satisfaction was measured on a 4-point scale (1 = very satisfied, 4 = not at all satisfied).

Results indicated that 19.4% of participants who identified as Black, 13.4% of participants who identified as Hispanic, 8.0% of participants who identified as Multiracial/Multiethnic, and 2.1% of participants who identified as White indicated that they felt discriminated against at work because of their race or ethnic origin. Additionally, the group of White participants reported the highest levels of job satisfaction ($M = 1.59$, $SD = 0.74$) while the group of Multiracial/Multiethnic participants reported the lowest job satisfaction ($M = 1.88$, $SD = 0.87$). Within racial/ethnic groups, those who perceived racial/ethnic discrimination at work reported significantly lower levels of job satisfaction compared to those who did not perceive racial/ethnic discrimination at work. Specifically, White participants who reported racial/ethnic discrimination reported lower levels of job satisfaction ($M = 1.96$, $SD = 0.06$) than did White participants who

did not report such discrimination ($M = 1.58$, $SD = 0.07$) and the difference was found to be significant ($p < 0.01$); Black participants who reported racist discrimination reported significantly ($p < 0.001$) lower job satisfaction ($M = 2.33$, $SD = 0.08$) than did Black participants who did not report such discrimination ($M = 1.64$, $SD = 0.08$); Hispanic participants who reported racist discrimination reported significantly ($p < 0.01$) lower job satisfaction ($M = 2.22$, $SD = 0.05$) than did Hispanic participants who did not report such discrimination ($M = 1.64$, $SD = 0.08$); no significant differences were found on the job satisfaction item between the group of Multiracial/Multiethnic respondents who perceived discrimination and those who did not.

Despite several apparent limitations to this study (e.g., single-item measurement of perceived racist discrimination and job satisfaction, inclusion of limited racial/ethnic groups), its findings indicate a significant negative relation between global perceptions of racial/ethnic discrimination and job satisfaction. It is interesting to note that while 51% of the participants in this study identified as female, gender was not explored in relation to racial/ethnic identification or experiences of discrimination.

Deitch, Barsky, Butz, Chan, Brief, and Bradley (2003) examined the prevalence of everyday mistreatment on the job ('Gave others privileges you did not get,' 'Treated you as if you did not exist,' and 'Made insulting jokes or comments') reported by a sample of 314 participants from a non-military corporation. The authors only included participants who identified as either White or Black (76% identified as White; 58% identified as male; average age was 37 years; 40% completed a college degree; and average job tenure was 11.92 years). The authors found that compared to White individuals, those who identified as Black perceived significantly more mistreatment on the job ($r = .21$, $p < .01$) and reported significantly lower perceptions of job satisfaction ($r = -.15$, $p < .10$).

The authors then attempted to replicate their findings with two different samples and a different instrument. The authors utilized data from the Department of Defense 1995 Sexual Harassment Survey (Bastian et al., 1996) to examine everyday mistreatment on the job for a sample of 5483 individuals from the Navy (23% identified as Black; 80% identified as female; average age of 31.6 years) and a sample of 8311 Army personnel (40% identified as Black; 82% identified as female; average age 32.7 years). The authors again excluded respondents who identified as other than White or Black and included items such as ‘Is your work performance evaluated fairly’ and ‘Do you get the assignments you need to be competitive for promotions?’ They found that race was associated significantly with mistreatment for both military samples (Navy, $r = .12, p < .01$; Army, $r = .08, p < .01$) and race was significantly negatively related to job satisfaction (Navy, $r = -.13, p < .01$; Army, $r = -.11, p < .01$) with individuals who identified as Black reporting significantly higher levels of mistreatment and significantly lower levels of job satisfaction. Interestingly, Bastian et al.’s (1996) study was specifically designed to assess for sexual harassment, a form of sexist discrimination, yet Deitch et al. (2003) did not explore gender groups disproportionately represented in the military data they used for their second and third sample, nor did they discuss the topic of sexist discrimination in their article. This lack of consideration of gender status in relationship to racial/ethnic status and the perceptions of mistreatment in the workplace is a limitation of this study.

While most of the empirical literature utilizing military participants blends assessment and analysis of racism and sexism into global “discrimination” scales, an exception exists. As mentioned previously, the 1993 NIOSH Survey contained two sections that assessed the degree to which respondents may have experienced racist and sexist discrimination in the past 12 months (8 items for both types of discrimination; e.g., negative comments, not asked to socialize,

physically threatened). Responses to these items are dichotomous (Yes/No). As reported by Rosenfeld et al. (1998), African American personnel reported experiencing more racist discrimination than White personnel, and Hispanic personnel's rates generally fell between the rates for White and African American personnel. Furthermore, the data indicated that among officers, experiencing racist discrimination was associated with higher intentions to leave the Navy for African American officers and lower satisfaction with the Navy for both White and African American officers. For enlisted personnel, the effects of racist discrimination were significant for all three racial and ethnic groups and enlisted personnel who reported experiencing at least one form of racial discrimination were significantly less satisfied with the Navy, more likely to plan to leave the Navy due to dissatisfaction, and were less likely to stay in the Navy for 20 years.

Overall, Rosenfeld et al.'s (1998) findings suggest that racial/ethnic minority military members report higher rates of racist discrimination than do White members and that perceptions of racist discrimination in the work environment are linked with indicators of job satisfaction and organizational commitment for military personnel. There are several limitations to this study, however. Rosenfeld et al.'s (1998) decision to combine women and men and racial/ethnic categories of Asian American/Pacific Islander, Native American/Native Alaskan, and Other into the White category may have masked some important subgroup differences in experiences of racist discrimination. Unfortunately, other research with military populations exhibits a similar trend of collapsing subgroups into larger grouping, such as minority and nonminority (e.g., Hay & Elig, 1999). More specific examination of gender by racial/ethnic groups would provide richer information about military personnel's perceptions of discrimination and its correlates. Finally, the data used in Rosenfeld et al.'s (1998) study is now 12 years old. Thus, Rosenfeld et al.'s

(1998) study needs to be replicated with more recent data to discover if their findings persist in today's military force. Thus, examining with more recent data, the unique relations of military women's perceptions of racist and sexist discrimination with retention-related variables such as job satisfaction and organization commitment seems warranted.

Diversity Inclusive Climate

Whereas the literature regarding perceptions of workplace sexist and racist discrimination links these perceptions with negative job-related outcomes, diversity inclusive work-related climate has been linked to desirable job-related outcomes. The unique link of diversity inclusiveness in the work climate to job-related outcomes is widely supported in the literature (e.g., Bond, Punnett, Pyle, Cazeca, & Cooperman, 2004; de Jonge, Dormann, Janssen, Dollard, Landeweerd, Nijhuis, 2001). For example, Bond et al. (2004) explored the relations of job satisfaction, psychological distress, and physical health with the following predictor variables: gendered condition of work (perceptions of discrimination, personal experiences of discrimination, organizational responsiveness to discrimination), job demands (physical work demands, hours spent at a video display terminal), and a supportive and diversity inclusive social work climate (defined as a combination of coworker and supervisor support, to include support for minority members, and sense of community). The participants of this study ($N = 208$) were non-faculty university employees (51% of participants identified as women, 2% identified as African American, 6% identified as Asian, 1% identified as Hispanic, 5% identified as "other", and 88% identified as White). While job satisfaction was associated significantly with low gendered conditions of work and job demands, it had the strongest correlation with supportive and diversity inclusive social work climate ($r = .72, p < .05$). When entered into regression analyses, supportive and diversity inclusive social work climate emerged as the strongest single predictor of job satisfaction, solely explaining over 50% of the variance in job satisfaction. The

authors concluded that the supportive and inclusive social climate at work is an important variable for organizations to attend to because of its strong relation to job satisfaction.

In another study, Williams et al. (1999) used the sample from the 1995 Status of the Armed Forces-Gender Issues Study (described earlier in the Sexist Discrimination section) to examine the links between organizational practices, sexual harassment, and individual job, health, and psychological outcomes. Specifically, the authors tested Hulin, Fitzgerald, and Brasgow's (1996) and Culbertson and Rodgers' (1997) findings that individual's perceptions of organizational tolerance - intolerance of sexual harassment was a stronger predictor of employee outcomes than direct experiences of sexual harassment. Three organizational practices were tested in relation to the incidence of sexual harassment and individual job-related, health-related, and psychological outcomes of service members: implementation practices (formal and informal actions taken to prevent sexual harassment and to enforce company policies against it, to include promoting a diversity inclusive climate), education (efforts to teach employees the definition of harassment and to communicate organizational policies regarding harassment), and resources (organizational offerings of information, advice, or support for targets of harassment).

Findings indicated that implementation practices, which are similar to Pryor, Geidd, and William's (1995) construct of organizational tolerance or intolerance of sexual harassment and include the promotion of a diversity inclusive climate, were the only organizational practices uniquely associated with reports of sexual harassment experienced by women service members (accounting for 14% of the variance in sexual harassment for women). Specifically, higher levels of implementation practices were related to lower reports of sexual harassment. There were no significant interactions between implementation practices and demographic variables in the prediction of reports of sexual harassment in the military. Furthermore, implementation practices

were the best predictor of job satisfaction (accounting for 12% of the variance for women), workgroup productivity (5% of the variance for women), and organizational commitment (12% of the variance for women). For women, there was an interaction effect for race/ethnicity in predicting organizational commitment such that for racial/ethnic minority women, there was a stronger relationship between implementation practices and organizational commitment than there was for White women. Furthermore, there was a personnel category interaction effect for work satisfaction such that a stronger relationship between implementation practices and work satisfaction existed for the higher ranks of women than the lower ranks. These findings indicate that it is important to attend to the additional role of positive organizational practices, such as promoting a diversity inclusive climate, when examining the link of perceived discrimination with job-related outcomes, especially for higher ranked racial/ethnic minority women.

A separate study was conducted by Fitzgerald et al. (1997) which used data from the 1995 Status of the Armed Forces Gender Issues Study. Data from the same sample analyzed by Williams et al. (1999) was entered into a path analysis with organizational tolerance, job gender context, and job level as exogenous variables and sexual harassment, health satisfaction, psychological well-being, organizational commitment, self-reported workgroup productivity, and job satisfaction as endogenous variables. The only reported indicators of data-model fit suggested mixed information. While the authors' concluded that the reported fit indices suggested generally acceptable fit for women (GFI of .96, AGFI of .90, and SRMR of .097) and for men (GFI of .95, AGFI of .88, and SRMR of .12), current guidance (Kline, 1998) defines acceptable values of GFI and AGFI as values of .90 or greater and SRMR values of .08 or less as acceptable. The lack of consistency of fit may be accounted for by the authors' choice of fit indices. Hu and Bentler (1995), Martens (2005), and Weston and Gore (2006) warn that GFI and

AGFI can be substantially influenced by factors other than model misspecification, such as large sample size. Furthermore, other fit indices not reported by Fitzgerald et al. (1999) are less influenced by sample size, such as CFI and IFI. Given the questionable fit of the proposed model, the results of Fitzgerald et al.'s (1999) are cautiously interpreted. All specified paths in the model were statistically significant, which was not surprising given the extremely large sample size. Specifically, estimates of the paths from organizational tolerance (climate) to sexual harassment were $\beta = .39, p < .01$ for women and $\beta = .24, p < .01$ for men, again suggesting that organizational tolerance for harassment is related directly and positively to the reported frequency of experiences of sexual harassment. The estimates of the paths from job gender context (either stereotypically feminine or masculine jobs) to sexual harassment were $\beta = -.11, p < .01$ and $\beta = -.07, p < .01$ for women and men, respectively, suggesting that individuals (women and men) who worked in jobs that were nontraditional for their gender reported higher levels of sexual harassment. As expected, sexual harassment had significant negative direct links to job satisfaction ($\beta = -.16, p < .01$ for women and $\beta = -.10, p < .01$ for men). Job satisfaction had significant positive direct links to organizational commitment ($\beta = .51, p < .01$ for women and $\beta = .55, p < .01$ for men) and self-reported work productivity ($\beta = .21, p < .01$ for women and $\beta = .25, p < .01$ for men). Organizational tolerance (climate) had significant negative direct links to job satisfaction ($\beta = -.34, p < .01$ for women and $\beta = -.29, p < .01$ for men).

These findings are similar to McIntyre et al.'s (2002) findings that experiences of harassment and perceptions of organizational tolerance (climate) of harassment are related negatively to job satisfaction, which in turn, is related positively to organizational commitment and perceived productivity. As stated previously, the present study will examine a similar chain of relations among perceptions of sexist discrimination, racist discrimination, diversity inclusive climate,

perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, using both McIntyre et al.'s (2002) and Williams et al.'s (1999) findings to guide examination of the nature of the relations among variables.

Summary and Hypotheses

The body of literature focusing on racial/ethnic minority women's experiences of discrimination in the military suggests that minority women officers report the highest rates of discrimination, perhaps due to their status of belonging to three minority groups within the military organization (officer, women, and racial/ethnic minorities) (Bastian et al., 1996; Dansby, 1994; Dansby & Landis, 1998; Drasgow et al., 1998; Rosenfeld et al., 1998). The literature also establishes that reports of discrimination, whether direct experiences of discrimination or perceptions that discrimination is tolerated in one's workplace, are linked with negative job-related outcomes (Bergman & Drasgow, 2003; Fitzgerald et al., 1999; McIntyre et al., 2002; Williams et al., 1999). In considering the roles of race/ethnicity along with gender, however, existing research has not moved beyond descriptive studies that suggest a main effect of race on women's reports of discrimination and negative job-related outcomes. Indeed, prior studies typically collapse racial/ethnic groups, combine sexist and racist discrimination items on scales, or ignore racist discrimination completely and only examine sexist discrimination. The majority of studies also fail to incorporate the link of diversity inclusive climate to job-related outcomes. These limitations may mask or distort important nuances that can add to the understanding of women's experiences in nontraditional career fields. Thus, the present study addresses these gaps in the literature by examining concomitantly the potentially unique relations of perceived racist and sexist discrimination and diversity inclusive work climate with women officers' reports of job-related outcomes. As such, this study also aims to expand the tenants of SCCT into later

stages of women's career lifespan and inform the body of literature generated by TWA by examining the links of contextual factors to job-related outcomes.

Specifically, the model proposed by McIntyre et al. (2002) to explain the relationships between EO climate and job-related outcomes is utilized and expanded in the present study to examine concomitantly the relations of workplace racist and sexist discrimination, as well as perceptions of diversity inclusive work climate with perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The model tested in the current study is portrayed in Figure 1 and examines the following hypotheses:

1. Perceived workplace racist and sexist discrimination will be significantly and negatively related, whereas perceived diversity inclusive work climate will be significantly and positively related to perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.
2. Perceived work group effectiveness will mediate the relations of racist discrimination, sexist discrimination, and diversity inclusive climate to job satisfaction. Full and partial mediation will be explored.
3. Job satisfaction will (a) mediate the relations of racist discrimination, sexist discrimination, and diversity inclusive climate to organizational commitment and (b) mediate the relation of perceived work group effectiveness to organizational commitment. Full and partial mediation will be explored.
4. The strength of the proposed relations will be explored across racial/ethnic groups. It is expected that the link between racist discrimination and outcomes will be stronger for racial/ethnic minority women than for White women.

Methodological and statistical procedures for examining the above hypotheses are described in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 3 METHOD

Participants

The MEOCS database contains over 1,000,000 observations that have been gathered since 1991. Data from 2002 were selected because they represented the most expansive and recent data set available for the present study. The respondents included in the analyses for the present study were filtered by year, by gender, and by personnel status, thus the participants of interest are 1,465 active duty women officers or warrant officers (a special category of officers in the Army that do not necessarily hold a college-level degree) who responded to the MEOCS during 2002. Given the focus of the present study on officers, enlisted personnel were not included in analyses.

Of the 1,465 participants, 14.4% identified as American Indian or Alaskan Native, 13.2% identified as Asian or Pacific Islander, 13.0% identified as African American, 5.8% identified as Hispanic, 48.2% identified as White, and 5.4% identified as Other. With regard to age, 10.6% of the sample was under 20, 27.9% was 20-25, 24.3% was 26-30, 23.9% was 31-40, 10.1% was 41-50, 3.1% was 51 or older. In terms of education, 8.6% of the sample reported having less than high school, 11.0% reported high school or equivalent, 8.2% reported some college, 36.6% reported a college degree, and 33.7% reported advanced college work. With regard to branch of military, 9.5% of the sample was in the Air Force, 30.6% was in the Army, 38.3% was in the Navy, 17.5% was in the Marine Corps, and 2.4% was in the Coast Guard. In order of lowest officer rank to highest officer rank, the military ranks of the sample were: 9% W1, 7.4% W2, 3.6% W3, 1.5% W4, 1.3% W5 (Warrant Officer Level 1-5), 34.2% O1-O2 (Second and First Lieutenant), 33.3% O3 (Captain), 13.8% O4 (Major), 7.7% O5 (Lieutenant Colonel), 5.2% O6 or above Colonel through General Officer). Due to the fact that they had large amounts of missing

data, 13 participants were excluded from the analyses, thus, the final number of participants used for the current study is 1,452.

The above 2002 demographic information was compared to data from women military officers who responded to the MEOCS in 2001 (N = 2,182) to examine whether the composition of the 2002 sample was representative of previous years. The comparative percentages of racial/ethnic groups were as follows: 14.3% (2001) and 14.4% (2002) identified as American Indian/Native Alaskan; 15.9% (2001) and 13.2% (2002) identified as Asian/Pacific Islander; 15.1% (2001) and 13.0% identified as African American; 5.8% (2001) and 5.8% (2002) identified as Hispanic; 43.3% (2001) and 48.0% (2002) identified as White; and 4.8% (2001) and 5.4% (2002) identified as Other. Overall, demographics across the two years were similar.

Procedures

The MEOCS (Dansby & Landis, 1991) database, maintained by DEOMI at Patrick Air Force Base, FL, served as the source of data for the present study. The MEOCS is administered to individual unit members at the request of the unit's commander. Commanders are encouraged to assess the EO climate soon after assuming responsibility of a unit and to use the feedback from the MEOCS and corresponding corrective actions from DEOMI to take appropriate steps to improve the EO climate if indicated. Commanders are additionally encouraged to reassess their unit's EO climate after two to three years, which usually corresponds to the end of their tenure as commanders. Individuals are notified on the front cover of the MEOCS that their participation is voluntary and their individual identities are untraceable to their responses. They are further informed that unit averages will be provided to the requesting commander and their responses will be accumulated in a database for research and development purposes. However, to protect the anonymity of respondents, results are not reported for gender, rank, or racial/ethnic groups if fewer than five respondents are represented in a particular subgroup. There is no prescribed

length of time for individuals to complete the survey and responses are coded on scannable answer sheets and returned to DEOMI for analysis.

There is no tangible incentive offered for completing the MEOCS survey and the average return rate of the MEOCS in 2002 was 40% (Knouse, 2002). It is traditionally accepted that a 50% return rate is considered adequate, 60% is considered good, and 70% is very good (Babbie, 1979). Meta-analyses of published survey research; however, show average return rates between 46% and 49% and the average return rate for surveys without incentives is 28% (Church, 1993; Heberlein & Baumgartner, 1978). Published research involving the MEOCS from 1996 to 2002 show a range of return rates from 37% to 45%, thus, the return rate of 40% for the present study is deemed acceptable (Knouse, 2002).

Because the MEOCS is sent, upon request, to a variety of unit commanders, who then distribute the paper-and-pen formatted MEOCS to their subordinates, the context in which individuals complete the survey is not controlled. It is unknown if individuals are instructed to complete the survey in the work environment, or if they are instructed to complete the survey at home. Additionally, the MEOCS can be given in a group or individual format. While DEOMI publishes recommended methods for administering and collecting the MEOCS, it is unknown if the recommended methods were consistently followed. This lack of standardization in the administration of the paper-and-pen format of the MEOCS leads to uncertainty about the extent to which the environment in which individuals completed the MEOCS was free (as much as possible) of external influences. Thus, MEOCS data must be interpreted with this limitation in mind.

Furthermore, it must be noted that it is impossible to determine whether there are repeat participants in the MEOCS database due to the anonymity of the participants. The likelihood of

repeat participation, however, can be estimated to be very low. For an individual to complete two MEOCS in one calendar year, one of two situations must occur. The individual's unit commander must request the MEOCS twice within a calendar year (which is against the recommended two to three year time lapse for commanders to re-administer the MEOCS to their units), or the individual must change units and have an old and new unit commander who requests the MEOCS during the time the individual was assigned to their units. These two scenarios are possible but highly improbable. In fact, DEOMI recommends restricting datasets to one year in order to maximize odds that datasets do not include repeat participants (Lt Hubert Coard, personal communication, February 15, 2004).

Instruments

The MEOCS was based on the following definition of EO climate: The expectation by individuals that opportunities, responsibilities, and rewards will be accorded on the basis of a person's abilities, efforts, and contributions, and not on race, color, sex, religion, or national origin. It is to be emphasized that this definition involves the individual's perceptions and may or may not be based on the actual witnessing of behavior. (Dansby & Landis, 1991, p. 392)

There are 100 items on the MEOCS designed to measure equal opportunity (EO) climate and organizational effectiveness. Through factor analysis, Dansby and Landis (1991) suggested that the MEOCS measures nine EO climate factors and three organizational effectiveness factors. EO scales 1 to 5 focus on perceptions of EO behaviors within the context of the respondent's unit (1=sexual harassment and sex discrimination; 2=differential command behaviors towards minorities; 3=positive equal opportunity behaviors; 4=racist/sexist behaviors; 5="reverse" discrimination-I). Respondents are asked to rate the likelihood that certain EO behaviors occurred in their units during the last 30 days on a 5-point scale (1= *there is a very high chance that the action occurred* to 5=*there is almost no chance that the action occurred*). Scales 6 to 8

measure job-related outcomes (organizational commitment; perceived work group effectiveness; job satisfaction) and are rated on a 5-point scale (1=*totally agree with statement* to 5=*totally disagree with statement*). Scales 9 to 11 use the same anchors as Scales 6 to 8 but are designed to measure general attitudes towards EO issues across a broader service context (discrimination against minorities and women; “reverse” discrimination-II; desire for racial separation). Scale 12 allows respondents to rate their overall impression of the EO climate in their unit (1=*very poor* to 5=*very good*). The scale items have yielded acceptable reliabilities (average Cronbach’s $\alpha = .84$, range = .75-.91) (Landis et al., 1993). Support for construct validity is evidenced by discriminate and convergent validity (Dansby & Landis, 1991).

The MEOCS scales of interest for the present study were scales 1-5 (EO behaviors in the respondent’s workplace) and scales 6-8 (job-related outcomes). When the MEOCS was developed, it was factor analyzed using a general sample of military personnel, of which women only comprised 14% (Dansby & Landis, 1991). An extensive literature review resulted in no publications that examined the structure of the MEOCS for gender or racial/ethnic minority groups.

Due to the lack of published a priori factor structure for the MEOCS with minority samples, it was unknown if the factor structure for scales 1-8 reported by Dansby and Landis (1991) were appropriate for respondents used in the present study. Scholars often discuss the importance of using relevant minority samples when examining the structure of measures that are used to study minority experiences, especially experiences of sexist and racist discrimination (Klonoff & Landrine, 1995; Mobley, Slaney, & Rice, 2005; Moradi & Subich, 2002; Ponterotto & Casas, 1991). In light of such calls, one contribution of the present study is to examine the structure of the MEOCS based on samples of women officers. Thus, in preparation for the

proposed study, the recommended two-step procedure (an exploratory factor analysis followed by a confirmatory factor analysis) with two separate samples (2001 and 2002) was followed to develop indicators of the variables of interest (Bryant & Yarnold, 2001; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

The first step to explore the structure of the MEOCS for women officers involved subjecting data from the 2001 women officer sample to Principle Components Analysis (PCA) and item-level reliability analyses to identify the most optimal set of items to be used as indicators of the variables of interest. The set of items comprising scales 1-5 (MEOCS items 1-50; EO behaviors in the respondent's workplace) and scales 6-8 (MEOCS items 51-73; job-related outcomes) established by Dansby and Landis (1991) were examined separately as the independent and dependent variables of interest for the present study. The number of factors retained was determined by (a) Cattell's scree test (Field, 2000), (b) eigenvalues greater than 1.0, (c) percentage of total variance accounted for by each factor, (d) the interpretability of the solution and (e) factors having a minimum of four items loadings greater than .40 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). A minimum factor loading cutoff of $\pm .30$ was used and items that cross-loaded were retained on the factor that had the highest loading and were clearly conceptually related to their assigned factor (Byrant & Yarnold, 2001). The distribution and normality of these data were examined and indicated the appropriateness of conducting factor analyses with these data (Weston & Gore, 2006).

PCA results for MEOCS items 1-50 (Table A-2) suggested a three factor solution that accounted for 51.00% of the total variance. In addition, item-level reliability analyses indicated high levels of homogeneity among items from each factor. The three factors that emerged reflected Perceived Racist Discrimination (25 items; $\alpha = .96$; range of factor loadings = .86 - .37;

range of corrected item-total correlation = .76 - .57), Perceived Sexist Discrimination (13 items; $\alpha = .92$; range of factor loadings = .88 - .43; range of corrected item-total correlation = .73 - .58), and Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate (11 items; $\alpha = .88$; range of factor loadings = .72 - .54; range of corrected item-total correlation = .68 - .51).

Similarly, PCA and item-level analyses results for MEOCS items 51-73 (Table A-3) pointed to a four-factor solution that accounted for 53.81% of the total variance. The first factor that emerged reflected positively worded Organizational Commitment items (6 items; $\alpha = .83$; range of factor loadings = .79 - .60; range of corrected item-total correlation = .70- .42). The second factor reflected Perceived Work Group Effectiveness (5 items; $\alpha = .84$; range of factor loadings = .80 - .75; range of corrected item-total correlation = .68 - .59). The third factor reflected Job Satisfaction (6 items; $\alpha = .79$; range of factor loadings = .75 - .55; range of corrected item-total correlation = .57 - .48). The fourth factor that emerged reflected negatively worded Organizational Commitment items and proved to be somewhat problematic. The 6 items yielded an alpha of .71 with a range of factor loadings from .76 to .53. The range of corrected item-total correlation was .50 to .36. Two of the items (“I could just as well be working in another organization as long as the type of work was similar” and “It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization”) reduced alpha, and were eliminated from that scale. Next, items from both factors that emerged for Organizational Commitment (one factor comprised of positively stated items and the other factor comprised of negatively stated items) were entered simultaneously into a reliability analyses. The combination of the ten items that reflected Organizational Commitment yielded an alpha of .83. For purposes of the present study, the negatively worded organizational commitment items were reversed

scored and merged with the positively worded items to create a single Organizational Commitment scale. Thus, high scores consistently indicated high levels of all variable of interest.

Based on the factor structures and item-level reliability analyses that emerged from the 2001 women officer sample, the data from the 2002 women officer sample were subjected to Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) using AMOS 7.0 (Arbuckle, 2006). Tabachnick and Fidell's (2001) recommendations were followed to perform mean score substitutions (using individual participant's means) of missing data within each factor that emerged from the PCA to prepare the data set for the CFA. Maximum likelihood was used as the estimation method in the CFAs.

Appropriate indicators of model fit were chosen based on recommendations from Hu and Bentler (1995), Martens (2005), and Weston and Gore (2006). These authors warn that several fit indices (e.g., goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), normed fit index (NFI), chi-square fit index (X^2), and X^2/df) can be substantially influenced by factors other than model misspecification, such as sample size and the number of indicators per factor, and do not tend to generalize consistently across samples. Thus, the following recommended indicators were examined to determine the adequacy of data-model fit in the present study: Root-mean-square-error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger & Lind, 1980), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR; Bentler, 1995), comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), incremental fit index (IFI; Bollen, 1989), and the Tucker-Lewis index (also known as the non-normed fit index; TLI; Tucker & Lewis, 1973). The generally accepted guidelines for indicators of a well-fitting model are CFI, IFI, and TLI values of .90 or greater, RMSEA values of .08 or less, and SRMR values of .05 or less (Kline, 1998). The three-factor model that emerged from the first PCA (independent variables: Perceived Racist Discrimination, Perceived Sexist Discrimination, and

Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate) was entered into a CFA and is presented in Figure B-2. The three-factor model that emerged from the second PCA (dependent variables: Job Satisfaction, Perceived Work Group Effectiveness, and Organizational Commitment) was entered into a second CFA and is presented in Figure B-3. The fit indicators for both CFAs are presented in Table A-4.

Indicators of model fit for the independent variable model yielded mixed support for the model. The CFI, IFI, and TLI were slightly below the acceptable cut-off of .90 (.89, .89, and .88, respectively); however, the RMSEA and SRMR met the acceptable guidelines (.06 and .05, respectively). Nasser and Wisenbaker (2003) contend that while researchers report that CFI, IFI, and TLI are not as susceptible to being impacted by the number of items or indicators in a model (e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1995; Martens, 2005; Weston & Gore, 2006), large sample sizes and numerous items may still influence these fit indexes. The present study has a large sample size ($N = 1,452$) and the independent variables are defined by a high number of items (perceived racist discrimination was measured with 25 items, perceived sexist discrimination was measured with 13 items, and perceived diversity inclusive climate was measured with 11 items, for a total of 49 items in the entire model). Based on the model's yield of acceptable values of RMSEA and SRMR and the mixed evidence in the literature of the utility of CFI, IFI, and TLI as fit indicators for models involving high numbers of indicators, the independent variable model was deemed an acceptable fit for the data.

The dependent variable model yielded acceptable fit indicators (CFI = .91, IFI = .91, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .05). This was not surprising given that the dependent variable model contained only 21 measured items, less than half of the measured items in the independent variable model. Both CFA models seem to suggest that the data support the three-factor structure

for the independent variable model and the three-factor structure for the dependent variable model obtained from the 2001 sample. Thus, these models served as the basis for computing observed indicator scores for the path analyses in the present study.

Specifically, based on the findings from the PCA and CFA conducted with data from 2001 and 2002 women officer samples, the following scale scores were computed and used as indicators of the variables of interest for the present study: Perceived Racist Discrimination, Perceived Sexist Discrimination, Perceived Inclusive Social Climate, Perceived Work Group Effectiveness, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment. Sample items and reliability evidence for each of these scales are described below.

Independent Variables

Respondents were asked to rate the likelihood that behaviors described in the items comprising all three independent variable scales (Perceived Racist Discrimination, Perceived Sexist Discrimination, Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate) occurred in their duty location during the last 30 duty days on a 5-point scale (1 = *there is almost no chance that the action occurred* to 5 = *there is a very high chance that the action occurred*). Thus, higher scores indicated higher levels of perceived racist discrimination, perceived sexist discrimination, and perceived diversity inclusive climate.

Perceived Racist Discrimination was assessed using 25 items that emerged from the previously described factor analyses of MEOCS items as measuring perceptions of racist discrimination within the organizational climate. Sample items include: “Offensive racial/ethnic names were frequently heard” and “A majority member complained that there was too much interracial dating among other people in the organization.” With the present sample, perceived racist discrimination items yielded an alpha internal consistency of .96 and corrected item-total correlations ranged from .57 to .76.

Perceived Sexist Discrimination was assessed using 13 MEOCS items that have similar content and loaded together in the aforementioned factor analyses. Sample items include: “A woman was asked to take notes and provide refreshments at staff meetings, such duties were not part of her job assignment” and “A woman who complained about sexual harassment was not recommended for promotion.” With the present sample, *Perceived Sexist Discrimination* items yielded an alpha internal consistency of .92, and the range of corrected item-total correlations was .57 to .73.

Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate was assessed with 11 items that emerged from the factor analyses of MEOCS items as measuring perceptions of positive equal opportunity behaviors. *Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate* items describe positive elements of the organizational climate that support diversity among members, such as “Majority and minority members were seen socializing together“ and “When the Commander/CO held staff meetings, women and minorities, as well as majority men, were asked to contribute suggestions to solve problems.” With the present sample, *Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate* items yielded an alpha internal consistency of .88 and the corrected item-total correlations ranged from .51 to .68.

Dependent Variables

Perceived Work Group Effectiveness was assessed with 5 items including “The quality of output of my work group is very high” and “My work group’s performance in comparison to similar work groups is high.” Respondents were asked to rate their perception of the effectiveness of their work group (all persons who report to the same supervisor as they do) using a 5-point scale (1 = *totally disagree with the statement* to 5 = *totally agree with the statement*). Higher scores indicated higher levels of perceived work group effectiveness. With the present sample, *Perceived Work Group Effectiveness* items yielded an acceptable alpha internal consistency of .84 and corrected item-total correlations from .59 to .67.

Job Satisfaction was measured with 6 items that assessed respondents' level of satisfaction with their current job. Respondents rated their level of satisfaction on items such as "My job as a whole" and "My job security" using a 5-point scale (1 = very dissatisfied to 5 = very satisfied), with higher scores indicating higher levels of job satisfaction. With the present sample, Job Satisfaction items yielded an acceptable alpha internal consistency of .79 and corrected alpha item-total correlations ranged from .48 to .58.

Organizational Commitment was measured with 10 items that emerged from the aforementioned factor analyses of MEOCS items as measuring both positively (6 items) and negatively (4 items) worded statements about one's commitment to their organization. The negatively worded statements were reversed scored so that higher ratings on the following 5-point scale (1 = totally disagree with the statement to 5 = totally agree with the statement) indicated higher levels of organizational commitment. Sample items include: "I am proud to tell others that I am apart of this organization" and "I feel very little loyalty to this organization" (reversed scored). With the present sample, Organizational Commitment items yielded an acceptable alpha internal consistency of .83 and corrected item-total correlations ranged from .42 to .65.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

Descriptive Results

Descriptive statistics are reported in Table 5. The full matrix of correlation coefficients was examined for bivariate associations and for collinearity among all variables and is reported in Table 6. The Perceived Racist and Sexist Discrimination scales developed by exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses in the present study have not been published previously, thus it is not possible to directly compare the scale means obtained in the present study to means obtained in other studies. The Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate scale; however, was used by Dansby and Landis (1998). The Perceived Diversity Inclusive scale mean and standard deviation obtained in the present study for the entire sample ($M = 3.90$, $SD = .86$) were similar to those reported by Dansby and Landis (1998) for a sample of 3,102 racial/ethnic minority military women ($M = 3.82$, $SD = .76$). Means and standard deviations obtained in the present sample for Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($M = 4.02$, $SD = .83$), Job Satisfaction ($M = 3.96$, $SD = .77$), and Organizational Commitment ($M = 3.27$, $SD = .81$) also were similar to those reported by Dansby and Landis (1998) for Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($M = 4.06$, $SD = .68$), Job Satisfaction ($M = 3.96$, $SD = .48$), and Organizational Commitment ($M = 3.18$, $SD = .58$) with their sample of 3,102 racial/ethnic minority military women.

To examine the bivariate relations between the variables of interest, a correlation matrix for the entire sample ($N = 1,452$) was computed and is reported in Table 6. Perceived Racist Discrimination and Perceived Sexist Discrimination were strongly positively correlated ($r = .86$, $p < .01$) with each other, while Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate was negatively correlated with both Perceived Racist Discrimination ($r = -.39$, $p < .01$) and Perceived Sexist Discrimination ($r = -.29$, $p < .01$). Conceptually, the negative correlations of the two Perceived

Discrimination scores (negative perceptions of the work climate) with Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate scores (positive perceptions of the work climate) are consistent with expectation. Consistent with previous research findings (e.g., McIntyre & et. al., 2002; Fitzgerald, et. al., 1997; Roberts, Swanson, & Murphy, 2004; Rosenfeld et al., 1998), both Perceived Racist Discrimination and Perceived Sexist Discrimination scores were related significantly and negatively with all three criterion variables. Specifically, Perceived Racist Discrimination was correlated negatively with Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($r = -.31, p < .01$), Job Satisfaction ($r = -.33, p < .01$), and Organizational Commitment ($r = -.39, p < .01$) and Perceived Sexist Discrimination was correlated negatively with Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($r = -.29, p < .01$), Job Satisfaction ($r = -.30, p < .01$), and Organizational Commitment ($r = -.38, p < .01$). Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate was related significantly and positively with Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($r = .39, p < .01$), Job Satisfaction ($r = .42, p < .01$), and Organizational Commitment ($r = .40, p < .01$), which is consistent with Bond et al.'s (2004) and Williams et al.'s (1999) findings. Also consistent with previous findings (e.g., Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; McIntyre et al., 2002), Perceived Work Group Effectiveness and Job Satisfaction ($r = .56, p < .01$), Perceived Work Group Effectiveness and Organizational Commitment ($r = .38, p < .01$), and Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment ($r = .54, p < .01$) were related positively and significantly. To evaluate whether multicollinearity was problematic, Tabachnick and Fidell's (2001) recommended cut-off of .90 was considered. None of the correlations between the variables of interested exceeded this cut-off, although the correlation between perceived racist and sexist discrimination approached this cut-off ($r = .86, p < .01$). Furthermore, the variables of interest

emerged as separate and reliable factors in the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses reported earlier in the present study, thus, multicollinearity was not deemed to be problematic.

Tests of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. The bivariate correlation coefficients reported above support the hypothesized relations between the three predictors and the three outcome variables, such that Perceived Racist and Sexist Discrimination were related significantly and negatively whereas Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate was related significantly and positively with Perceived Work Group Effectiveness, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment. AMOS 7.0 (Arbuckle, 2006) was used to test the path model depicted in Figure 1. The path model allowed the examination of the unique direct, as well as indirect relations between the predictor and criterion variables. The hypothesized path model contained 21 free parameters, and, according to Kline (1998), 5-10 observations per parameter are recommended. Thus, 105-210 observations are recommended for inclusion in the present study's path model. The total sample size was 1,452, which exceeded the minimum observations recommended by Kline (1998).

Results of the path analysis of the entire sample's data are reported in Figure B-4. The path model was fully saturated, thus the model produced perfect fit to the data. Perceived Racist Discrimination was linked uniquely and negatively only with Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($\beta = -.11, p < .05$), and Perceived Sexist Discrimination was linked uniquely and negatively with Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($\beta = -.10, p < .05$) and Organizational Commitment ($\beta = -.18, p < .001$). Neither discrimination variables was linked uniquely with Job Satisfaction. Furthermore, perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate was linked uniquely and positively with all three criterion variables; Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($\beta = .35, p < .001$), Job Satisfaction ($\beta = .16, p < .001$) and Organizational Commitment ($\beta = .16, p < .001$). Finally, Perceived Work Group Effectiveness was linked uniquely and positively with both Job

Satisfaction ($\beta = .47, p < .001$) and Organizational Commitment ($\beta = .38, p < .001$). Job Satisfaction was not linked uniquely with Organizational Commitment. The model accounted for 36% of the variance in Perceived Work Group Effectiveness, 21% of the variance in Job Satisfaction, and 37% of the variance in Organizational Commitment.

Hypotheses 2 & 3. Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedures were followed to test the hypotheses involving mediation. For a variable to qualify as a mediator 1) there must be a link between the predictor and mediator, 2) there must be a link between the mediator and criterion, and 3) a previously significant link between the predictor and criterion must be reduced significantly when the role of the mediator is accounted for. Zero-order correlations reported in Table A-7 revealed that all variables were significantly related to each other (pre-conditions 1 and 2), and significance of unique direct links in the path model for the entire sample were used to assess pre-condition 3. In cases that met all three pre-conditions, Sobel's formula (Baron & Kenny, 1986) was used to determine if indirect effects were significantly different from zero (i.e., there was significant mediation).

Perceived Work Group Effectiveness was hypothesized to mediate the relations of all three predictor variables to Job Satisfaction. Consistent with these hypotheses, through Perceived Work Group Effectiveness, the indirect relation of Perceived Racist Discrimination with Job Satisfaction was significant ($\beta = -.11 \times .47 = -.05; z = -9.37, p < .000$), the indirect relation of Perceived Sexist Discrimination with Job satisfaction was significant ($\beta = -.10 \times .47 = -.05; z = -11.09, p < .000$), and the indirect relation of Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate with Job Satisfaction was significant ($\beta = .35 \times .47 = .16; z = 14.38, p < .000$).

Job Satisfaction was hypothesized to mediate the relations of all three predictor variables to Organizational Commitment and to mediate the relation between Perceived Work Group

Effectiveness and Organizational Commitment. These hypotheses were not supported as there was no significant unique direct relation between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment.

While there were no original hypotheses involving Perceived Work Group Effectiveness as a mediator between the three predictor variables and Organizational Commitment, these relationships were explored after examining the results of the path analysis. Through Perceived Work Group Effectiveness, the indirect relation of Perceived Racist Discrimination with Organizational Commitment was significant ($\beta = -.11 \times .38 = .04$; $z = -10.25$, $p < .000$), as were the indirect relations of Perceived Sexist Discrimination ($\beta = -.10 \times .38 = -.04$; $z = -9.47$, $p < .000$) and Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate ($\beta = .35 \times .38 = .13$; $z = 7.89$, $p < .000$) with Organizational Commitment.

Hypothesis 4. To explore how racial/ethnic groups compared on mean levels of the variables of interest, participants' predictor and criterion data were entered into two separate MANOVAs, one for predictor variables and one for criterion variables, with racial/ethnic group entered as the independent variable. Three respondents had missing racial/ethnic demographics and were excluded from these analyses. The results indicated that the levels of the three predictor variables (Wilks' Lambda = .04; $p = .00$) and the three criterion variables (Wilks' Lambda = .04; $p = .00$) differed across groups. Furthermore, Box's Test of covariance indicated that the observed covariances of the predictor and criterion variables were not equal across groups (Box's M (17.4) = 526.80, $p = .00$ and Box's M (9.46) = 286.49, $p = .00$, respectively). Hochberg's post-hoc tests were used to determine which racial/ethnic groups exhibited significant differences in levels of the three predictor and criterion variables. The subsample that

identified as “Other” was not reported separately due to the ambiguous meaning of that racial/ethnic group.

The post-hoc tests indicated that for Perceived Sexist Discrimination, the American Indian/Native Alaskan group ($M = 2.92$, $SD = 1.10$) and the Asian/Pacific Islander group ($M = 2.83$, $SD = .97$) scored similarly and both groups scored significantly higher than the African American group ($M = 2.10$, $SD = .87$), the Hispanic group ($M = 2.02$, $SD = .81$), and the White group ($M = 1.84$, $SD = .76$). Additionally, the African American group ($M = 2.10$, $SD = .87$), scored significantly higher than the White group ($M = 1.84$, $SD = .76$), while there were no significant differences in the level of Perceived Sexist Discrimination between the Hispanic group ($M = 2.02$, $SD = .81$) and the African American group ($M = 2.10$, $SD = .87$) or the White group ($M = 1.84$, $SD = .76$).

Post-hoc testing indicated significant differences in the level of Perceived Racist Discrimination between all racial/ethnic groups except between the American Indian/Native Alaskan group ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 1.00$) and Asian/Pacific Islander group ($M = 2.67$, $SD = .96$) and the African American group ($M = 2.00$, $SD = .79$) and the Hispanic group ($M = 1.83$, $SD = .72$). Specifically, for Perceived Racist Discrimination, both the American Indian/Native Alaskan group ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 1.00$) and the Asian/Pacific Islander group ($M = 2.67$, $SD = .96$) scored significantly higher than the African American group ($M = 2.00$, $SD = .79$), the Hispanic group ($M = 1.83$, $SD = .72$), and the White group ($M = 1.48$, $SD = .52$), while both the African American group ($M = 2.00$, $SD = .79$) and the Hispanic group ($M = 1.83$, $SD = .72$) scored significantly higher than the White group ($M = 1.48$, $SD = .52$).

Significant differences in levels of Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate were indicated between the White group and all other racial/ethnic groups, such that the White group ($M = 4.27$,

SD = .72) scored significantly higher than the Hispanic group (M = 3.81, SD = .85), the African American group (M = 3.70, SD = .76), the Asian American/Pacific Islander group (M = 3.54, SD = .78), and the American Indian/Native Alaskan group (M = 3.35, SD = .85). Additionally, both the African American group (M = 3.70, SD = .76) and the Hispanic group (M = 3.81, SD = .85) scored significantly higher than the American Indian/Native Alaskan group (M = 3.35, SD = .85). There were no significant differences in Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate between the Asian American/Pacific Islander group (M = 3.54, SD = .78), the Hispanic group (M = 3.81, SD = .85), or the African American group (M = 3.70, SD = .76).

Significant differences in levels of job-related criterion variables emerged as well. For Perceived Work Group Effectiveness, the White group (M = 4.24, SD = .66) scored significantly higher than the African American group (M = 4.00, SD = .79), the Asian American/Pacific Islander group (M = 3.79, SD = .83), and the American Indian/Native Alaskan group (M = 3.64, SD = 1.06), but not the Hispanic group (M = 4.23, SD = .73). The American Indian/Native Alaskan group (M = 3.64, SD = 1.06) scored significantly lower than the African American group (M = 4.00, SD = .79) and the Hispanic group (M = 4.23, SD = .73), while the Hispanic group scored significantly higher than the Asian American/Pacific Islander group (M = 3.79, SD = .83).

For Job Satisfaction, the White group (M = 4.17, SD = .63) scored significantly higher than the African American group (M = 3.96, SD = .73), the Asian American/Pacific Islander group (M = 3.70, SD = .73), and the American Indian/Native Alaskan group (M = 3.58, SD = .96), but not the Hispanic group (M = 4.08, SD = .64). The Hispanic group (M = 4.08, SD = .64) scored significantly higher than the Asian American/Pacific Islander group (M = 3.70, SD = .73), and the American Indian/Native Alaskan group (M = 3.58, SD = .96), but not the African American

group ($M = 3.96$, $SD = .73$), while the African American group ($M = 3.96$, $SD = .73$) did score significantly higher than the Asian American/Pacific Islander group ($M = 3.70$, $SD = .73$), and the American Indian/Native Alaskan group ($M = 3.58$, $SD = .96$).

The only significant difference between levels of Organizational Commitment was that the White group ($M = 3.49$, $SD = .82$) scored significantly higher than the African American group ($M = 3.10$, $SD = .75$), the Asian American/Pacific Islander group ($M = 3.05$, $SD = .65$), and the American Indian/Native Alaskan group ($M = 3.00$, $SD = .73$). No other differences in the levels of Organizational Commitment were significant between the groups. Statistical results of the mean differences for predictor and criterion variables are found in Table A-5 and Table A-6.

To examine whether the links among predictor and criterion variables differed across racial/ethnic groups, several multiple group comparisons were conducted using AMOS 7.0. First, participants were split along racial/ethnic minority status into groups of White women ($N = 700$) and racial/ethnic Minority women ($N = 749$) to evaluate whether there was an overall racial/ethnic minority status difference. Three sets of multiple group comparisons were conducted, one constraining covariances among predictor variables to be equal across groups (i.e., White and racial/ethnic Minority), another constraining the paths between criterion variables to be equal across groups, and a third constraining all paths in the model (Figure B-1) to be equal across groups. This iterative approach was used to evaluate whether there were differences across groups, and if so reveal where those differences were in the model (e.g., covariances among predictor variables, links among criterion variables). The multiple group comparison of covariances among the predictor variables (Perceived Sexist Discrimination, Perceived Racist Discrimination, and Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate) yielded a significant chi-square change ($\Delta\chi^2 [3, N = 700] = 207.41, p = .00$), indicating that imposing

cross-group equality constraints resulted in a statistically worsening of model fit. This suggests differences between racial/ethnic Minority and White women in the relations among the predictor variables (Grimm & Yarnold, 2001).

The same steps were taken focusing on links among the criterion variables (Job Satisfaction, Perceived Work Group Effectiveness, and Organizational Commitment) between Minority and White women. The chi-square change again was significant, ($\Delta\chi^2 [3, N = 700] = 100.86, p = .00$), indicating that imposing cross-group equality constraints resulted in a statistically worsening of model fit. This suggests differences between racial/ethnic Minority and White women in the relations among criterion variables.

Finally, relations among all predictor and criterion variables, to include the relations among predictors with each other and relations among criterion variables with each other, were entered into a multiple group comparison. Again, the chi-square change was significant ($\Delta\chi^2 [9, N = 700] = 23.10, p = .01$), indicating differences in the magnitude of the relations among predictor and criterion variables between racial/ethnic Minority and White women. Descriptive statistics for the subgroups are reported in Tables A-5-6 and correlations among the variables of interest for the subgroups are reported in Tables A-7-12.

Based on the indications that there were significant differences in the relations among variables of interest for White women and racial/ethnic Minority women, exploratory path analyses were conducted to test the hypothesized model separately with data from each of the racial/ethnic groups represented in the present sample. As mentioned earlier, the hypothesized path model contained 21 free parameters, and, according to Kline (1998), 5-10 observations per parameter are recommended. Thus, 105-210 observations are recommended for the subgroup path models. The racial/ethnic group subsamples contained the following sample sizes:

American Indian/Native Alaskan ($n = 207$); Asian/Pacific Islander ($n = 191$); African American ($n = 188$), Hispanic ($n = 84$); White ($n = 700$). Sample sizes for the subgroups met or exceeded the minimum recommended by Kline (1998), with the exception of the sample of Hispanic women officers ($n = 84$), thus the results of the path analysis with Hispanic women was considered tentative at best. Of particular interest was the magnitude of the relations among variables for each racial/ethnic group, thus, full models are reported (see Figures B-5-9).

The path model for African American women officers (Figure B-5) revealed that for this sample ($n = 188$), Perceived Racist Discrimination had a significant unique relation with Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($\beta = -.31, p < .05$), while Perceived Sexist Discrimination did not have a unique link with any criterion variable. However, Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate had unique links with all three criterion variables; Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($\beta = .34, p < .001$), Job Satisfaction ($\beta = .12, p < .05$) and Organizational Commitment ($\beta = .19, p < .05$). Perceived Work Group Effectiveness was linked uniquely to both Job Satisfaction ($\beta = .58, p < .001$) and Organizational Commitment ($\beta = .50, p < .001$), while Job Satisfaction was not linked uniquely to Organizational Commitment. The model accounted for 46% of the variance in Perceived Work Group Effectiveness, 25% of the variance in Job Satisfaction, and 35% of the variance in Organizational Commitment.

The path model for American Indian/Alaskan Native women officers (Figure B-6) indicated that for this sample ($n = 207$) the unique relations of Perceived Racist and Sexist Discrimination with the three criterion variables did not reach statistical significance. However, Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate had significant unique links with Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($\beta = .23, p < .05$) and Job Satisfaction ($\beta = .20, p < .05$). Furthermore, Perceived Work Group Effectiveness was linked uniquely with Job Satisfaction ($\beta = .58, p < .001$) and

Organizational Commitment ($\beta = .28, p < .001$). Job Satisfaction was not linked significantly to Organizational Commitment. The model accounted for 42% of the variance in Perceived Work Group Effectiveness, 5% of the variance in Job Satisfaction, and 19% of the variance in Organizational Commitment.

The Asian American/Pacific Islander women officer group's ($n = 191$) path analysis results (Figure B-7) indicated that Perceived Racist Discrimination linked uniquely with Organizational Commitment ($\beta = -.22, p < .05$), while Perceived Sexist Discrimination was not linked uniquely with any criterion variable. However, Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate was related uniquely with all three criterion variables; Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($\beta = .35, p < .001$), Job Satisfaction ($\beta = .22, p < .0001$) and Organizational Commitment ($\beta = .20, p < .05$). Furthermore, Perceived Work Group Effectiveness was linked uniquely with both Job Satisfaction ($\beta = .53, p < .001$) and Organizational Commitment ($\beta = .20, p < .05$). Job Satisfaction was not linked uniquely to Organizational Commitment. For this subsample, the model accounted for 43% of the variance in Perceived Work Group Effectiveness, 14% of the variance in Job Satisfaction, and 26% of the variance in Organizational Commitment.

Figure B-8 depicts Hispanic women officers' path analysis. For this sample ($n = 84$), Perceived Racist Discrimination was linked uniquely with Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($\beta = -.37, p < .05$), while Perceived Sexist Discrimination was not linked uniquely with any criterion variable. Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate was linked uniquely with Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($\beta = .26, p < .05$) and Organizational Commitment ($\beta = .27, p < .05$), but not with Job Satisfaction. Perceived Work Group Effectiveness was related significantly with Job Satisfaction ($\beta = .43, p < .001$) and Organizational Commitment ($\beta = .38, p < .001$). Job Satisfaction was not significantly linked to Organizational Commitment. The model for Hispanic

women officers accounted for 25% of the variance in Perceived Work Group Effectiveness, 32% of the variance in Job Satisfaction, and 42% of the variance in Organizational Commitment.

The path model for the White women officer's sample ($n = 700$) is depicted in Figure B-9. The results indicated Perceived Racist Discrimination was linked uniquely with Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($\beta = -.15, p < .05$) and Perceived Sexist Discrimination was linked uniquely with Organizational Commitment ($\beta = -.18, p < .05$). Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate was related uniquely with all three criterion variables; Perceived Work Group Effectiveness ($\beta = .24, p < .001$), Job Satisfaction ($\beta = .08, p < .05$), and Organizational Commitment ($\beta = .14, p < .001$). Perceived Work Group Effectiveness was linked uniquely with Job Satisfaction ($\beta = .28, p < .001$) and Organizational Commitment ($\beta = .48, p < .001$). Interestingly, this model was the only one in which Job Satisfaction was related uniquely with Organizational Commitment ($\beta = .12, p < .05$). The model for White women officers accounted for 18% of the variance in Perceived Work Group Effectiveness, 16% of the variance in Job Satisfaction, and 45% of the variance in Organizational Commitment.

CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Our study was designed to address calls in the literature to attend to contextual issues when conceptualizing women's experiences (e.g., Moradi & Subich, 2002), particularly when investigating experiences that may influence career-related experiences of women in nontraditional career fields. Such investigations can be enriched by attending to the role of outside factors that are rooted in the contexts of women's lives, including various forms of discrimination (Yoder, 2003). Indeed, the body of literature focusing on women's experiences of discrimination in the military suggests that racial/ethnic minority women officers report the highest rates of discrimination, perhaps due to their status of belonging to three minority groups within the military organization (officer, women, and racial/ethnic minorities) (Bastian et al., 1996; Dansby, 1994; Dansby & Landis, 1998; Drasgow et al., 1998; Rosenfeld et al., 1998). The literature also establishes that reports of discrimination, whether direct experiences of discrimination or perceptions that discrimination is tolerated in one's workplace, are linked with negative job-related outcomes (Bergman & Drasgow, 2003; Fitzgerald et al., 1999; McIntyre et al., 2002; Williams et al., 1999).

In considering the roles of race/ethnicity along with gender, however, existing research has not moved beyond descriptive studies that suggest a main effect of race on women's reports of discrimination and negative job-related outcomes. Also, prior studies typically collapse racial/ethnic groups, combine sexist and racist discrimination items on scales, or ignore racist discrimination completely and only examine sexist discrimination. The majority of studies also fail to incorporate the link of diversity inclusive climate to job-related outcomes. These limitations may mask or distort important nuances that can add to the understanding of women's experiences in nontraditional career fields. The present study addressed these limitations in the

literature by examining concomitantly the unique relations of perceived workplace racist and sexist discrimination and diversity inclusive climate with women officers' reports of perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Furthermore, the present study is unique in having substantial representation of various racial/ethnic groups, and as such, it provides a more inclusive picture of the experiences of women in nontraditional career fields.

Results of path analyses for the entire sample ($N = 1,452$) indicated a number of significant relations of perceived racist, sexist, and diversity inclusive climate with perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Specifically, findings for the entire sample suggest that higher levels of perceived diversity inclusive climate are linked uniquely to higher levels of all three criterion variables, higher levels of perceived sexist discrimination are linked uniquely to lower levels of perceived work group effectiveness and organizational commitment, and higher levels of perceived racist discrimination are linked uniquely to lower levels of perceived work group effectiveness. Thus, all three aspects of the workplace climate were linked uniquely with one or more criterion variables.

An inspection of the hypothesized relations for subsamples of racial/ethnic groups, however, indicates that different variables emerged as unique correlates of criterion variables for different racial/ethnic groups. Specifically, perceptions of diversity inclusive climate were related positively and uniquely to at least two of the three criterion variables for all racial/ethnic groups while perceived racist discrimination in the workplace climate was related uniquely and negatively with at least one job-related criterion variables for all racial/ethnic groups except American Indian/Alaskan Native group. Perceived sexist discrimination in the workplace climate was related uniquely to negative job-related criterion variables only for White women. These

findings may indicate that for racial/ethnic minority women, racism is more salient in work contexts than sexism.

Additionally, there was a consistent high correlation between sexism and racism across groups (range: $r = .80$ to $.89$) which suggests that the two types of discrimination are highly overlapping. The overlap between perceived racist and sexist discrimination is consistent with prior research (Moradi & Subich, 2003) and an emerging conceptualization that experiences of racism and sexism intersect or are *fused* for racial/ethnic minority women, such that experiences of discrimination are not attributed to being a women or a racial/ethnic minority, but are attributed to being a racial/ethnic minority women. Research that examines this fusion of experiences of discrimination have focused on African American women, yet the present findings indicate that this fusion may describe other racial/ethnic minority women's experiences as well as African American women's experiences.

Differences found in the links between the perceptions of workplace climate and criterion variables for the various racial/ethnic groups of women officers, as well as the consistency of the overlap between racist and sexist discrimination, illustrates the importance of attending to multiple layers of discrimination, as well as diversity inclusive climate in understanding women's job-related experiences. The totality of the findings in the present study can serve to encourage researchers, leaders, and policy makers to avoid assuming that women officers in the military have unidimensional experiences or perceptions based solely on their gender. Rather, the present findings suggest that racial/ethnic diversity among women is important to attend to and can influence the links of perceptions of the climate with perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Our study also responds to calls in vocational psychology literature to explore conceptual and empirical bridges between career theories (Swanson & Gore, 2000) by integrating aspects of two major career theories, namely Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994) and the Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA; Dawis, et al., 1964). Specifically, the present study expands the body of research that focuses on aspects of the career lifespan beyond the initial stages of the process as well as expands the literature that focuses on the impact contextual influences have on job-related outcomes, thus addressing gaps in SCCT's and TWA's corresponding bodies of literature.

Indeed, proximal contextual experiences (as posited by SCCT), defined in the present study as perceived workplace climate (i.e., Perceived Racist and Sexist Discrimination and Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate) had significant relations with job-related outcomes (as posited by TWA). Specifically, the present findings indicate that diversity inclusive climate is related uniquely and positively with perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment for all racial/ethnic groups of women military officers, while racist and/or sexist discrimination related uniquely and negatively with perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment across most racial/ethnic groups (all groups except American Indian/Alaskan Native group). The present findings indicate that indeed, as suggested by SCCT, contextual factors are important in the understanding of the type of job-related outcomes that are the focus of TWA. This study serves as an example of the fruitfulness of integrating various career theories when investigating complex psychosocial phenomena, such as women's contextual work-related experiences and outcomes in non-traditional career fields.

The steps taken in the present study to operationalize the constructs used to test the hypotheses serve to inform the literature on constructing instruments to measure vocational experiences. Specifically, the data used for the present study came from DEOMIs' database and were gathered via the MEOCS. The MEOCS was originally standardized using a large military population that reflected the entire military population. The construction of the MEOCS, however, did not include testing whether the same constructs emerge across gender and/or racial/ethnic group subsamples of the population. Scholars have raised concern that instruments developed with majority samples may not be relevant for minority samples (Klonoff & Landrine, 1995; Mobley et al., 2005; Moradi & Subich, 2002; Ponterotto & Casas, 1991) and may, in fact, yield misleading findings if results are used to make comparisons between minority and majority samples. While the present study contributes to vocational literature by offering a measurement model based on MEOCS items developed specifically for women officers, it is only a "first step". It is recommended that future studies examine the structure of the MEOCS across racial/ethnic groups as well as officer and enlisted groups to further ensure the MEOCS is constructed and validated with relevant samples.

The present study indicates that when developing organizational policies and practices to improve organizational effectiveness and retention, the potential impact of perceived sexist and racist discrimination should be considered. The significant negative zero-order correlations of perceived racist and sexist discrimination with perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment indicate that perceived discrimination is related to negative job-related outcomes. Furthermore, when entered concomitantly, both perceived racist and sexist discrimination were related uniquely to perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment for the entire sample, and this finding varied across

the subsamples. Thus, organizational policies and practices that focus on reducing both racist and sexist discrimination in the workplace are recommended.

Perhaps even more importantly, the inclusion of positive perceptions of diversity inclusive aspects of the work climate in the present study provides organizational leadership with specific behaviors they can engage in to enhance organizational effectiveness and retention. When entered concomitantly with perceived racist and sexist discrimination, perceptions of diversity inclusive climate emerged as a unique predictor of perceived work group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and/or organizational commitment across racial/ethnic groups. Because the relations between perceptions of diversity inclusive climate and positive job-related outcomes were consistent across groups, organizational leadership may increase positive job-related outcomes more readily by focusing on policy and practices that increase diversity inclusiveness in the workplace climate. While the prevention of racism and sexism is important and necessary, implementing diversity inclusive practices is probably easier than trying to prevent racist and sexist behaviors. Thus, the items from the MEOCS used to comprise the Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate scale can be used to target specific behaviors (e.g., “When the Commander/CO held staff meetings, women and minorities, as well as majority men, were asked to contribute suggestions to solve problems”) that are supported by the present study to enhance job-related outcomes

A final implication of the present study is that it informs the work of counselors with individual women in nontraditional career fields by increasing counselors’ awareness of the potential experiences of such clients, especially regarding the links between experiences of discrimination and work-related outcomes. Such information can better equip counselors to attend to contextual issues that might be pertinent to the career lifespan of their clients. Sesan

(1988) and Hackett and Lonborg (1994) have documented the dangers that arise for clients when counselors are not attentive or sensitive to relevant diversity issues. These authors reported that counselors often inadvertently promoted acceptance of the status quo, missed issues of victimization, and reinforced gender and racial-role stereotyping. Such practices will only serve to continue the disproportionate representation of women in high level nontraditional careers.

Despite the strengths of the current study, a number of limitations are important to consider. A major limitation to the current study was the reliance on a preexisting survey with a restricted set of items and an existing data base. The current study offers the first factor analysis of MEOCS items for a sample of women officers, but, the current study did not examine specifically the factor structure and applicability of the MEOCS subscales for women officers from a variety of racial/ethnic backgrounds. The research efforts aimed at designing instruments to measure important variables such as sexism, racism, work climate and their implications can become more meaningful and generalizable if test construction efforts include factor analyses for diverse populations (e.g., racial/ethnic groups, gender, rank, sexual orientation, etc.). It is may be inaccurate to assume that instruments normed on predominantly White men measure the same constructs for non-white men or for women of various racial/ethnic backgrounds.

Furthermore, the current study was limited by the inability to guarantee consistent methodology with administration of the pen-and-paper version of the MEOCS. While there was consistency in the instructions given to commanders on how to administer the MEOCS, there were no controls to ensure the instructions were followed. DEOMI has recently improved the methodology of the MEOCS by replacing the pen-and-paper version with a computer-based version. While respondents no longer have to turn in their surveys to a central location within their organization because they can now submit their surveys over the internet, the environment

they take the survey in is still not controlled. For instance, it is not controlled whether someone else is in the room with respondents when they take the survey, or if they are alone. It is also not known if respondents are given additional verbal instructions by their unit beyond the instructions attached to the email they now receive inviting them to respond to the survey. While a computer-based survey is an improvement, there remain concerns over the possible variations in the MEOCS' respondents' environments that may confound their results.

In addition, the current study was cross-sectional in nature, which only provides a snapshot of correlational data. When examining factors that may be related to workplace outcomes, including retention, longitudinal data would provide stronger evidence of the antecedents of retention of women in nontraditional career fields.

A final point worth highlighting about the current study and about the larger body of literature on reports of discrimination experiences is assessment of individual's *perceived* discrimination and *perceived* diversity inclusive climate, which could be affected by various attributions of respondents and their response-styles. In fact, it is the current mode of operation to assess experiences of a variety of discrimination experiences (e.g., sexism, racism, ageism, heterosexism/homophobia) through self-reports of *perceived* experiences of discrimination or prejudice (e.g., Landrine & Klonoff, 1996; Moradi & Subich, 2003; Swim, Cohen, & Hyers, 1998; Waldo, 1999). Most instruments that assess the frequency of stressful events use self-report data. One concern regarding self-reported data is the possibility of respondents' tendencies to over-report incidents. However, this concern is brought into question by existing data. In particular, studies have demonstrated the phenomena of women failing to perceive and report discrimination they face, even when exposed to blatant discrimination in a controlled setting (e.g., Crosby, 1984; Taylor, Wright, Moghaddam, & Lalonde, 1990). Such studies show a

tendency to blame poor outcomes on internal individual attributes as opposed to external discrimination (Major et al., 2002). Several studies demonstrate that specific moderators, such as a person's belief in individual mobility, belief in a just world, as well as other beliefs that endorse ideologies that legitimize the status quo, shape the relationship between experiencing discrimination and reporting it as such (Crocker & Major, 1994; Major, et al., 2002). Furthermore, emotional barriers, such as the desire to protect oneself from the emotional discomfort in confronting one's own victimization, have been shown to disrupt the acknowledgement of personal experiences of discrimination (Crosby, 1984). The totality of extant literature suggests that women do not over-report experiences of discrimination; on the contrary, they may underreport discrimination.

Our study addressed several gaps in the literature examining the links between women in nontraditional career field's perceptions of workplace climate and job-related outcomes. Specifically, our study examined concomitantly racist and sexist discrimination and inclusive diversity climate for a sample of women military officers. The results indicate that while organizations may increase the job satisfaction and organizational commitment for women officers by fostering a inclusive diversity climate in the workplace, future longitudinal studies are needed to explore the fusion of racial and gendered experiences for women in nontraditional career fields and the impact those experiences may have on work-related outcomes, to include retention.

APPENDIX A
TABLE DATA

Table A-1. Air Force Gender Proportions of Rank

Enlisted			Officer		
Rank	% Men (total = 80%)	% Women (total = 20%)	Rank	% Men (total = 82%)	% Women (total = 18%)
E-1	78.1	21.9	O-1	78.1	21.9
E-2	69.0	31.0	O-2	78.3	21.7
E-3	77.2	22.8	O-3	79.3	20.7
E-4	76.3	23.7	O-4	85.0	15.0
E-5	78.4	21.6	O-5	87.2	12.8
E-6	86.2	13.8	O-6	88.5	11.5
E-7	89.3	10.7	O-7	95.0	5.0
E-8	88.6	11.4	O-8	95.3	4.7
E-9	87.9	12.1	O-9	97.4	2.6
			O-10	100	0

Note. From the 2003 Demographic Profile of the Department of Defense and U.S. Coast Guard (DEOM, 2003). Ranks increase in level as rank number increases (i.e., E-1 is the lowest enlisted rank and E-9 is the highest).

Table A-2. Three-Factor Solution with Promax Rotation for 2001 MEOCS Items 1-50 (51.00% of Total Variance)

	Factor 1 Perceived Racist Discrimination M = 2.00 SD = .91 $\alpha = .96$	Factor 2 Perceived Sexist Discrimination M = 2.20 SD = .96 $\alpha = .92$	Factor 3 Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate M = 3.90 SD = .86 $\alpha = .88$
<hr/>			
Abbreviated items			
11. The supervisor had lunch with a new minority member (to make him/her feel welcome), but did not have lunch with a majority member who had joined the organization a few weeks earlier. (R)	.86		
8. A race relations survey was taken, but no groups other than blacks and whites were used. (R)	.81		
16. A supervisor discouraged cross-racial dating among personnel who would otherwise be free to date within the organization. (R)	.79		
4. The Commander/CO did not appoint a qualified majority in a key position, but instead appointed a less qualified minority. (R)	.61		
9. A majority member in your organization directed a racial slur at a member of another organization. (R)	.86		
17. A minority man was selected for a prestigious assignment over a majority man who was equally, if not slightly better, qualified. (R)	.62		
10. A majority supervisor frequently reprimanded a minority subordinate but rarely reprimanded a majority subordinate. (R)	.74		
20. A majority member complained that there was too much interracial dating among other people in the organization. (R)	.70		
12. A group of majority and minority personnel made reference to an ethnic group other than their own using insulting ethnic names. (R)	.84		
6. A majority first-level supervisor made demeaning comments about minority subordinates. (R)	.79		
21. A supervisor always gave the less desirable additional duties to men. (S)	.60		
18. A majority supervisor did not select a qualified minority subordinate for promotion. (R)	.60		
25. The Commander/CO changed the duty assignments when it was discovered that two persons of the same minority were assigned to the same sensitive area on the same shift. (R)	.50		
30. When reprimanding a minority man, the majority supervisor used terms such as "boy." (R)	.54		
28. A Commander/CO giving a lecture took more time to answer questions from majority members than from minority members. (R)	.52		
23. A minority member was assigned less desirable office space than a majority member. (R)	.52		

Table A-2. Continued

	Factor 1 Perceived Racist Discrimination M = 2.00 SD = .91 $\alpha = .96$	Factor 2 Perceived Sexist Discrimination M = 2.20 SD = .96 $\alpha = .92$	Factor 3 Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate M = 3.90 SD = .86 $\alpha = .88$
<hr/> Abbreviated items <hr/>			
13. Graffiti written on the organization's rest room or latrine walls "put down" minorities or women. (R)	.79		
3. A majority person told several jokes about minorities. (R)	.74		
33. A majority and a minority person turned in similar pieces of equipment with similar problems. The minority person was given a new issue; the majority member's equipment was sent to maintenance for repair. (R)	.56		
22. A minority woman was selected to receive an award for an outstanding act even though she was not perceived by her peers as being as qualified as her nearest competitor, a majority man. (S)	.31	.43	
15. A minority man made off-color remarks about a minority woman. (R)	.66		
34. A motivational speech to a minority subordinate focused on the lack of opportunity elsewhere; to a majority subordinate, it focused on promotion. (R)	.39	.38	
38. A qualified minority first-level supervisor was denied the opportunity for professional education by his/her supervisor. A majority first-level supervisor with the same qualifications was given the opportunity. (R)	.38	.36	
26. Minorities and majorities members sat at separate tables in the cafeteria or designated eating area during lunch hour. (R)	.37	.35	
49. A man stated, "Our unit worked together better before we had women in the organization." (S)		.88	
41. The only woman in a work group was expected to provide housekeeping supplies, such as needle and thread, aspirin, etc., in her desk. (S)		.70	
43. A woman was asked to take notes and provide refreshments at staff meetings (such duties were not part of her job assignment). (S)		.75	
47. The Commander/CO assigned an attractive woman to escort visiting male officials around because, "We need someone nice looking to show them around." (S)		.81	
39. When a woman complained of sexual harassment to her superior, he told her, "You're being too sensitive." (S)		.66	
36. When a female subordinate was promoted, a male peer made the comment, "I wonder who she slept with to get promoted so fast." (S)		.69	
48. A woman who complained of sexual harassment was not recommended for promotion. (S)		.72	
32. A male supervisor touched a female peer in friendly manner, but never touched male peers. (S)		.69	

Table A-2. Continued

	Factor 1 Perceived Racist Discrimination M = 2.00 SD = .91 $\alpha = .96$	Factor 2 Perceived Sexist Discrimination M = 2.20 SD = .96 $\alpha = .92$	Factor 3 Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate M = 3.90 SD = .86 $\alpha = .88$
<hr/> Abbreviated items <hr/>			
46. A supervisor referred to female subordinates by their first names in public, while using titles for the male subordinates. (S)		.72	
24. The term "dyke" (meaning lesbian), referring to a particular woman, was overheard in a conversation between unit personnel. (S)		.43	
42. Racial/ethnic jokes were frequently heard. (R)	.41	.39	
40. Offensive racial/ethnic names were frequently heard. (R)	.47	.33	
45. A better qualified man was not picked for a good additional duty assignment because the Commander/CO said it would look better for equal opportunity to have a woman take this duty. (S)		.66	
44. A supervisor gave a minority subordinate a severe punishment for a minor infraction. A majority member who committed the same offense was given a less severe penalty. (R)	.50	.35	
7. Majority and minority personnel were seen having lunch together. (I)			.69
29. Majority and minority members were seen socializing together. (I)			.72
5. Majority and minority supervisors were seen having lunch together. (I)			.70
35. Majority personnel joined minority friends at the same table in the cafeteria or designated eating area. (I)			.72
50. At non-official social activities, minorities and majority members were seen socializing in the same group. (I)			.66
14. A new minority person joined the organization and quickly developed close majority friends from within the organization. (I)			.68
31. Second level female supervisors had both men and women as subordinates. (I)			.66
19. When the Commander/CO held staff meetings, women and minorities, as well as majority men, were asked to contribute suggestions to solve problems. (I)			.65
37. A supervisor gave the same punishment to minority and majority subordinates for the same offense. (I)			.61
2. The spouses of majority and minority personnel mixed and mingled during special events. (I)			.63
1. Organization parties, picnics, award ceremonies and other special events were attended by both majority and minority personnel. (I)			.54

Note. Factor Loadings $\leq |.30|$ have been omitted from this table. (R) indicates the item was included in the present study's Perceived Racist Discrimination scale; (S) indicates the item was included in the present study's Perceived Sexist Discrimination scale; (I) indicates the item was included in the present study's Perceived Diversity Inclusive Climate scale.

Table A-3. Four-Factor Solution with Promax Rotation for 2001 MEOCS Items 51-73 (53.81% of Total Variance)

	Factor 1 Organizational Commitment: Positive M = 3.57 SD = .81 $\alpha = .83$	Factor 2 Perceived Work Group Effectiveness M = 4.03 SD = .83 $\alpha = .84$	Factor 3 Job Satisfaction M = 3.96 SD = .77 $\alpha = .79$	Factor 4 Organizational Commitment: Negative M = 2.9 SD = .79 $\alpha = .71$
Abbreviated items				
51. I would accept almost any type of assignment in order to stay in this organization. (OC)	.79			
52. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar. (OC)	.78			
53. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization. (OC)	.73			
56. This organization really inspires me to perform my job in the very best manner possible. (OC)	.73			
58. I am extremely glad to be part of this organization compared to other, similar organizations that I could be in. (OC)	.72			
61. For me, this organization is the best of all possible ways to serve my country. (OC)	.60			
65. When high priority work arises, such as short suspenses, crash programs, and schedule changes, the people in my work group do an outstanding job in handling these situations. (PWGE)		.80		
64. The quality of output of my work group is very high. (PWGE)		.80		
66. My work group always gets maximum output form available resources (e.g., personnel and materials). (PWGE)		.77		
67. My work group's performance in comparison to similar work groups is very high. (PWGE)		.76		
63. The amount of output of my work group is very high. (PWGE)		.75		
Level of satisfaction with:			.75	
71. My job security. (JS)				
70. The recognition and pride my family has in the work I do. (JS)			.74	
69. My amount of effort compared to the effort of my co-workers. (JS)			.73	
72. The chance to acquire valuable skills in my job that prepare me for future opportunities. (JS)			.71	
68. The chance to help people and improve their welfare through the performance of my job. (JS)			.59	

Table A-3 Continued

	Factor 1 Organizational Commitment: Positive M = 3.57 SD = .81 α = .83	Factor 2 Perceived Work Group Effectiveness M = 4.03 SD = .83 α = .84	Factor 3 Job Satisfaction M = 3.96 SD = .77 α = .79	Factor 4 Organizational Commitment: Negative M = 2.9 SD = .79 α = .71
Abbreviated items				
73. My job as a whole. (JS)			.55	
The following items were reverse scored:				.76
57. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.				
59. Assuming I could stay, there's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization to retirement. (OC)				.72
60. Often, I find it difficult to agree with the policies of this organization on important matters relating to its people. (OC)				.66
54. I could just as well be working in another organization as long as the type of work was similar.	-.36			.53
55. I feel very little loyalty to this organization. (OC)				.64
62. Becoming part of this organization was definitely not a good move for me. (OC)				.56

Note. Factor Loadings $\leq |.30|$ have been omitted from this table. (OC) indicates the item was included in the present study's Organizational Commitment scale; (PWGE) indicates the item was included in the present study's Perceived Work Group Effectiveness scale; (JS) indicates the item was included in the present study's Job Satisfaction scale.

Table A-4. Assessment of Fit Indices for CFAs of 2002 Data

Variable	χ^2	SRMR	RMSEA	CFI	IFI	TLI
Indep Variables (RD, SD, DIC)	6071.82**	.05	.06	.89	.89	.88
Dep Variables (JS, PWGE, OC)	1122.35**	.05	.06	.91	.91	.90

Note. $N = 1452$ for both models. RMSEA = Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; IFI = Incremental Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RD = Racist Discrimination; SD = Sexist Discrimination; DIC = Diversity Inclusive Climate; PWGE = Perceived Work Group Effectiveness; JS = Job Satisfaction; OC = Organizational Commitment. ** $p < .01$.

Table A-5. Descriptive Statistics and Mean Differences for Predictor Variables by Racial/Ethnic Group

Variable	Racist Discrimination					Sexist Discrimination					Div. Inclusive Climate				
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Effect Size (η_p^2)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Effect Size (η_p^2)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Effect Size (η_p^2)
Overall (N = 1452)	1.96	.91	5	147.55*	.34	2.21	.96	5	76.54*	.21	3.90	.86	5	67.94*	.19
Hispanic (n = 84)	1.83 ^{beh}	.72				2.02 ^{be}	.81				3.81 ^{bf}	.85			
African American (n = 188)	2.00 ^{adg}	.79				2.10 ^{adg}	.87				3.70 ^{ae}	.76			
Asian/Pacific Islander (n = 191)	2.67 ^{def}	.96				2.83 ^{def}	.97				3.54 ^d	.78			
American Indian/Native Alaskan (n = 207)	2.77 ^{abc}	1.00				2.92 ^{abc}	1.01				3.35 ^{abc}	.85			
White (n = 700)	1.48 ^{cgh}	.52				1.84 ^{cgh}	.76				4.27 ^{cdef}	.72			

Note. * = $p < .001$. Means with the same superscripts are significantly different at $p < .05$.

Table A-6. Descriptive Statistics and Mean Differences for Criterion Variables by Racial/Ethnic Group

Variable	Work Group Effectiveness					Job Satisfaction					Organizational Commitment				
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Effect Size (η_p^2)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Effect Size (η_p^2)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Effect Size (η_p^2)
Overall (N = 1452)	4.03	.83	5	27.38*	.09	3.97	.77	5	31.27*	.10	3.27	.81	5	23.25*	.08
Hispanic (n = 84)	4.23 ^{bd}	.73				4.08 ^{be}	.64				3.23	.84			
African American (n = 188)	4.00 ^{af}	.79				3.96 ^{adg}	.73				3.10 ^c	.75			
Asian/ Pacific Islander (n = 191)	3.79 ^{de}	.83				3.70 ^{def}	.73				3.05 ^b	.65			
American Indian/ Native Alaskan (n = 207)	3.64 ^{abc}	1.06				3.58 ^{abc}	.96				3.00 ^a	.73			
White (n = 700)	4.24 ^{cef}	.66				4.17 ^{cfg}	.68				3.49 ^{abc}	.82			

Note. * = $p < .001$. Means with the same superscripts are significantly different at $p < .05$.

Table A-7. Entire Sample's Intercorrelations among Variables of Interest (N = 1452)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. RD	—	.86**	-.39**	-.31**	-.33**	-.39**
2. SD		—	-.29**	-.29**	-.30**	-.38**
3. DIC			—	.39**	.42**	.40**
4. PWGE				—	.56**	.38**
5. JS					—	.54**
6. OC						—

Note. RD. = Racist Discrimination. SD = Sexist Discrimination. DIC = Diversity Inclusive Climate. PWGE = Perceived Work Group Effectiveness. JS = Job Satisfaction. OC = Organizational Commitment. ** $p < .01$.

Table A-8. Hispanic Sample's Intercorrelations among Variables of Interest (n = 84)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. RD	—	.83**	-.46**	-.15	-.34**	-.46**
2. SD		—	-.32**	-.05	-.22*	-.34**
3. DIC			—	.30**	.37**	.58**
4. PWGE				—	.47**	.23*
5. JS					—	.54**
6. OC						—

Note. RD = Racist Discrimination. SD = Sexist Discrimination. DIC = Diversity Inclusive Climate. PWGE = Perceived Work Group Effectiveness. JS = Job Satisfaction. OC = Organizational Commitment. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table A-9. African American Sample's Intercorrelations among Variables of Interest (n = 188)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. RD	—	.85**	-.38**	-.35**	-.38**	-.30**
2. SD		—	-.30**	-.30**	-.30**	-.25**
3. DIC			—	.40**	.43**	.40**
4. PWGE				—	.66**	.35**
5. JS					—	.55**
6. OC						—

Note. RD = Racist Discrimination. SD. = Sexist Discrimination. DIC =Diversity Inclusive Climate. PWGE = Perceived Work Group Effectiveness. JS = Job Satisfaction. OC = Organizational Commitment. ** $p < .01$.

Table A-10. Asian American/Pacific Islander Sample's Intercorrelations among Variables of Interest (n = 191)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. RD	—	.81**	-.05	-.18*	-.13	-.36**
2. SD		—	.08	-.15*	-.11	-.31**
3. DIC			—	.40**	.34**	.28**
4. PWGE				—	.62**	.34**
5. JS					—	.36**
6. OC						—

Note. RD = Racist Discrimination. SD. = Sexist Discrimination. DIC = Diversity Inclusive Climate. PWGE = Perceived Work Group Effectiveness. JS = Job Satisfaction. OC = Organizational Commitment. ** $p < .01$.

Table A-11. American Indian/Alaskan Native Sample's Intercorrelations among Variables of Interest (n = 207)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. RD	—	.89**	.34**	-.02	.02	-.19**
2. SD		—	.37**	-.03	.01	-.21**
3. DIC			—	.28**	.20**	.09
4. PWGE				—	.62**	.30**
5. JS					—	.35**
6. OC						—

Note. RD = Racist Discrimination. SD = Sexist Discrimination. DIC = Diversity Inclusive Climate. PWGE = Perceived Work Group Effectiveness. JS = Job Satisfaction. OC = Organizational Commitment. ** $p < .01$.

Table A-12. White Sample's Intercorrelations among Variables of Interest (n = 700)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. RD	—	.80**	-.45**	-.31**	-.34**	-.37**
2. SD		—	-.32**	-.29**	-.30**	-.38**
3. DIC			—	.25**	.34**	.37**
4. PWGE				—	.37**	.37**
5. JS					—	.62**
6. OC						—

Note. RD = Racist Discrimination. SD. = Sexist Discrimination. DIC = Diversity Inclusive Climate. PWGE = Perceived Work Group Effectiveness. JS = Job Satisfaction. OC = Organizational Commitment. ** $p < .01$.

APPENDIX B
FIGURES

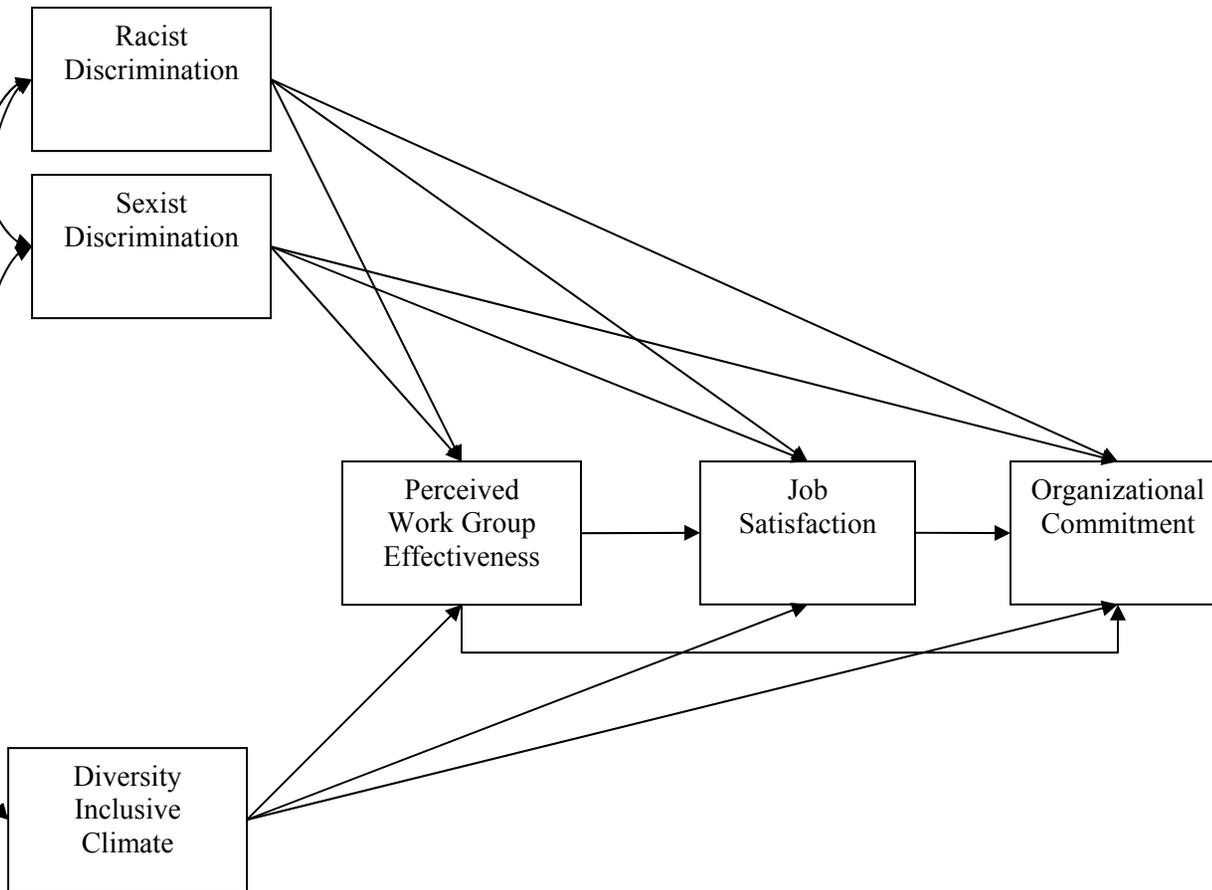


Figure B-1. Proposed Path Model (fully saturated)

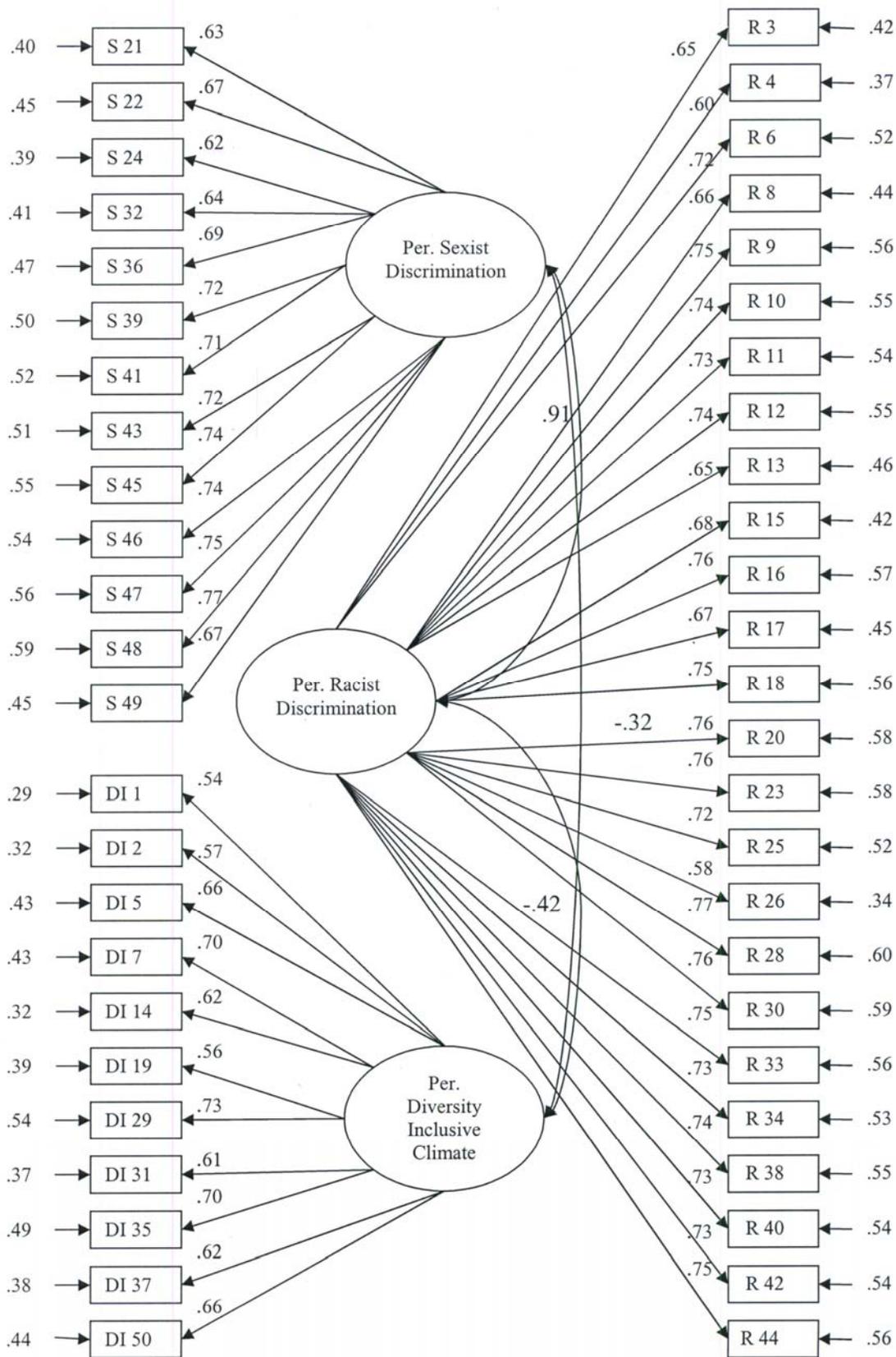


Figure B-2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Predictor Variables (N = 1452)

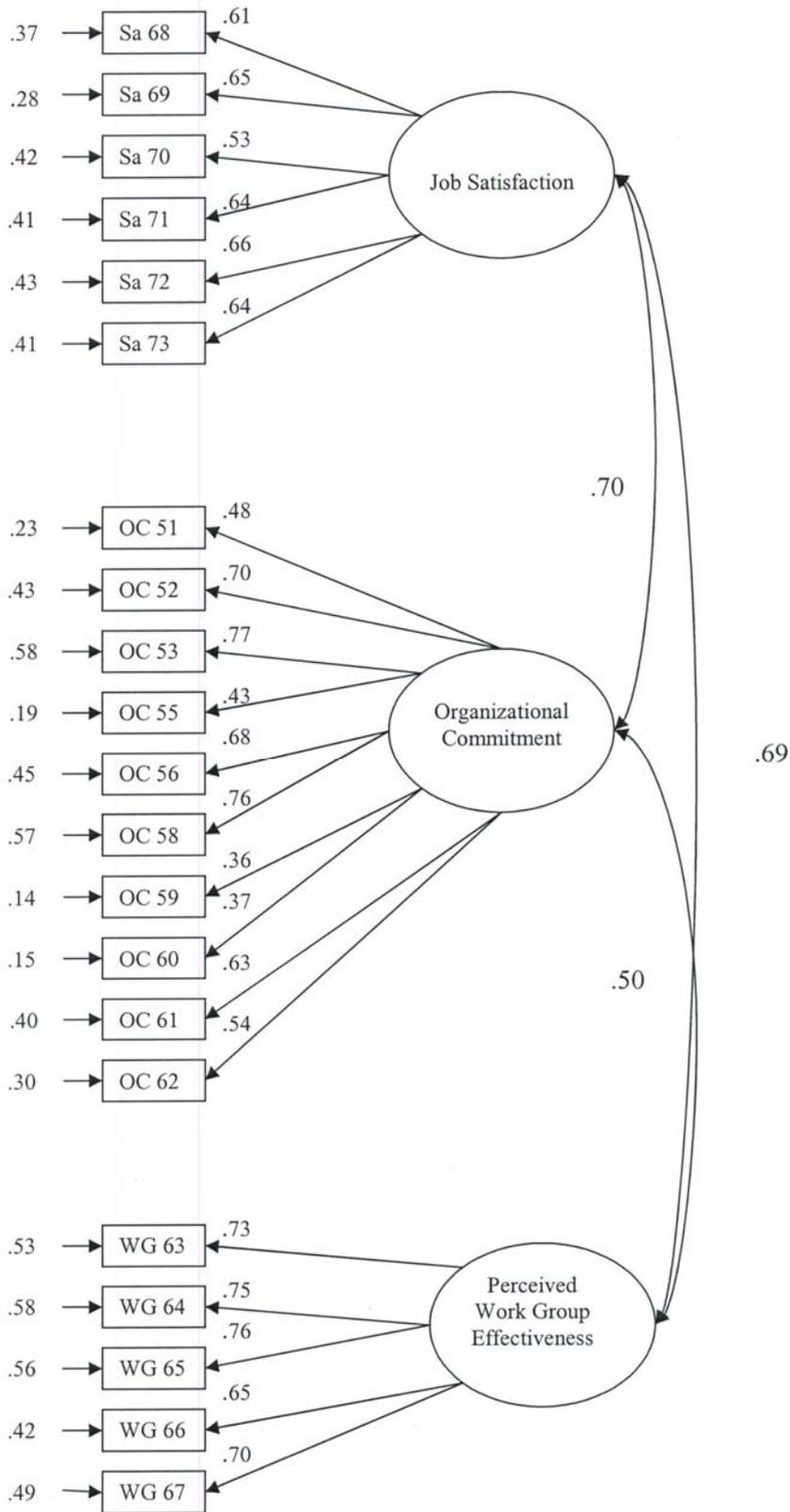


Figure B-3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Dependent Variables (N = 1452)

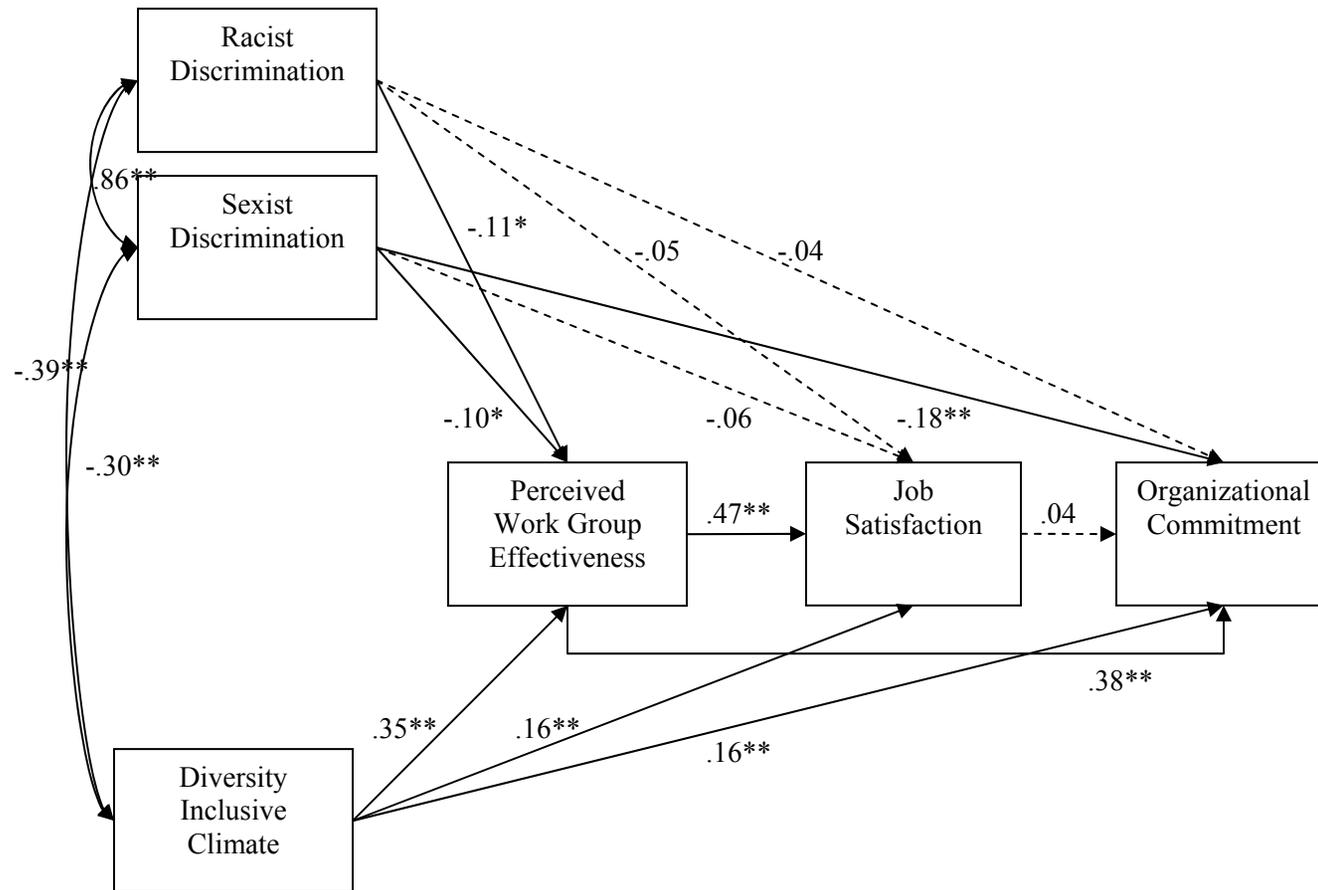


Figure B-4. Entire Sample's Fully Saturated Path Model ($N = 1452$). Note. $*p < .05$. $**p < .001$. Dashed line indicates nonsignificant path.

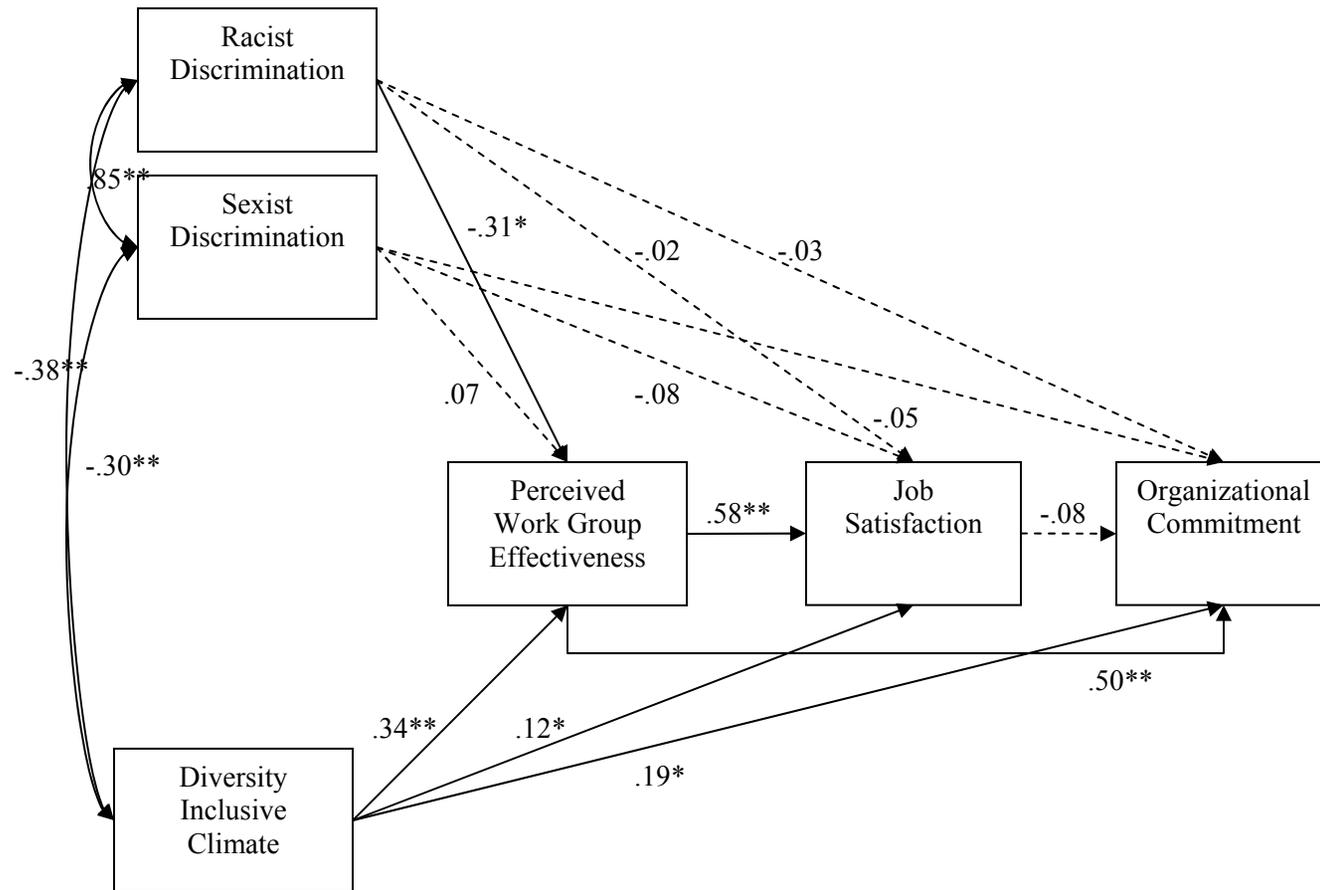


Figure B-5. African American Sample's Fully Saturated Path Model ($n = 188$). Note. $*p < .05$. $**p < .001$. Dashed line indicates nonsignificant path.

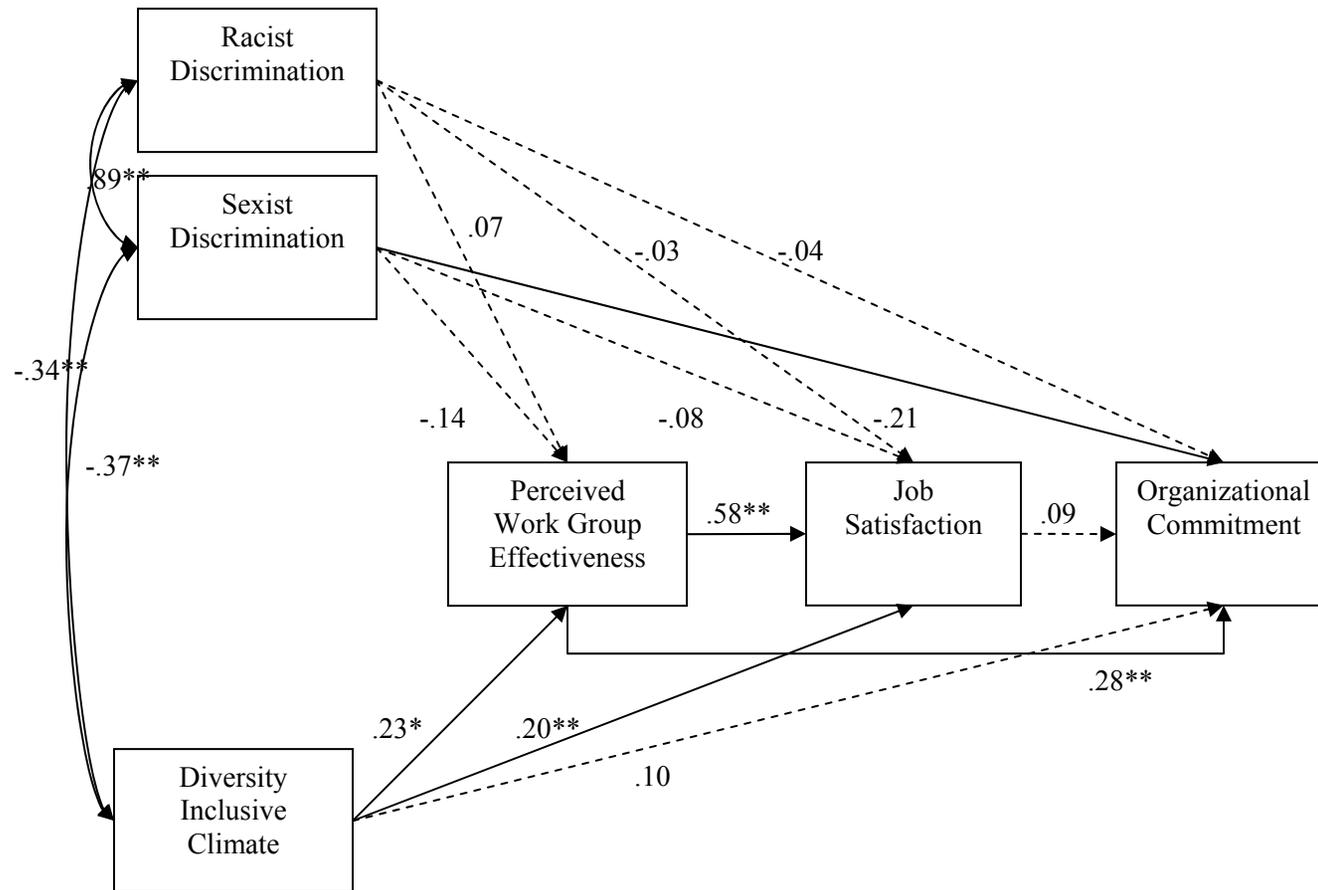


Figure B-6. American Indian/Alaskan Native Sample's Fully Saturated Path Model ($n = 207$). Note. $*p < .05$. $**p < .001$. Dashed line indicates nonsignificant path.

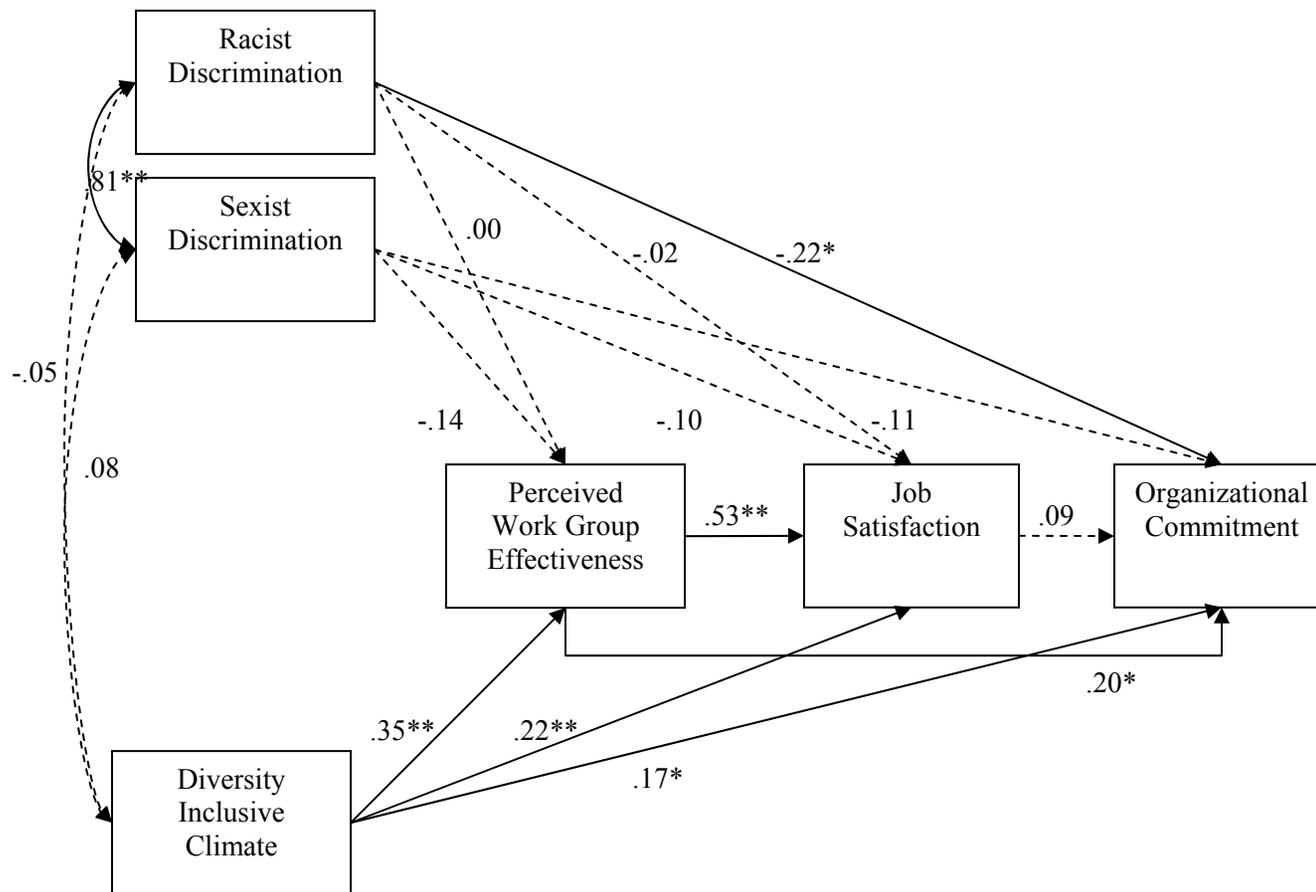


Figure B-7. Asian American/ Pacific Islander Sample's Fully Saturated Path Model ($n = 191$). Note. $*p < .05$. $**p < .001$. Dashed line indicates nonsignificant path.

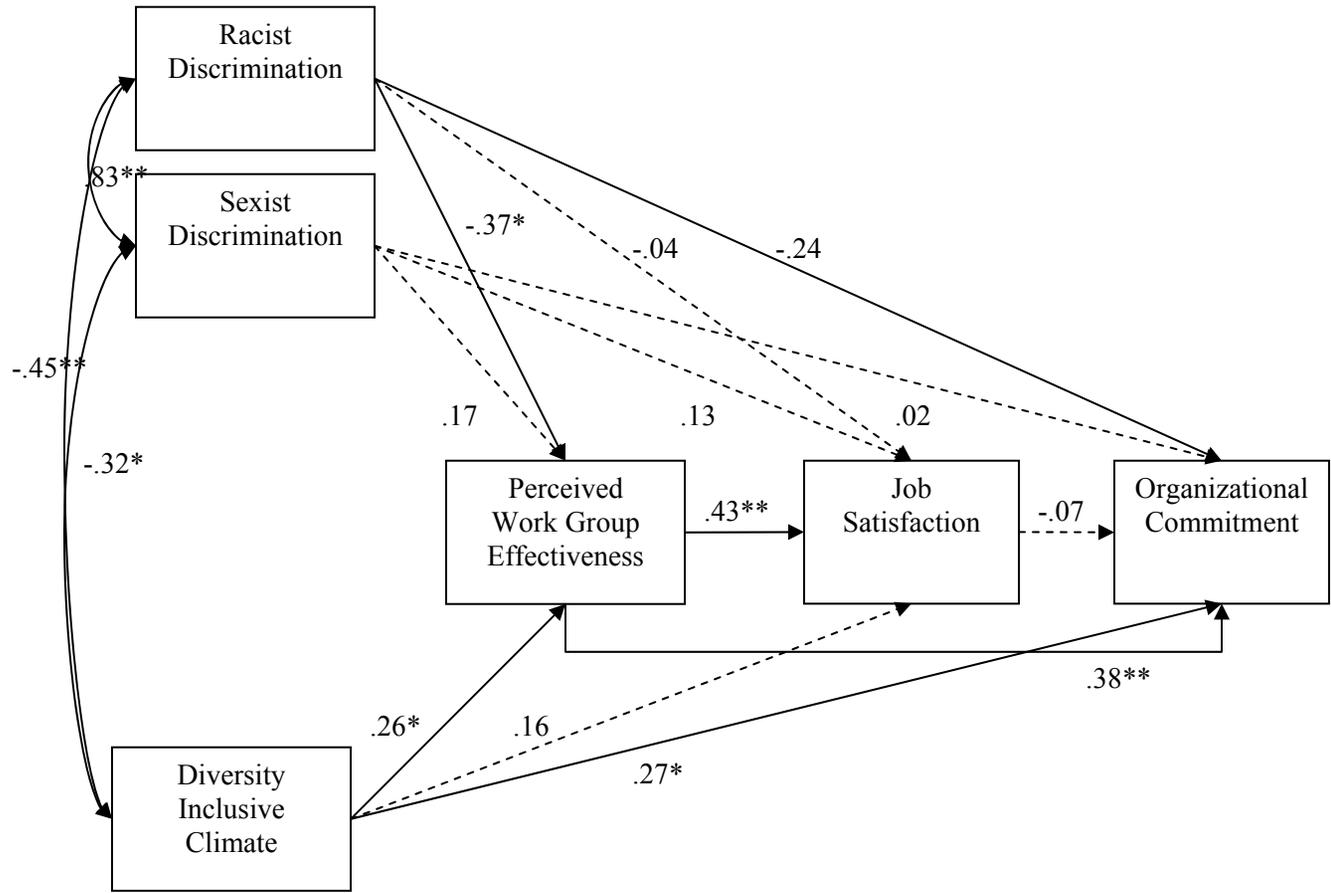


Figure B-8. Hispanic Sample's Fully Saturated Path Model ($n = 84$). Note. $*p < .05$. $**p < .001$. Dashed line indicates nonsignificant path.

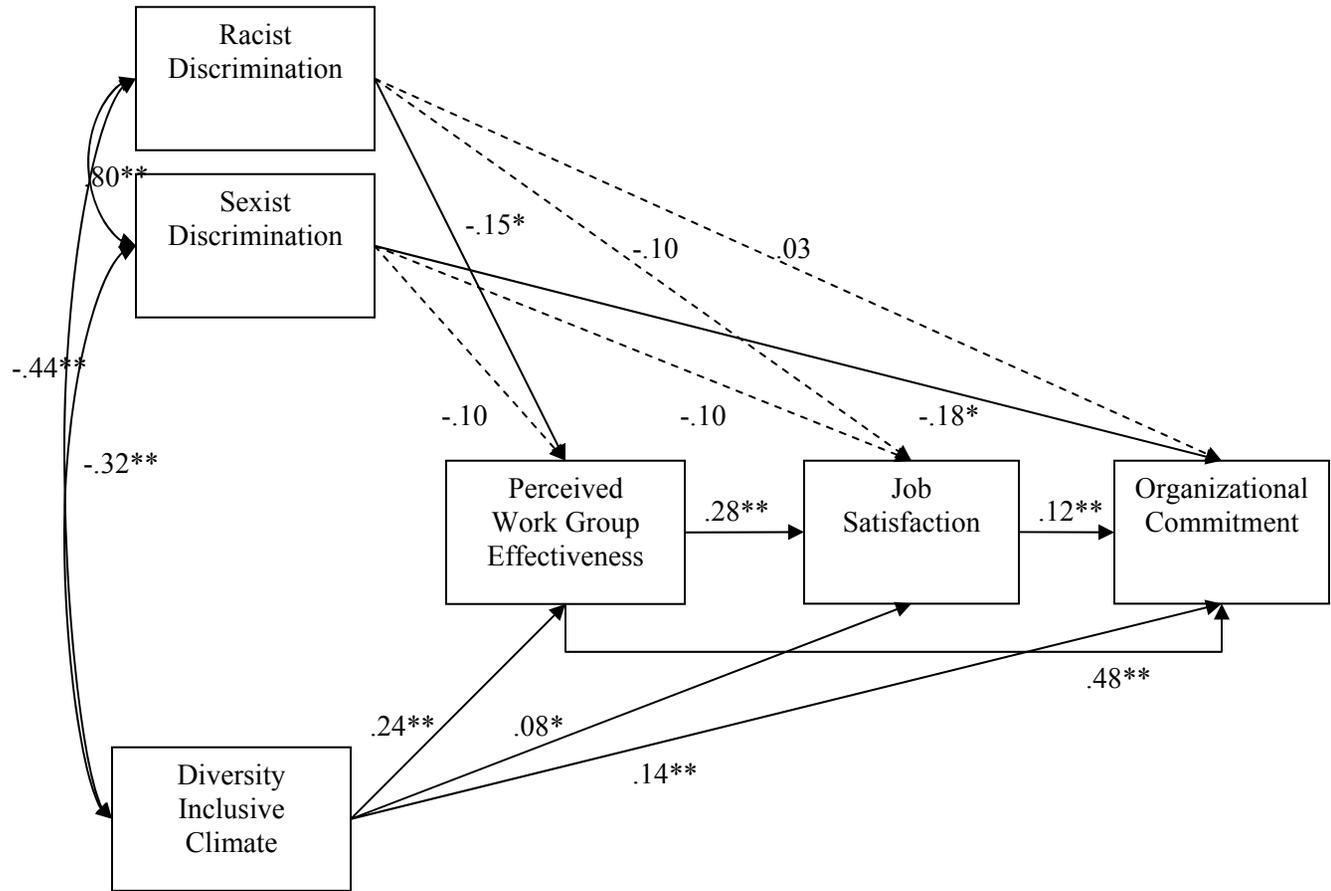


Figure B-9. White Sample's Fully Saturated Path Model ($n = 700$). Note. $*p < .05$. $**p < .001$. Dashed line indicates nonsignificant path.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Alicia Valleni Matteson was born in Redondo Beach, CA and was commissioned as an Active Duty officer in the United States Air Force from the USAF Academy in 1995 where she received her BS in Behavioral Sciences. She received an Air Force Institute of Technology (AFIT) scholarship to earn her MA in Community Counseling from the University of Colorado, Colorado Springs in 1998 and upon graduation, served as a counselor and instructor at the USAF Academy from 2000-2002. She received another AFIT scholarship to pursue her doctorate in Counseling Psychology from the University of Florida beginning in 2002. She graduated from the Clinical Psychology Residency program at Malcolm Grow Medical Center, Andrews AFB, MD in 2005 and has served as the Commander of the Mental Health Flight at Dover AFB since then. She is the proud spouse of Adam, an AF retired veteran, and the tremendously blessed mother of Warren, Conrad, and Noah.