

Examining the Relationship Between Racial Identity and Career Decision-Making  
Self-Efficacy on Counseling Students' Career Satisfaction

by

Rebecca Renee Opamen, B.S., M.A., M.S., LPC, NCC, TCYM

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Approved

aretha marbley, Ph.D.  
Chair of the Committee

Charles Crews, Ph.D.

Marcelo Schmidt, Ph.D.

Mark Sheridan, Ph.D.  
Dean of the Graduate School

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## **ABSTRACT**

This was a quantitative study that examines the relationship between racial identity and career decision-making self-efficacy and counseling students' career satisfaction. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between racial identity and career satisfaction among master's and doctoral counseling students. Career decision-making self-efficacy was analyzed as a moderator variable. The guiding questions for the research are as follows: (1) How do clinical counseling students align with specific levels of racial identity by race? (2) What is the relationship between clinical counseling students' level of racial identity development and career satisfaction? (3) Is there a difference in the impact of racial identity on career satisfaction of clinical counseling students based on race? (4) Does career decision-making self-efficacy act as a moderator between racial identity and career satisfaction for clinical counseling students? The study uses critical race theory as a theoretical framework. This framework includes counter-storytelling, the enduring presence of racism, Whiteness as a form of property, interest conversion, and a critical analysis of the liberal framework. This study found the following statistical significance: people of color racial identity attitude schema immersion/resistance had a negative correlation with career satisfaction ( $p < .05$ ). There were also statistically significant findings between the moderating variable career decision making self- efficacy and career satisfaction. The findings from this study indicate that career decision making self-efficacy plays a significant role in explaining career satisfaction, as higher levels of career decision making self-efficacy were consistently associated with greater levels of career satisfaction.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Given the changing demographics of the United States, there is a clear need for counselors prepared to work with clients of color (e.g., Sue & Sue, 2008; Richeson & Nussbaum, 2004). Recognizing this need, scholars have failed to identify a range of effective pedagogical and clinical tools, approaches, and techniques for training master's level clinical students to work effectively with culturally diverse clients and in culturally diverse settings (DeRicco & Sciarra, 2005; Dickson et al., 2010, 2008; Leuwerke, 2005; Pack-Brown, 1999; Seward, 2014; Sue & Sue, 2008). A major cause of ineffective counseling services for people of color is that the nation's counselor training programs lack cultural diversity and, thus, counselors of color who look like, think like, and behave like them (Dickson et al., 2010; Quarterman, 2008; Sue & Sue, 2008).

Similarly, Protivnak and Foss's (2009) study focused on best practices to train master's-level students to be practitioners in a multicultural and pluralistic society. However, there is evidence that counselors of color who have similar cultural backgrounds as their clients are better positioned to meet this growing need (Parham & Helms, 1981; Sue et al., 1992; Sue & Sue, 2008). Unfortunately, counseling, outside of mandated counseling services, is a majority White field with mostly White counselors. In 2011-2015 Whites accounted for 64.6 percent of the counselors in the United States while Black people and Hispanic people comprised 18.8% and 10.7%, respectively (U.S Department of Health and Human Services, 2017). Further, studies of graduate students of color including Counselor Education students and their experiences and perceptions of doctoral program culture in the counseling field at predominantly White institutions

(PWIs) suggest that adverse negative experiences may also impact retention and recruitment of students of color (Baker & Moore, 2015; Gay, 2004; Henfield et al., 2011, 2013; Quarterman, 2008; Vaishnav, 2020).

Gay (2004) found based on her own experiences and observations as well as the findings of others' research that PhD students of color experience three major forms of marginalization in their graduate programs in PWIs: physical, cultural, and intellectual isolation; benign neglect; and problematic popularity. She also found that many students of color face discrimination, isolation, tokenism, hostility, marginalization, and challenges to their intelligence. She therefore called on graduate programs to be more responsive to students of color and on instructors and administrators to start understanding the barriers these groups face.

Based on a survey of 51 administrators of graduate programs at a midwestern PWI, Quarterman (2008) concluded that some of the major barriers to the recruitment of a diverse graduate student population at the school are a lack of recruitment and retention programs aimed at students of color, students' lack of financial resources, and an insufficient pool of eligible students. Additionally, Quarterman (2008) highlighted that existing recruitment programs often failed to establish personal connections with students of color and that ineffective dissemination of information further compounded the problem. These findings underscore the urgent need for counselor training programs to implement comprehensive recruitment and retention initiatives that specifically address the unique challenges faced by students of color, while fostering personal connections and ensuring widespread access to information.

Graduate programs have a unique opportunity to foster a more diverse and inclusive student population by actively addressing barriers. This intentional effort could play a vital role in enhancing the cultural competence and overall effectiveness of future counselors in meeting the diverse needs of communities. It is within this context that the current study aims to explore the specific impacts experienced by people of color in graduate and doctoral programs. Understanding these experiences is crucial for informing and improving the support systems and resources available to promote the success and well-being of individuals from diverse racial backgrounds within these academic settings.

### **Background to the Study**

The United States had an estimated 336,000 jobs employing counselors in 2021 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, 2022) (US Census Bureau Public Information Office, 2012). The National Employment Matrix projections reported in these data suggest the profession will continue to grow over the next decade, for example by 22% by 2026. Specialty fields expected to grow include rehabilitation counseling (13%), mental health counseling (23%), and substance abuse and behavioral counseling (23%).

It is clear that counselors will be serving many clients of color. Based on the 2010 U.S. Census report projections (US Census Bureau Public Information Office, 2012), by 2060, people of color will make up most of the U.S population. That is, Asians, Blacks, Hispanics, and other groups of color will constitute 57% of the population. Further, based on this report, the Latinx and Hispanic populations will grow the most, from 16% today to 31% in 2060.

The need for counselor training programs and the counselor profession to integrate is clear. Yet so are the obstacles. White people have historically defined and controlled the work environment of all other racial groups, forcing people from other racial groups to function in a system in which they have little control (Helms, 1994). Likewise, U.S. education has a long history of racist laws and ideologies that benefit the majority culture and discriminately disadvantage people of color (Colby & Ortman, 2014). Exposure to racism and racial microaggressions affects people of color's level of racial identity as well as their career satisfaction and persistence (Erby, 2022; Helms, 1994; Smith et al., 2020; Solorzano et al., 2000; Yap et al., 2010).

Racial identity development is a lifelong process of self-categorization, understanding racial experiences, and identifying with a specific race (Cross, 1971, 1976, 1978, 1991; Vandiver et al., 2002; Cross & Vandiver, 2001; Cross et al., 2010). It holds significance in relation to the career satisfaction of graduate students, particularly individuals of color. Janet Helms (personal communication, May 25, 2023) explains that individuals receive scores on schemas relevant to their racial group, reflecting their utilization of these schemas. Higher scores indicate a stronger adherence to Helms' theoretical frameworks. These racial identity schemes, when considered alongside career satisfaction, can influence the decision to pursue and persist in a counselor education graduate program. To date, there is no empirical research that directly addresses the relationship among the schemas of racial identity development, career decision-making self-efficacy, and career satisfaction for clinical counseling students. Thus, in addressing this gap, the current study will provide useful data in understanding the career satisfaction of Blacks, Whites, and other people of color. That is, capturing discourse from the

conceptual research on these factors may provide a starting point for understanding the connection among racial identity, career choice, and career development (Evans & Herr, 1994; Parham & Austin, 1994; Tinsley, 1994). At the same time this study strives to add to the research body regarding people of color, racial identity, career satisfaction, and career decision-making self-efficacy.

### **Purpose of the Study**

Research has examined the relationship between racial identity and aspects of mental health, psychological well-being, and coping ability (Cross, 1991; Phinney, 1992; Sellers et al., 2003), but to the best of my knowledge no studies have explored the relationship between racial identity and career satisfaction. The primary purpose of this study is to examine the simultaneous relationship between racial identity and career satisfaction among master's and doctoral counseling students. Career decision-making self-efficacy will be analyzed as a moderator variable. Career satisfaction is a unique and growing situation that, as indicated, is of growing concern among both professionals and the people of color being counseled. The study will use a multiple linear regression analysis to determine the relationship between the predictor variables and the outcome variables. Descriptive data will be collected to look at both the education level-master's or doctoral degree (in counseling/counselor education)-and work environment-ranging from schools to private practices and institutions. This research may inform counselor education training and curriculum, thereby enhancing the effectiveness of counseling services for people of color.

### **Research Questions**

To address the relationship between racial identity and career satisfaction among counselors-in-training, this study will investigate four research questions:

1. How do clinical counseling students by race align with specific levels of racial identity?
2. What is the relationship between clinical counseling students' level of racial identity development on career satisfaction?
3. Is there a difference in the impact of racial identity on career satisfaction of clinical counseling students based on race?
4. Does career decision-making self-efficacy act as a moderator between racial identity and career satisfaction for clinical counseling students?

### ***Definition of Terms***

This research study will use the following definitions for this particular examination:

**Racial Identity** is defined as “sense of group or collective identity based on one’s perception that he or she shares a common racial heritage with a particular racial group” (Helms, 1990a, p. 3). “Racial identity concerns the extent to which People of Color are aware of, understand, and value their racial background and heritage” (Grantham & Ford, 2003, p. 20).

**Career Satisfaction** is defined as “the satisfaction individuals derive from intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their careers, including pay, advancement, and developmental opportunities” (Judge et al., 1995)

**Career Decision-Making Self-Efficacy** measures a person's confidence while engaging in career decision-making tasks (Taylor & Betz, 1983).

**A Counselor in Training** is a graduate student enrolled in a university counseling program.

**People of Color** is a term used to describe ethnic minorities in the United States. This group includes Black/African Americans, American Indian/Alaskan Natives, Native Hawaiians and Other Pacific Islanders, Hispanic/Latinos, Asian Americans, and individuals with a multiracial heritage (two or more races).

### **Limitations or Delimitations of the Study**

This research study will use the following definitions for this particular examination:

**Racial Identity** is defined as “sense of group or collective identity based on one's perception that he or she shares a common racial heritage with a particular racial group” (Helms, 1990, p. 3). “Racial identity concerns the extent to which People of Color are aware of, understand, and value their racial background and heritage” (Grantham & Ford, 2003, p. 20).

**Career Satisfaction** is defined as “the satisfaction individuals derive from intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their careers, including pay, advancement, and developmental opportunities” (Greenhaus et al., 1990)

**Career Decision-Making Self-Efficacy** measures a person's confidence while engaging in career decision-making tasks (Taylor & Betz, 1983).

**A Counselor in Training** is a graduate student enrolled in a university counseling program.

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### **Assumptions**

The following three assumptions apply to the current study.

1. It is assumed that the dependent variable is continuous and that the study will have two or more independent variables that are at least nominal.
2. It is assumed that the relationship between dependent and independent variables will be linear.
3. It is assumed that the dependent variable distribution will be approximately normal for each category of the independent study.

### **Significance of the Study**

People of color's workplace experiences have been examined to a lesser degree than Whites' (Brown, 1995; Fitzgerald & Betz, 1994). Structural racism from slavery, American Indian holocaust, Jewish scapegoating, Chinese forced labor building the continental railroad and other racist events shape the discriminatory practices, policies, and environments that exist and impact marginalized populations. Given the strong need for greater diversity in the counseling profession (Dickson et al., 2010; Quarterman, 2008; Sue & Sue, 2008;), this study's assessment of the roles of racial identity and career satisfaction with counselors-in-training may offer important insights.



Despite relatively lower mental illness rates among people of color compared to Whites, with figures of 16.8 percent for Black adults, 15.3 percent for Hispanic adults, and 13.4 percent for Asian adults displaying some form of mental illness in 2008-2012 (Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2015), people of color's experiences of mental illness warrant attention.

### ***Rationale***

People of color are underrepresented in the counseling profession (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2001). Those who enter the profession are exhibiting high attrition rates that may be due in part to experiences of racism and racial microaggressions, but, due to the lack of research examining the effects of career satisfaction and stages and levels of racial identity, it is difficult to be sure. Thus, there is a need for research addressing the relationship among these variables in the experiences of counselor trainees.

### **Organization of Chapters**

Chapter I includes a short introduction, background of the study, research questions, and definition of terms. Chapter II reviews the relevant literature concerning racial identity and career decision-making self-efficacy. Chapter III describes the methodology of the study, sample, how the research questions will be analyzed, and instruments that will be used in the study.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will provide an examination of the literature regarding the impact of counseling students' career decision-making self-efficacy and levels of racial identity on their career satisfaction. Critical race theory (CRT) will be used as the theoretical framework in this study. It will also be used to discuss student participants' process in deciding whether to remain in their counseling degree programs and their careers in counseling.

This chapter begins with the history of racial identity and review of the current research on the influences of racial identity on counseling students. Additionally, literature on career satisfaction is reviewed with a focus on the implications affecting counseling students. Lastly, the research on career decision-making self-efficacy is reviewed.

CRT includes the following five tenets: the permanence of racism, counter-storytelling, interest convergence theory, Whiteness as property, and critique of liberalism (Bell, 1980, 1995; Crenshaw, 1988; Harris, 1993; Lawrence, 1995; Matsuda et al., 1993). All five of these tenets will be used to guide and organize the literature reviewed here.

#### **Theoretical Framework**

“Instead of honoring this sacred obligation, America has given the Negro people a bad check, a check which has come back marked ‘insufficient funds’” (King, 1998).

## **Critical Race Theory**

CRT emerged in response to the massive racial injustices faced by people of color, specifically African Americans, during the 1960s and 1970s. Because CRT was inspired by education reform, women's rights, Civil Rights, Mexican American farm workers, Chicano, and Black movements, no one group can take credit for CRT's existence. As a result, CRT tenets are truly cross-disciplinary, as are the theory's roots.

CRT scholars have framed CRT and laid out critical tenets that help us better understand the sociopolitical, legal, educational, and other underpinnings of race and racism in the United States. In line with their theorizing, the following five basic and critical tenets of CRT will serve as the theoretical framework for my study: *counter-storytelling*, *the permanence of racism*, *Whiteness as property*; *interest conversion*; and *the critique of liberalism* (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004; Ladson-Billings, 1995; McCoy, 2006).

Several of the above scholars discussed the impact of the five tenets of CRT. Harrison et al. (2017) emphasizes the importance of understanding the interconnectedness of these tenets in shaping perceptions and actions.

Counter-storytelling has gained recognition as a potent instrument in higher education for amplifying the voices of marginalized individuals (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Harrison et al., 2017). Through the analysis of narratives created through counter-storytelling, research has contributed to counter-storytelling by allowing voices to be shared and prompting the inclusion efforts of educational institutions (Hernández, 2016).

The second tenet, the permanence of racism, highlights that racism persists as a tool that maintains a hierarchical society (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). CRT

underscores the presence of racism in higher education, stemming from the structural composition of the educational system (Hernández, 2016). Acknowledging systemic racism is a crucial step for leaders in higher education to enact meaningful changes (Iverson, 2007).

The concept of whiteness as property, as explored in the third tenet, delves into the idea of White privilege being treated as a commodified asset (Harris, 1993). This perspective acknowledges that White individuals exclusively possess this “property” (Harris, 1993; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). By examining the historical context, it becomes apparent that people of color were treated as property during the era of slavery, thereby perpetuating the existence of White privilege (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995, 2016).

The fourth tenet, interest convergence, suggests that Whites are often the primary beneficiaries of policies that are adopted on the basis of racial progressivism (Hernández, 2016). For example, research indicates that White women have benefited more than people of color from affirmative action policies in the education system (Ladson-Billings, 1995). Bell (1980) argues that U.S. society only accommodates the interests of Black individuals in achieving racial equality when they align with the interests of white individuals.

The fifth tenet critiques liberalism and challenges the notion of colorblindness, which disregards the systemic oppression of people of color in higher education (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017). CRT underscores the importance of racial awareness and sensitivity, as colorblindness perpetuates systemic racism (Harrison et al., 2017; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995, 2016; Mueller, 2017). Addressing colorblindness involves developing

curricula that acknowledge and explore the racial experiences of people of color (Hernández, 2016). It is essential to debunk the belief that equal opportunity laws have eradicated racism in higher education, as students of color continue to face racial microaggressions (Delgado & Stefancic, 2017; Harrison et al., 2017; Mueller, 2017).

CRT emerged out of the critical legal studies movement and other social movements (e.g., education, Black, Chicano, and feminist) of the 1960s and 1970s (Crenshaw, 2011; DeCuir & Dixson, 2004; Menkal-Meadow, 1988). During this period of societal upheaval and activism, CRT emerged as a response to the limitations of traditional legal frameworks in addressing issues of racial inequality and social justice. It drew inspiration from various other social movements, such as the Civil Rights Movement, Black Power Movement, feminist movements, and the struggles for indigenous rights. CRT scholars sought to critically analyze how race intersects with law, power, and social institutions to perpetuate systemic racism and maintain existing hierarchies. It became a tool and a lens to explain the United States' historical misrepresentation of different isms and systemic oppression and the political, social, legal, and power distribution that prevails in the country. It essentially became the disgruntle discourse of legal scholars, educators, lawyers, and community and civic activists, when the U.S. government began eliminating and reversing, in essence renegeing on the promises, progress, and advances Blacks had fought so hard to get in the Civil Rights era. It was an acknowledgement of the bad check, the bounced check, the one, according to Dr. King, that came back "marked 'insufficient funds.'"

CRT was a response, for example, to the persistence of policies, laws, and social norms that prevented equal treatment of minoritized people even in the face of the Civil

Rights Act of 1964 (Delgado & Stefancic, 2001). It was a response that reflected concerns among American diplomats and world leaders after World War II about the impact of race discrimination on the United States' image around the world, not a decision to end school segregation (Dudziak, 1988).

As Bell (1976), one of the preeminent theorists of CRT explains, legal litigation slowed down the implementation of the decision in *Brown v. Board of Education* in large cities. Although these cases were intended to benefit people of color, they primarily relied on legal arguments and litigation that proved insufficient in addressing the deep-rooted issue of systemic racism. Bell's analysis underscores the limitations of a purely legal approach in tackling the complexities of racial inequality and highlights the need for broader, transformative strategies to combat systemic racism and promote genuine racial justice. By incorporating interdisciplinary perspectives, CRT sought to transcend the limitations of traditional legal approaches and offer more nuanced analyses and solutions to combat racial inequality and promote true racial justice. CRT is now found in various articles and empirical research in education, legal studies, parenting, and social justice, to name a few. In short, CRT evaluates the “role of race and racism in perpetuating social disparities between dominant and marginalized racial groups” (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). CRT's goal is to identify things excluded when analyzing race and privilege and “patterns of exclusion that exist in U.S. society” (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004).

CRT offers universities a lens through which to monitor their retention, recruitment, and enrollment and other strategies to improve diversity, equity, and inclusion efforts for the success of marginalized and underrepresented groups. For example, if they seek to increase the number of students of color enrolled and retained in

academic programs, predominantly White institutions (PWIs) must establish themselves as inviting and welcoming places for culturally diverse students. To achieve this, PWI leadership must evaluate their campus climate and effect change.

Having a critical mass of diverse staff, faculty, and administrators is a first step to increasing the presence of students of color in a counseling program. CRT is closely tied to the United States' failure to address the influence and role of historical race and racism in its society. As previously mentioned, the critical legal studies movement (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004) serves as a noteworthy illustration of endeavors aimed at addressing this imperative issue.

### ***Counter-Storytelling***

DeCuir and Dixson (2004) defined counter-storytelling as a way to cast doubt on the validity of believed premises or myths, particularly those held by the majority. Counter-storytelling is a way to depict and analyze standardized discussions that spread racial stereotypes. Counter-storytelling can give a voice to marginalized populations and challenge the majority discourse or the privileged discourse. Delgado and Stefancic (2017) argued that counter-storytelling “help[s] us understand what life is like for others and invite[s] the reader into a new and unfamiliar world” (p. 41). According to Solórzano and Yosso (2002), counter-storytelling consists of “personal stories/narratives, other people’s stories/narratives and composite stories/narratives.” Counter-storytelling serves as a valuable tool for examining the campus climate of a college and creating space for students’ narratives to be heard. It offers opportunities to conduct research and explore ways in which an institution can enhance the inclusiveness of its environment. The

review of the literature on career satisfaction will use counter-storytelling as an organizing principle.

### ***Career Satisfaction***

The literature offers multiple definitions of career satisfaction. Greenhaus et al. (1990) defines career satisfaction as “the satisfaction individuals derive from intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their careers, including pay, advancement, and developmental opportunities” (Greenhaus et al., 1990). Studies show people of color experience lower levels of career satisfaction and high levels of discrimination and harassment at work (Greenhaus et al., 1990), more barriers to promotion (Greenhaus, et al., 1990; Yap & Konrad, 2009), and lower wages (Pendakur & Pendakur, 1998, 2007) than Whites.

Academia may be further challenged by the shifting demographic composition of the U.S. labor force. This demographic shift further necessitates the need to explore racial differences in labor market outcomes (Health Resources and Services Administration/National Center for Health Workforce Analysis; Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration/Office of Policy, Planning, and Innovation, 2015). Another topic related to job and career satisfaction that scholars (e.g., Refuss et al., 2012; Alexander-Albritton & Hill, 2015; Smith et al., 2013; and Parr et al., 1996) investigated is happiness and productivity at work. These studies explore the factors contributing to individuals’ well-being and effectiveness in their professional environments.

Further, Refuss et al. (2012) conducted a study examining the relationship between career satisfaction, person-organization fit, demands-abilities fit, and needs-supplies fit among counselors. They utilized the Perceived Job Fit instrument and adapted a scale of career satisfaction from the Adult Career Concerns Inventory to collect their



data. The findings of the study revealed that both person-organization fit and needs-supplies fit were positively associated with career satisfaction, while no significant relationship was found between demands-abilities fit and career satisfaction. These results support the notion that individuals' perception of fit within an organization and their fulfillment of organizational needs are linked to their career satisfaction.

Alexander-Albritton and Hill (2015) surveyed the job satisfaction of 157 female counselor educators. They looked at the associations between familial (i.e., partnership status, parenting responsibility) and institutional (i.e., academic rank, Carnegie Classification) variables and career satisfaction. Study participants had an average score of moderate job satisfaction. The study was based on familial and institutional factors and found, after controlling for institutional type, that female associate professors had lower levels in the intrinsic rewards domain. Intrinsic rewards are measured by questions like "I feel proud of the work that I do." Additional findings in the study indicated that parental responsibility and partnership status were equivocal, with significant interaction effects after controlling for Carnegie Classification. The results of this study supported previous research findings that associate professors are among the least satisfied with their job, far less so than tenured professors (Cook, 2012).

Smith et al. (2013) conducted a study to evaluate career outcomes, job satisfaction, licensure and certification rates, and client populations served among alumni of a rehabilitation counselor education program. A total of 156 alumni completed the survey. The survey contained 34 items distributed over four sections: (a) demographics; (b) career information, including promotions, licenses and certifications, populations served, income, and career satisfaction; (c) educational experience, including satisfaction

with their academic and practical training experience and their perceptions of being prepared for their job responsibilities; and (d) interest in pursuing a doctorate degree. The findings of the study concluded that alumni evinced a high level of satisfaction with their current career position: 48% of the 108 participants were satisfied with working in their current field. Researchers posited that the curriculum and program influenced these results.

Parr et al. (1996) conducted a study on career satisfaction with 167 members of the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES). Findings indicated that 89.2% of the respondents were satisfied with their career in counseling. Additionally, the ACES members reported experiencing burnout occasionally and stress levels in the moderate range. These results highlight the overall positive outlook and contentment among professionals in the counseling field from the respondents. None of these studies shed significant light on career satisfaction of people of color, and thus there is a need for additional research such as this dissertation offers.

### ***Career Decision Making Self-Efficacy***

One of the most significant developments in career theory is the application of Bandura's (1986) social learning theory or social cognitive theory to career decision-making (Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996). Similar to other career development theories, social learning theory applied to career decision-making primarily identifies and explicates the personal and environmental events that shape individuals' decisions made about careers during different points in their lives (Osipow & Fitzgerald, 1996). Social cognitive theory includes the component of self-efficacy and is described as personal beliefs about the result of performance (Leong & Brown, 1995).

Bandura also theorized that four sources shape self-efficacy beliefs: personal performance accomplishments, vicarious learning, social persuasion, and physiological states upon reactions. From Bandura's (1986) self-efficacy theories emerged Krumboltz et al.'s (1976) social learning theory of career decision-making and ultimately career decision-making self-efficacy (Fassinger, 2005). Betz and Hackett, in 1981, were the first to emphasize the importance of self-efficacy expectations on career decision-making, and they produced a model of career decision-making based primarily on self-efficacy (Fassinger, 2005).

Career decision-making self-efficacy can be defined as the expectation or belief about one's own ability to perform occupationally relevant behaviors successfully, and that these expectations determine one's action, effort, and persistence related to those behaviors (Fassinger, 2005; Leong & Brown, 1995). Betz and Hackett's (1981) landmark work explored women's career development and suggested that women have lower career-related self-efficacy expectations than do men.

Studying undergraduate students, Betz and Hackett (1981) found that female students had higher career self-efficacy levels with respect to traditional occupations and lower levels with nontraditional occupations, which was different than their male counterparts. They also found that career decision-making self-efficacy should be explored with other variables such as interests, abilities, and values (Betz & Hackett, 1981). Bertz and Hackett's (1981) study demonstrated a connection between career-relevant self-efficacy beliefs and gender, which ultimately established the utility of self-efficacy when trying to understand vocational choice and implementation behaviors.

There have also been limited research studies focused on career decision-making, self-efficacy and racial identity development. Montgomery (2006) found that career decision-making self-efficacy was related to the pre-encounter, immersion/emersion, and internalization statuses of the Black racial identity development model. Richardson (1999) found that for African American college students, pre-encounter attitudes were positively and significantly associated with self-efficacy for entering traditional career fields.

However, encounter attitudes were negatively correlated with self-efficacy beliefs for entering non-traditional career fields. Richardson (1999) suggests that it may be possible that African American college students at the pre-encounter status believe that race is not a barrier to achieving their goals or entering their chosen career field. Other studies (Gushue & Whitson, 2006; Williams, 2001) have not found significant relationships between racial identity and career decision-making self-efficacy, crediting more robust research in these areas.

### ***Permanence of Racism***

McCoy and Rodricks (2015) “contended that the Eurocentric versions of U.S. history expose race as a socially constructed concept, established to distinguish racial groups and to show the superiority of one group over another” (p. 6). As Bell (1992), a founder of CRT, stated, “racism is a permanent component of American life” (p. 13). The permanence of racism has to do with using a “realist view” when looking at America societal structure and systems. According to Bell (1995), American civilization is built on racism, favoring White individuals over people of color in majority areas of life,

including education. Specifically, America has a racial stratification system in which Whites are the superior group.

Racial stratifications are defined as a “hierarchy of racial groups, suggesting that one group is superior to another” (Brown, 2003). When seeking to improve an institution’s plan for diversity and inclusion, it is important to consider how well-intended institutional process and procedures can promote racism.

### ***Racial Identity***

Race and exposure to racism (embedded in the concept of permanence of racism) have a direct impact on the development of one’s racial identity. The evolving societal landscape has underscored the importance of expanding research efforts to closely examine the intragroup differences within homogeneous groups (Cardo, 1994; Carter, 1991; Carter & Parks, 1996; Rogler et al., 1989; Sadowsky & Plake, 1992).

Given the vast array of ethnic, cultural, and economic diversities within different groups of people of color in the United States, it is imperative to prioritize research efforts that delve into these variations. Understanding and addressing these differences is crucial in order to foster inclusivity, equity, and social progress. Racial identity development has been employed as a framework to elucidate the disparities observed among people of color within the counseling field, acknowledging the substantial variations that exist within each racial group during counseling interactions (Carter, 1991; Cross, 1987, 1991; Helms, 1984, 1989, 1990b). By considering racial identity development, researchers and practitioners gain valuable insights into the unique experiences and perspectives that individuals from different racial and ethnic backgrounds bring to the counseling process. The racial identity models that will be used

to assess the relationship between racial identity, and career satisfaction are as follows:

Janet Helm's the Black racial identity model; the people of color identity model; and the White racial identity attitude scale.

The Civil Rights Movement significantly contributed to addressing and redefining the notion of Black identity. Following this movement, in the 1970s, identity models began to appear in counseling and psychotherapy literature as a result of theories and models of Black racial identity that will be discussed below.

### **Nigrescence Theory**

Cross (1971) developed the Nigrescence theory (NT-O) to measure the movement of African American's identity attitudes in 1971 and later revised it in 1991. It consisted of five attitudes: pre-encounter, encounter, immersion-emersion, internalization, and internalization-commitment.

#### ***Pre-Encounter***

The pre-encounter attitude, as identified by Cross (1971), is characterized by self-hatred and a preference for European values and beliefs. Individuals in this mindset often exhibit low self-esteem and may experience psychological symptoms such as depression. Their self-concept is primarily shaped by other identities, which diminishes the significance of their Black identity. They idealize the dominant White culture and lack conscious awareness of the personal significance of race. In an attempt to assimilate into the White culture, they distance themselves from their Black heritage. Cross (1971) postulates that this attitude arises from a paradoxical situation in which individuals

believe that to be deemed a good American, they must adopt an anti-Black and anti-African stance.

### ***Encounter***

The encounter attitude occurs when the individual becomes aware of racism towards themselves based on their skin color (Cross, 1971). It may be a response to an incident of discrimination. As Cross (1971) wrote, a “verbal or visual event, rather than an ‘in-depth’ intellectual experience” (p. 17) which the victim then personalizes typically triggers the encounter attitude. It reflects a progression from a state of confusion to feeling that they have been mis-educated Cross (1971) conceptualized the encounter attitude as a crucial phase wherein individuals strive to validate their newly acquired perception. During this phase, individuals engage in experiences and interactions that challenge their previous beliefs and provide opportunities for personal growth and transformation. It is a pivotal test of their evolving understanding and acceptance of their racial identity.

### ***Immersion-Emersion***

When holding the immersion-emersion attitude, the individual strives to educate themselves on what it means to be Black (Cross, 1971). This stage is characterized by immersion into their own race and increased expression of racial identity. In it the “person accepts his hair, his brown skin, his very being as so ‘beautiful’” (Cross, 1971). When in a state of immersion attitude, the person acknowledges their strength and has anger towards Whites. They feel they are “being drawn toward qualitatively different experiences as [they are] being torn from [their] former orientation” (Cross, 1971). When

transitioning to the emersion attitude the person learns to manage the rage and Whites are humanized.

### ***Internalization***

The internalization attitude involves the individual accepting Blackness or being secure in their new Black identity (Cross, 1971). Individuals assimilate and integrate elements of the immersion-emersion experience into their self-concept, internalizing and incorporating them as integral components of their identity (Cross, 1971). Specifically, “they achieve a feeling of inner security and are more satisfied with themselves” (Cross, 1971). Black nationalism embraces an Afrocentric and pro-Black stance while maintaining a non-reactionary mindset towards individuals who do not identify as Black. However, they do not have a full commitment to the cause to help the community and other Blacks.

### ***Internalization-Commitment***

In the internalization-commitment attitude, the individual moves toward self-acceptance and psychological well-being. They actively strive to enact change within their community through various support initiatives while also seeking to enlighten others through educational and awareness endeavors (Cross, 1971). A person in this attitude goes “beyond rhetoric and into action, and... defines change in terms of the masses of Black people rather than the advancement of a few” (Cross, 1971).

Cross’s (1971) theory became influential in the research of racial identity when Parham and Helms (1981) developed the Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale to measure racial identity using the NT-O. In so doing they made NT-O an accessible measurement



of racial identity. The resulting increase in attention led to an increase in criticism, which prompted Cross to revise the original NT-O in 1991.

### *Nigrescence Theory- Revised*

Cross (1991) introduced a revised nigrescence model, shifting from a developmental stage theory to an attitudinal theory. Preencounter, internalization, and other attitudes were conceptualized as prominent themes in individuals' attitudes. Cross merged the internalization and internalization commitment stages, recognizing the existence of multiple identities within each category. The model included two pre-encounter attitudes (assimilation and anti-Black), two immersion-emersion attitudes (intense Black involvement and anti-White), and three internalization attitudes (Black nationalist, bicultural, and multicultural; Cross, 1991, 1995). Cross's (1991) revised model defined the difference between personal identity and reference group identity. The change addressed the relationship between personal identity, self-esteem, and the development of psychological symptoms. Personal identity refers to one's personality traits and psychological functioning. An example of personal identity is defining oneself as outgoing rather than being shy. Cross (1991) noted that general personality variables, such as self-esteem, were not strongly associated with measures of social identity or reference group orientation (RGO), such as nigrescence attitudes, in most instances.

The revised model consisted of two attitudes each related to pre-encounter and immersion-emersion and three related to internalization identities: assimilation and anti-Black; intense Black involvement and anti-White; and Black nationalist, bicultural, and multicultural, respectively (Cross, 1991). The revised model consisted of four stages:

pre-encounter, encounter, immersion-emersion, and internalization. That is, it combined the internalization and internalization commitment stages from the original theory.

At every stage except the encounter stage, Cross (1991) attributed more than one attitude to the individual at that stage:

1. The pre-encounter stage was composed of the assimilation and anti-Black identities.
  - a. People with assimilation identity have a reference group orientation of pro- American, and race is not important to them.
  - b. Those within this stage of anti-Black identity has self-hatred and characterized as miseducation.
2. Immersion-emersion stage included intense Black involvement and anti-White feelings.
  - a. Intense Black Involvement describes “a person’s over romanticized immersion into the Black experience” (Vandive et al., 2002).
  - b. People with anti-White identity “reject everything White, to the point of demonizing Whites and their culture” (Vandiver et al., 2002)
3. The final stage of internalization consisted of three attitudes: Black nationalist, biculturalist, and multiculturalist.
  - a. Black nationalism focuses their efforts on empowering their communities.
  - b. Biculturalism involves a focus on blending Black self-acceptance with the acceptance of another cultural orientation (such as gender, nationality, and sexual orientation; Vandiver et al., 2002).

- c. Multiculturalism involves focusing one's efforts on building coalitions beyond the Black community.

***Nigrescence Theory- Expanded***

In the course of developing an instrument to measure the revised nigrescence theory model and the Cross Racial Identity Scale (Vandiver et al., 2001), Cross developed an expanded version of the nigrescence theory model. The revised pre-encounter stage includes assimilation (the acceptance of traditional western European attitudes), miseducation (the acceptance of negative stereotypes about Blacks, such as is documented in Woodson's 1933 book, *The Miseducation of the Negro*), and self-hatred (the dislike of oneself based on one's race). The expanded theory also included three separate assimilation ideologies: Anglo conformity melting pot and cultural pluralism multiculturalism (McLemore et al., 2001).

The expanded immersion-immersion stage has one subscale or identity measure for anti-White attitudes. In this stage the individual undergoes a change from acceptance of Eurocentric values to a strong acceptance of everything Black (Vandiver et al., 2002).

Internalization, the third stage, has four subscales in the expanded NT-O: Afrocentricity, biculturalist, multiculturalist racial, and multiculturalist inclusive. Afrocentric identity stems from African values and beliefs and emphasizes the advancement and well-being of the Black community as a whole. Bicultural racial identity refers to being Black and identifying with another group, such as one defined by religion, gender, or nationality. Multiculturalist racial identity involves the individual being pro-Black, and a reduction hatred for Whites. Multiculturalist inclusive identity is acceptance of pro-Black attitudes and the ability to interact with other racial groups in a

healthy manner. Researchers have found psychological functioning, self-esteem, and academic functioning is related to racial identity (Carter, 1991; Chavous et al., 2003; Martinez & Dukes, 1997; Rogers et al., 2015). Furthermore, there is evidence that positive racial identity can reduce some of the negative effects of discrimination (Sellers & Shelton, 2003; Wong et al., 2003).

Parham and Helms (1981) modified and operationalized Cross's model of Black identity attitudes. According to Parham and Helms (1981), the concept of racial identity encompasses an individual's attitudes towards both their own racial group and other racial groups. Parham and Helms (1985) conducted a study to explore the relation between racial identity attitudes derived from Cross's (1971) NT-O model among Black college students enrolled in four PWIs. Through multiple regression analyses, they found that racial identity attitudes were differentially related to subjects' self-actualizing tendencies and various affective states or styles. Social class indicators, academic class, racial self-designation, and age did not predict racial identity attitudes. However, they concluded that "higher levels of pre-encounter attitudes consistently were associated with less self-actualization, and these attitudes were less psychologically healthy; encounter attitudes were positively associated with self-actualization" (Parham & Helms, 1985, p. 436). Furthermore, "high levels of pre-encounter and immersion attitudes were likely to be related to feelings of inferiority, personal inadequacy, and hypersensitivity" (p. 436).

Helms's (1995b) People of Color Racial Identity Attitude Scale (PRIAS) was created to look at the psychological impact of racism on personality development and interpersonal interactions. Each status represents the individual's assessment of their racial self and that of others. The PRIAS identity model consists of five statuses:

conformity, dissonance, immersion-emersion, initialization, and integrative awareness. Statuses also comprise different information processing strategies, approaches that people tend to use when coping with racial stimuli (Thompson, 2015).

### ***Conformity***

Conformity status is characterized by a person not seeing a value in one's racial group and idealization of Whites (Helms, 2003). It involves attempting to live as "just an American" and, often, avoiding other people of color (Helms, 2003). Others may label a person of color in this status as "White identified" (Helms, 2003). These practices and policies of the conformity status include the use of "appropriate" language, media portrayals of people, omissions in classroom learning, and housing, policing, political, and employment exclusions (e.g., redistricting, redlining, racial profiling, and real estate inflation; Thompson et al., 2005).

### ***Dissonance***

Dissonance refers to a state of general confusion that individuals experience regarding their perception of reality and their adherence to certain transitional aspects (Thompson et al., 2005). A person becomes conscious of the fact that they do not align with the dominant White culture and recognizes the absence of positive representation and resources pertaining to their own racial group. Some of the emotional and mental consequences associated with the state of dissonance include repression and unpredictable emotional reactions when exposed to racially charged information that provokes anxiety, heightened anxiety levels, and a sense of disorientation (Helms & Cook, 1999).

### **Immersion-Emersion**

*Immersion-emersion* status is noted by feelings of rage and mistrust toward Whites and idealization of one's own racial group (Helms, 2003).

### ***Internalization***

Once moved to the internalization status a person starts to see people of color and Whites as being humans and thus as possessing a panoply of human qualities. They see the divisive and hostile environment in which they live and acknowledge that the tendency to idealize racially similar others is short-sighted (Smith, 2004). Furthermore, they understand that the negative views they had about Whites are stereotypes (Smith, 2004).

### ***Integrative Awareness***

The final stage of conscious improvement is referred to as integrative awareness, which involves a complete recognition of the systemic oppression faced by people of color within society. Individuals in this stage also acknowledge that everyone, including themselves, experiences negative consequences when they participate in and perpetuate various unjust structures. People of color who are in the integrative awareness status “come to learn that race is a social construction that imposes an unfair hierarchy on people, and stereotypes that cast people into unfair categories, positive or otherwise, deflate individuality and humanity” (Smith, 2004). A person in this stage of conscious improvement will adopt an inclusive approach towards individuals from diverse backgrounds, actively working to overcome any discomfort they may experience when interacting with someone of a different racial group.

### ***Tests of the PRIAS***

Miller et al. (2016) conducted a study with the aim of testing competing models of the PRIAS using a sample of 1,946 Asian American college students and community adults. The findings of the study indicate a 12-item 4-factor PRIAS measurement model was as effective a measure of racial identity as the 50-item version. In addition, the results “demonstrated the configural, metric, scalar, and uniqueness invariance of the PRIAS-12 across gender and generational status” (Miller et al., 2016). This study supported the use of the PRIAS as an effective instrument to measure racial identity for Asian Americans.

Bryant and LaFromboise (2005) utilized the PRIAS in a study involving 150 Lumbee Native American college students. The purpose of their research was to assess the feasibility of constructing profiles of Native Americans based on their racial identity attitudes using the PRIAS. The findings indicated that the scale was useful in developing profiles of racial identity attitudes of Native Americans.

Roberts et al. (2014) conducted a study involving 240 Asian American journalists, wherein they utilized the concept of racial identity-based impression management (RIM). The researchers employed an assessment of RIM, the centrality subscale of the racial identity scale (Sellers et al., 1997), and the perceived career success scale (Turban & Dougherty, 1994). Their objective was to explore how racial stereotypes might affect the career prospects of Asian American journalists and their ability to navigate social interactions.

The findings revealed that racial centrality significantly predicted the use of four RIM strategies, either directly or indirectly: avoidance, enhancement, affiliation, and

racial humor. Additionally, professional centrality was found to predict life satisfaction and perceived career success. These results suggest that employing RIM strategies could help mitigate the challenges faced by racial minorities and leverage the benefits that diversity brings to the work environment.

### ***The White Racial Identity Attitude Scale***

Currently, the primary race of mental health professionals is White, and Whites hold most of the power and resources in the country. Racial identity in the United States involves subconsciously or consciously comparing oneself to Whites. Thus, White racial identity development and its implication on career satisfaction is important. In this vein, Helms (1984) developed a model of White racial identity development, the White Racial Identity Attitude Scale (Helms & Carter, 1990; Helms, 1995b), and the White racial identity model (Helms, 1994). Since the scale, a tool to measure self-conceptions of White individuals with respect to membership in their own racial group in contrast to how they react to people of other racial groups, represented the culmination of Helms's work in this regard, this section explains it in detail. Helms used six schemas to define the different strategies for interpreting and responding to one's own understandings of race. The first schema, *contact*, is the lack of awareness of the social political significances of racial group membership, especially one's own. *Disintegration* is the second schema and refers to confusion with respect to one's own Whiteness as well as ambivalent awareness of the implications of race for members of other racial groups. *Reintegration* (third schema) is the active and passive endorsement of White superiority and Black inferiority. *Pseudo-Independence* is the fourth schema and pertains to when the individual starts to evaluate the notion that Blacks are inferior to Whites. The person begins to acknowledge



their responsibility for racism. The fifth schema, *immersion/emersion* attitudes, references the pro-active and self-initiated development of a positive White identity. The last schema is *autonomy*. It pertains to active racial humanism expressed from a positive White, non-racist perspective.

Dass-Brailsford's (2007) qualitative research study looking at the racial identity change of White graduate students who took a multicultural course offers support for Helms's model, making specific reference to the White Racial Identity model. Analyzing students' weekly journal entries and reflection papers for the course, Dass-Brailsford found that students moved from a racist identity to a non-racist identity in a manner aligned with Helms's model. Furthermore, the study provides evidence that classroom instruction can assist students in unlearning racial attitudes and replacing them with culturally inclusive beliefs.

Tokar and Swanson (1991) conducted a study to examine the validity of Helms's (1984) model of White racial identity development among 308 White college students using the WRIAS (Helms & Carter, 1990). The participants completed the Personal Orientation Inventory (Shostrom, 1964) which measures an individual's degree of self-actualization or positive health. Helms (1984) noted the need to examine the counseling dyad, specifically, the racial identity brought to the interaction by each participant. The results of the study found that self-actualizing was significantly related to White students' racial identity attitudes in accordance with Helms's (1984) theory of White racial identity development. A secure appreciation and acceptance of oneself and others (autonomy) are associated with liberation from rigid adherence to social pressures and with a strong inner reliance (inner directedness). This research indicated that a better understanding of

oneself based on one's race has a positive relationship with positive White racial identity attitudes.

The notion that a better understanding of one's own racial identity can facilitate greater empathy and connection with individuals from different racial backgrounds aligns with the findings and implications of the study. By developing a stronger awareness and appreciation of one's own racial identity, individuals may become more open and receptive to understanding the experiences and perspectives of others, ultimately fostering improved cross-racial relationships and interactions. This concept is further supported by the research conducted by Pope-Davis et al. (1993) who examined the impact of racial differences on faculty-student relationships in a study involving 180 faculty members and 243 college students. Notably, their findings indicated that faculty members exhibited higher levels of pseudo-independent (internalization of Whiteness and capacity to recognize consequences of racism) and autonomous (bicultural or racially transcendent worldview) attitudes than students. Students had higher levels of contact (obliviousness to racial/cultural issues), disintegration (awareness of social implications of race), and reintegration (idealization of everything perceived to be White) attitudes.

In the study examining factors that influenced the results, various factors such as age, level of education, and gender were identified as potential influencers. These factors are important to consider as they can shape individuals' experiences and perspectives on racial identity. The implication drawn from this study is that it is crucial for White individuals to acknowledge and recognize the diversity within the majority group regarding racial identity. By understanding how these factors can impact one's level of

racial identity, counselors can obtain greater awareness and empathy towards the experiences of individuals from different racial backgrounds.

### **Racial Identity and Career/Job Satisfaction**

Racial identity refers to a “sense of group or collective identity based on one’s perception that he or she shares a common racial heritage with a particular racial/cultural group” (Helms, 1990, p. 3). It involves an individual’s response to personal, social, and environmental factors that Black individuals experience, ultimately shaping their psychological processes (Cross, 1971). Helms developed her people of color racial identity theory by building upon Cross’s racial identity framework. As a result, research consistently demonstrates that racial identity plays a significant role in shaping socio-cultural environments, including work environments, and ultimately impacts individual levels of career satisfaction.

Research has consistently shown that the cognitive and emotional meanings, physical attributes, and psycho-social experiences attributed to one’s race have a profound impact on how marginalized populations respond to their socio-cultural environments (Carter, 1984; Carter & Helms, 1987; Collins & Lightsey, 2001; Cross, 1985, 1987; Cross, Helms, 1993; Parham, 1993; Parham & Helms, 1981, 1985a, 1985b; Ponterotto & Wise, 1987). One’s cultural values or racial identity may also assist a person in overcoming these barriers within the workplace.

In solo-authored work (1994) and work with Piper (1994) and later with Cook (1999), Helms argues that vocational theory and research have been flawed because theorists have not attended to the impact of race. First, this is because racial (as distinguished from cultural) factors affect career development, second, because

socioracial contrasts between groups can provide meaningful information on the career development of particular groups, and third because interpreting an individual's behavior in the workplace without race-specific constructs hampers our understanding.

Building upon the recognition of the importance of race in career development, the influence of a person's racial identity on their career involvement becomes evident. A person's racial identity can exert an influence on their career involvement through self-perception, enabling them to gain a deeper understanding of the values associated with their racial group when interacting with others. Additionally, this awareness of racial identity can empower individuals to effectively portray and embody these values in a more favorable work environment or during interactions, enhancing their overall professional experiences (Cosby, 1999; Gainor & Lent, 1998; Helms, 1995; Pearson & Bieschke, 2001; Pillay, 2005). A person with a high level of racial identity is more likely to have the internal resources (e.g., socio-cognitive strategies) for contextualizing personal experiences about career goals. In addition to enhancing the strength and resilience needed to cope with the negative impact of racism, a healthy racial identity may also play ego-protective functions (Caldwell et al., 2004; Cross & Strauss, 1998; McAdoo, 1998). If a person with a healthy racial identity faces racism in a career domain, they may be better able to recognize and attribute racism while maintaining an overall sense of competence (Branscombe et al., 1999).

A healthy racial identity could help a person of color to engage effective career-related problem-solving behaviors to counter frustrations from programmatic, attitudinal, and environmental inequities (Caldwell et al., 2004; McAdoo, 1998). Sneva (2011) conducted a study on career decision-making self-efficacy, career maturity attitudes, and

racial identity attitudes of college students of color. They found that career decision-making self-efficacy and career maturity attitudes were related to participants' racial identity attitudes, and that participants' current racial identity status determined the valence of that relationship.

Hayles (2003) studied the relationship among racial identity, self-esteem, and job satisfaction among 790 Black women occupying low-, middle-, and top-level positions in Fortune 500 and 100 companies. They found greater satisfaction among individuals with more advanced racial identity attitudes (immersion/emersion and internalization) and self-esteem. They also found that less advanced racial identity attitudes (pre-encounter and encounter) were not related to job satisfaction and lower levels of self-esteem were not related to lower levels of job satisfaction. The relationship between racial identity and self-esteem emerged as a robust predictor of job satisfaction, surpassing the individual influence of any other variables considered in the study.

Burkard et al. (1999) conducted a study on White racial identity of counselor trainees (124) on working alliance formation in a same-racial and cross-racial vicarious counseling analogue. They found that, regardless of race of the client, disintegration and reintegration attitudes negatively affected working alliance ratings. Pseudo independent quasi-recognition of the sociopolitical implication of racial difference and attitudes of autonomy positively affected working alliance ratings.

In Brown's (2012) study examining the relationship between gender, racial identity, perceived racial climate, and job satisfaction among 100 African American faculty at PWIs, it was found that racial identity, gender, and perceived racial climate were factors that influenced job satisfaction. However, the individual racial status

assessed in the study did not significantly contribute to the variance in job satisfaction. The study utilized block-wise regression analysis in which gender, perceived racial climate, and four black racial identity statuses (pre-encounter, post-encounter, immersion/emersion, internalization) were the least significant.

The findings from Brown's (2012) study revealed that all three variables, including racial identity, gender, and perceived racial climate, contributed to the variance in job satisfaction. However, examining the specific Black racial identity subscales individually showed that they did not significantly contribute to the variance in job satisfaction.

In summary, research has consistently shown that racial identity plays a significant role in shaping socio-cultural environments, including work environments, and ultimately affects individual levels of career satisfaction. Racial identity is influenced by personal, social, and environmental factors, and individuals with a healthy racial identity are more likely to have the internal resources and self-perception necessary for contextualizing personal experiences about career goals. Understanding the impact of race in vocational theory and research is essential, as racial factors affect career development and socioracial contrasts provide meaningful insights into the career development of specific groups.

A person's racial identity can also contribute to job satisfaction by influencing self-esteem, working alliance formation, and perceptions of racial climate. However, while racial identity, gender, and perceived racial climate are significant factors in job satisfaction, specific Black racial identity subscales may not individually contribute to job satisfaction variance. These findings highlight the importance of considering racial

identity in understanding career involvement and satisfaction among individuals of diverse backgrounds.

### **Racial/Ethnic Identity**

Understanding the distinction between race and ethnicity and their historical context is crucial when studying racial identity. While race relates to physical characteristics, ethnicity encompasses shared cultural practices. Recognizing the historical use of these concepts is vital for comprehending how they shape our understanding of racial identity. By acknowledging the complexities of race and ethnicity, researchers can approach the study of racial identity more comprehensively. Casas (1984) defined ethnicity as the classification of individuals into groups based on their shared social and cultural heritage, which includes customs, language, and religion passed down from one generation to another. Racial identity refers to a “sense of group or collective identity based on one’s perception that he or she shares a common racial heritage with a particular racial/cultural group” (Helms, 1990, p.3). Helm (1990) asserts that it is possible for two individuals to belong to the same ethnic or racial group while simultaneously being identified as members of different racial or ethnic groups.

During the 1980s and 1990s, scholars made significant strides in the development of racial and ethnic identity models, aiming to create more inclusive frameworks. These models sought to capture the diverse experiences and complexities of individuals’ racial and ethnic identities. For example, Banks (1981) developed the stages of ethnicity model that was designed for people regardless of their ethnic group membership. Ford (1979) built a model on Banks’s model and developed a less refined instrument to assess levels of ethnicity in schoolteachers (Cardo, 1994).

Another model by Milliones (1980), the developmental inventory of Black consciousness, assessed Black adolescents' and adults' racial and ethnic identity attitudes. This assessment tool specifically focused on evaluating the racial and ethnic identity attitudes of Black adolescents and adults. By examining various dimensions of Black consciousness, such as awareness, pride, and commitment to the Black community, this model provided valuable insights into the developmental process of racial and ethnic identity among individuals of Black heritage. The developmental inventory of Black consciousness played a significant role in expanding the knowledge and understanding of racial and ethnic identity formation within the Black population, highlighting the unique experiences and perspectives that contribute to the development of a strong racial and ethnic identity.

### ***Whiteness as Property***

According to Harris (1993), the concept of Whiteness as property originates in “the parallel systems of domination of Black and Native American peoples out of which were created racially contingent forms of property and property rights” (Harris, 1993, p. 1709). The “assumptions, privileges, and benefits” related with identifying as White individuals view their own racial identification as a valuable asset, which they endeavor to safeguard. (Harris, 1993, p. 1713). Based on her grandmother’s story, she developed this theory, which highlighted that Whiteness was highly valued and considered a prized possession, while also acknowledging the social divisions that were created based on racial categories. The tenet of Whiteness as property reflects the concept of White privilege, emphasizing how being identified as White confers certain advantages and privileges in society. (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). Whiteness as property operates at



different levels: the right to possess it, the right to use and enjoy it, the right to dispose of it, and the right to exclude others from it. (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995).

### ***Interest Conversion***

According to Bell (1980), the achievements of the civil rights movement had a limited impact on African Americans. In fact, the landmark case of *Brown vs. Board of Education* resulted in adverse consequences such as job losses for African American teachers and administrators, school closures in communities of color, restricted access to educational curricula, and heightened admission criteria (Green, 2004). In line with this, the concept of interest conversion points out that oppressors never change unless it is in their best interest to do so (Capper, 2015). The early civil rights movements aimed to grant African Americans the basic rights and privileges that White individuals had enjoyed for centuries.

Additionally, due to the significant inequalities existing between privileged White individuals and most communities of color, advancements that align with the self-interests of the former are unlikely to have a meaningful impact on the lives of people of color. (Lynn et al., 2002). Unequal access to quality education, job opportunities, healthcare, and underrepresentation in positions of power contribute to ongoing social and economic inequalities.

### ***Critique of Liberalism***

Liberalism is based on the ideals of colorblindness, the neutrality of the law, and equal opportunity for all (DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). These seem like desirable goals. However, liberalism ignores the long history of racism in which rights and opportunities

have been limited based on race (DeCuir & Dixon, 2004). Thus, CRT criticizes liberalism and calls for equity, which recognizes that the playing field has never been level.

### **Conclusion of CRT Model**

Delgado and Stefancic (2001) defined CRT as a means to confront and eradicate discriminatory practices. This study examines how racial hierarchies relate to career satisfaction among counselors. CRT's five interconnected tenets shed light on how institutions perpetuate racism, and this study employs CRT as a guiding theoretical framework for the reviewed research.

### **Conceptual Framework**

In this study, the conceptual framework acknowledges the inherent influence of the investigator's experiences and personal history on the research process. As a person of color who has encountered racism throughout their life and career, the researcher's perspective is shaped by their attendance at a historically Black college and their current doctoral studies at a PWI. By recognizing the value and limitations of their own experiences, the researcher aims to frame the study in a comprehensive manner.

The conceptual framework also emphasizes the significance of viewing racial identity as a dynamic process, allowing individuals to grow and evolve beyond their present circumstances. According to Sue and Sue (2008), a strong racial identity can serve as a protective factor against the negative impacts of prejudice and discrimination, leading to enhanced psychological functioning among people of color. This study

investigates the potential relationship between racial identity and career satisfaction among counseling students during their internship and practicum.

Existing research suggests that racial identity development is influenced by various factors, and it can in turn affect career satisfaction (Helms & Piper, 1994; Hayles & Raskin, 2003). Additionally, the study incorporates three key tenets of CRT- permanence of racism, Whiteness as property, and interest conversion- to provide a framework for understanding racism in America. By employing the CRT framework, this study aims to be guided and informed by critical perspectives on race and racism.

### **Summary**

The literature review conducted in this study focuses on examining the relationship between racial identity and career satisfaction. CRT was identified as the appropriate theoretical framework, particularly in the context of the subordination experienced by people of color in American education. This recognition calls for the development of institutional programs aimed at promoting the retention and success of individuals from diverse racial backgrounds in the counseling field. Given the underrepresentation of people of color both in the counseling profession and in research on career satisfaction, this study seeks to address this gap and contribute to the existing body of knowledge in this area. Chapter III of the study will delve into the methodology, including study participants, data collection tools, and the chosen theoretical approach, which aligns with the framework reviewed in the literature, as well as the synthesis of findings from the literature review.

## CHAPTER III

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research method that will be used to answer the research questions for the study. Chapter III also outlines the sample, the instruments that will be used, procedures for collecting data, and the method for data analysis.

#### **Descriptive Analysis**

I completed a descriptive analysis of the sample that participated in the study. The data for the descriptive analysis included participants' gender, graduate level (master or doctoral), age, licenses, and areas of practice. Each tool used to collect data will be analyzed for validity and reliability.

#### **Research Questions**

1. How do clinical counseling students align with specific levels of racial identity by race?

A visual chart provides the breakdown of the number of respondents who participated in the study based on responses to the White, Black, and People of Color Racial Identity scales.

2. What is the relationship between clinical counseling students' level of racial identity development and career satisfaction?

To answer research question 2, the study will use a correlational analysis to explore whether or not the racial identity attitudes as measured by the Black Racial Identity Attitude Study (BRIAS, Helms, 2007), People of Color Racial Identity Attitude Scale (PRIAS, Helms, 1995b), and White Racial Identity Attitude Scale (WRIAS, Helms,

1990), subscales account for any of the variance in the Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS, Greenhaus et al.,1990) total score.

3. Is there a difference in the impact of racial identity on career satisfaction of clinical counseling students based on race?

A correlation analysis will be completed to address research question 3.

4. Does career decision-making self-efficacy act as a moderator between racial identity and career satisfaction for clinical counseling students?

To address research question 4, multiple linear regression analysis will be used to assess the strength of the relationship between the dependent variable, career satisfaction, and several predictor variables, the individual schemas of racial identity as well as the importance of each of the predictors to the relationship, often with the effect of other predictors statistically eliminated. This model involves multiplying the coefficients of two regressions together and then comparing the moderated effect of career decision-making self-efficacy.

### **Data Analyses**

For each question where multiple linear regression was used, we have analyzed the association between career satisfaction (dependent variable) and racial identity, career decision-making self-efficacy. BRIAS, PRIAS, and WRIAS were used to measure racial identity. The CSS scale was used to measure career satisfaction. The level of significance for all inferential questions in this study is  $p < .05$ . This p value was selected because standard levels of significance are measured at a value of .05 or lower.

All analyses will be conducted using IMB SPSS. Multiple linear regressions determined (using t-tools) whether a statistically significant relationship, association, or

correlation exists between the variables and the direction and the strength of the connection (Pearson's  $r$ ) in the data. The form of the relationship and the amount of variance that the prediction equation accounts for ( $r$ ) were also investigated. Finally, multiple linear regression provided partial regression coefficients in the form of standardized beta weights (range from -1 to +1) that the researcher uses to formulate multiple regression equations (for each model). The multiple regression has been interpreted as the amount of change that occurred in the outcome variable per unit of change in the predictor variable (Ejd et al., 1998).

### **Context of the Study**

#### ***Sample***

The current study is designed to explore the effects of racial identity and career decision-making self-efficacy on career satisfaction among internship and practicum counseling students. The sample for the study will be counseling students who are (a) currently enrolled in a master's or doctoral degree accredited and non-accredited program in the counseling and counselor education, and (b) completed practicum or internship in counseling.

The convenience sampling method was chosen to allow for recommendations of initial selected participants and referrals of acquaintance, which provided a significant representation of racial diverse counselors in training. The sample included people from all racial groups. Convenience sampling was employed in this study to identify individuals who meet the study criteria in a practical and accessible manner (Emerson, 2015). This sampling method allows for flexibility in participant selection, making it possible to include individuals who are readily available and willing to participate in the

research. However, it limits the generalizability of the findings to the population in general.

## **Data Collection Tools**

### ***Demographic Questionnaire***

The participants are enrolled in a master's and doctoral counselor education/counseling programs across United States (both non-accredited and accredited programs) who have completed one clinical experience course. Participants completed five instruments, all of which have been included in the appendices. The first was a demographic sheet asking about age, sex, ethnic/race background, and which course they completed; the remaining four, described below, are analyses of racial identity and career satisfaction.

### ***People of Color Racial Identity Attitude Scale***

PRIAS is 50-item self-report measure used to assess self-conceptions among people of color with respect to membership in their own racial group and how they react to White people. The PRIAS measures four racial identity schemes (conformity, dissonance, immersion/resistance, and internalizations) (Helms, 1995). The word "schemas" refers to different strategies for interpreting and responding to one's own understandings of race.

Helms's (1995) definition of people of color refers to people whose ancestry is in part African, Asian, Hispanic, Indigenous and/or combinations of these groups and/or White or European ancestry. PRIAS scale scores are calculated by summing the responses to each scale and then converting them into T-scores. The conformity subscale

assesses the level of lack of awareness of racial dynamics. The dissonance subscale assesses confusion and disorientation when a person becomes aware of racial dynamics. The immersion/resistance subscale assesses physical and psychological immersion into the individual's racial/ethnic group. The internalization subscale assesses integration of a person into their own racial group.

The PRIAS was used for both Asian American and African American populations. Studies have indicated acceptable reliability estimates for this instrument among these groups (Iwamoto & Liu, 2010; Tummaa-Narra et al., 2001). Reliability was assessed using Cronbach alpha as a measure of internal consistency, and temporal stabilities were measured. Alvarez and Helms's (2001) study found the following alpha reliability coefficients with an Asian American sample: 0.75 (conformity), 0.78 (dissonance), 0.83 (immersion-emersion), and 0.61 (internalization). Carter and Reynolds (2011) reported the following Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients with the sample of African Americans: 0.59 (conformity), 0.79 (dissonance), 0.82 (immersion-emersion), and 0.91 (internalization).

### ***White Racial Identity Attitude Scale***

WRIAS is a 60-item self-report measure used to assess self-conceptions of White individuals with respect to membership in their own racial group in contrast to how they react to people of other racial groups (Helms, 1995). It measures six White racial identity schemas (contact, disintegration, reintegration, pseudo-independence, immersion-emersion, and autonomy). WRIAS has six subscales, each of which has 10 items.

The six subscales and the variables they measure are as follows. Contact measures the lack of awareness of the social significance of race (Helms, 1995). Disintegration



measures confusion and ambivalence regarding the social significance of race (Helms, 1995). Reintegration measures active and passive endorsement of White supremacy (Helms, 1995). Pseudo independence measures initial intellectual acceptance of the social significance of race for self and others (Helms, 1995). Immersion/emersion measures the development of a positive White identity (Helms, 1995). Autonomy measures the development of an active nonracist identity and orientation (Helms, 1995). Response is based on a Likert scale of *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5).

Previous studies show the WRIAS has sufficient reliability and validity (Block, Roberson, & Neuger, 1995; Carter, 1990; Helms & Carter, 1990; Pope-Davis & Ottavi, 1994; Tokar & Swanson, 1991). Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the subscale's ranges have been 0.55 to 0.82 (Helms, 1990), 0.61 to 0.84 (Tokar & Swanson, 1991), and 0.53 to 0.78 (Carter et al., 2004).

### ***Career Satisfaction Scale***

CSS assesses an individual's level of career satisfaction by considering their perception of progress towards their career-related goals, such as income, advancement, and personal development, as well as their overall sense of achievement in their career (Greenhaus et al., 1990). The CSS responses are provided using a 5-point Likert scale (1- strongly disagree to 5- strongly agree). CSS consists of five items.

The CSS has demonstrated strong reliability:  $\alpha = .90$  (Spurk et al., 2015),  $\alpha = .88$  (Greenhaus et al., 1990),  $\alpha = .83$  (Abele & Spurk, 2009), and  $\alpha = .83$  (Seibert et al., 1999). A study by Spurk et al. (2011) found that how individuals define career satisfaction is relatively stable over time, suggesting that the CSS is a valid representation of the construct of career satisfaction.

### ***Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale***

The BRIAS (Helms & Parham, 1996) is a 60- item instrument developed to align with Cross's nigrescence model of Black self-identification. BRIAS has five schemas: pre-encounter, post-encounter, immersion, emersion, and internalization. The first schema assesses pro-American identity, capturing an individual's sense of identification and affinity towards America as a nation. The second schema focuses on the effects of attitudes, behaviors, and emotions that emerge in response to personal racial events, providing insight into how individuals experience and process racial encounters on a personal level. Lastly, the third schema explores attitudes and perspectives originating from White individuals and the broader White culture, shedding light on the influence of Whiteness and its impact on racial dynamics and social interactions. Emersion assesses positive emotional and social bonding to Blacks (Helms, 1990); internalization assesses Black self-acceptance and the acceptance of other cultural groups (Helms, 1990). The BRIAS items are answered on a 5- point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Internal consistencies for BRIAS subscales in previous studies (Helms, 1990; Helms & Parham, 1996) ranged from 0.50 for encounter to 0.79 for internalization. More recent studies reported internal consistency estimates as follows: 0.60-0.83 pre-encounter, 0.53-0.71 post-encounter, 0.71-0.83 immersion-emersion, and 0.66-0.76 internalization (Carter et al., 2008; Forsyth & Carter, 2014).

### ***Career Decision Self-Efficacy Scale – Short Form***

Betz et al.'s (1996) Career Decision Self-Efficacy Scale – Short Form (CDSE-SF) Scale was, in part, developed utilizing the characteristics of Bandura's (1986) theory of

self-efficacy. It is one of the most frequently used self-efficacy measures in vocational research and practice (Subich, 2005). Career decision-making self-efficacy is an individual's belief that they can complete the necessary tasks associated with making career decisions. CDSE-SF is used as a measure of self-efficacy expectations for completing tasks needed to make positive career decisions (Paulsen & Betz, 2004; Taylor & Betz, 1983).

The CDSE-SF consists of five 5-item scales for a total of 25 items, with responses obtained using a 5-level confidence continuum, ranging from no confidence at all (1) to complete confidence (5) (Betz et al., 2005; Betz et al., 1996). The CDSE-SF asked participants to respond to each item and their level of confidence in completing each item. Two sample items included on the CDSE-SF are: "Persistently work at your major career goal even when you get frustrated," and "Select one occupation from a list of potential occupations you are considering."

The CSDE-SF has been reported to be highly reliable. The internal consistency reliability of the instrument ranged from .73 (self-appraisal subscale) to .83 (goal selection subscale) and .94 for total score for the 25 items (Betz et al., 1996). Luzzo (1993) reported a .83 test-retest reliability for the full scale. In addition, there is extensive evidence for the validity of the CDSE-SF (Robbins, 1985; Talyor & Popma, 1990). Betz, Hammond, and Multon (2005) found that the CDSE-SF 5-level response continuum provides a valid and reliable measurement, with alphas ranging from .78 to .87.

### **Data Collection Procedure**

*Data Collection:* Data was obtained through an electronic survey tool called Qualtrics that was emailed to participants after they provided informed consent.

Participants completed a demographic questionnaire to determine which type of racial assessment they should complete; BRIAS was used for participants identifying as Black, PRIAS for people who identify as people of color and WRIAS for White people. All participants completed the CSS and the CDSE-SF.

### **Summary**

The current study used a sample of master's and doctoral counselor students enrolled in counselor education programs in the United States who have completed a clinical experience course. Descriptive analysis will address the demographic data (age, major, work environment, etc.) collected. Assessments of racial identity, career decision-making self-efficacy, and career satisfaction will be tested for reliability and validity. Multiple linear regression was used to examine the relationships between racial identity and career satisfaction.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

This chapter aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the data collection and analysis procedures employed in this study. The data for this research was collected using online survey questionnaires administered to participants. The survey included several components, including a demographic questionnaire, the People of Color Racial Identity Attitude Scale (PRIAS, Helms, 1995b), the White Racial Identity Attitude Scale (WRIAS, Helms, 1990) the Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS, Greenhaus et al., 1990), the Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale (BRIAS, Helms, 2007), and the Career Decision Self-Efficacy Scale – Short Form (CDSE-SF, Betz et al., 1996). These measures were chosen to gather information on various aspects related to participants' racial identity attitudes and career-related experiences.

In the current study, four research questions were presented as follows:

1. How do clinical counseling students align with specific levels of racial identity by race?
2. What is the relationship between clinical counseling students' level of racial identity development and career satisfaction?
3. Is there a difference in the impact of racial identity on career satisfaction of clinical counseling students based on race?
4. Does career decision-making self-efficacy act as a moderator between racial identity and career satisfaction for clinical counseling students?

The following statistical analyses were conducted to answer the four questions.

First, a visual chart was used to provide the breakdown of the number of respondents who

participated in the study based on responses to the White, Black, People of Color Racial Identity scales. Second, a multiple linear regression analysis was employed as the first phase of analysis to explore whether or not the racial identity attitudes as measured by the BRIAS, PRIAS, and WRIAS subscales accounted for any of the variance in the CSS total score. Third, a correlation analysis was completed to see if any relationship exists between the following two variables: Racial Identity and Career Satisfaction. Fourth, multiple linear regression analysis was used to assess the strength of the relationship between an outcome (the dependent variable: career satisfaction) and several predictor variables (racial identity [individual schemas]) as well as the importance of each of the predictors to the relationship, often with the effect of statistically eliminating other predictors. This model involves multiplying the coefficients of two regressions together and then comparing the moderated effect of career decision-making self-efficacy.

This chapter is organized into four sections that provide a detailed account of the data collection and analysis process. The first section focuses on the data collection procedure, outlining how survey responses were obtained from participants. The second section delves into the demographics of the study's participants, presenting an overview of their characteristics. The third section presents a comprehensive summary of the analysis results derived from the collected data. The final section offers a concise summary of the entire chapter, highlighting the key findings and insights obtained from the data analysis.

### **Survey Response Rate**

A convenience sample comprising 219 participants was utilized for this study. Out of these participants, 108 completed the surveys, while 101 surveys remained incomplete.

To ensure sufficient statistical power for the planned regression analysis, G\*Power analysis software recommended a minimum sample size of 107. Therefore, the current sample of 108 participants was deemed adequate for the intended analysis.

**Sample**

A total of 219 students participated in the surveys. However, 101 students were either missing questionnaire data, not currently enrolled, or had completed a practicum or internship. Hence, the final sample for analysis comprised 108 students, who were classified based on their status as master’s (83%) or doctoral (14%) students and whether they were currently enrolled or had completed a practicum (100%) or internship.

Invitation emails were distributed to more than 311 counselor and counselor education programs, including both CACREP-accredited and non-CACREP-accredited institutions.

Additionally, a research participant request message was posted on the Counselor Education and Supervision NETWORK Listserv (CESNET-L), and a request was sent to the Pro-counseling-prog@groups.txstate.edu listserv in Texas.

**Table 4.1**

*What is the current graduate level in which you are enrolled?*

Graduate Level	<i>N</i>	%
Master	87	80.6%
Doctoral	21	19.4%
Grand Total	108	

**Sample Demographic Information**

This study sample consisted of 108 participants. The data presented in Table 4.2 indicates the gender identification of the participants. Among the respondents, 83.3%

identified as women, 13.9% identified as men, and 2.8% identified as non-binary or non-conforming. Table 4.3 provides information about the highest degree completed by the participants. The data shows that 66.7% of respondents completed a bachelor’s degree, 31.5% completed a master’s degree, and 1.9% completed a doctoral degree. Table 4.4 displays the participants’ self-identification in terms of racial or ethnic background. The data reveals that 18.5% identified as Black, 17.6% identified as people of color, and 63.9% identified as White. Table 4.5 presents the age distribution of the participants. The data indicates that 58.3% of respondents were between the ages of 22 and 30, 27.8% were between 31 and 40, 9.3% were between 41 and 50, and 3.7% were between 51 and 54.

**Table 4.2**

*Gender Identification*

	<i>N</i>	%
Woman	90	83.3%
Man	15	13.9%
Non-binary/non-conforming	3	2.8%

**Table 4.3**

*What is the Highest Degree Completed*

	<i>N</i>	%
Bachelor	72	66.7%
Master	34	31.5%
Doctoral	2	1.9%



**Table 4.4***How Do You Identify?*

	<i>N</i>	%
Black	20	18.5%
People of Color	19	17.6%
White	69	63.9%

**Table 4.5***Age*

	<i>N</i>	%
22-30	63	58.3%
31-40	30	27.8%
41-50	10	9.3%
51-54	4	3.7%

**Reliability Analysis**

In this study, a reliability analysis was performed to evaluate the internal consistency of the scales employed. To accomplish this, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was utilized as a widely used measure of internal consistency. This analysis provides valuable insights into the reliability and consistency of the scales used in the study.

**Career Decision Making Self-Efficacy- Short Form**

The "Case Processing Summary" (Table 4.6) section provides information about the processing of cases in the analysis for the Career Decision Self-Efficacy Scale – Short Form (CDSE-SF). All 108 cases (100.0%) included in the analysis were considered valid, meaning they had complete data on all variables. No cases were excluded based on listwise deletion, indicating that the full set of cases was utilized in the analysis.

In the “Reliability Statistics” (Table 4.7) section, the internal consistency reliability of the measurement scale was assessed using Cronbach’s alpha coefficient. The calculated value of .818 suggests a good level of internal consistency for the CDSE-SF scale. With five items comprising the scale, this alpha coefficient indicates that these items consistently measure the same underlying construct of career decision self-efficacy.

To summarize, all cases with complete data were included in the analysis for the CDSE-SF. The reliability analysis demonstrates a good level of internal consistency, indicating that the items comprising the scale reliably measure the construct of career decision self-efficacy.

**Table 4.6**

*Case Processing Summary*

		<i>N</i>	%
Cases	Valid	108	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	108	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Table 4.7**

*Reliability Statistics*

Cronbach's Alpha	<i>N</i> of Items
.818	5

**Career Satisfaction**

The data presented in the “Case Processing Summary” (Table 4.8) section pertains to the analysis of the Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS). It reveals that all 108 cases (100.0%) were deemed valid and included in the analysis, with no cases excluded due to

listwise deletion. This indicates that complete data on all variables used in the analysis were available for all cases.

The “Reliability Statistics” (Table 4.9) section provides insights into the reliability analysis results. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was utilized to assess the internal consistency reliability of the CSS. The obtained value of .930 for Cronbach’s alpha indicates a high level of internal consistency within the scale. With five items comprising the scale, the alpha coefficient of .930 suggests that these items consistently measure the same underlying construct. This signifies that the scale is reliable for capturing and evaluating the intended concept of career satisfaction.

In summary, the provided data demonstrates that all cases were valid and included in the analysis for the CSS. Moreover, the reliability analysis highlights a strong level of internal consistency for the scale, reinforcing its reliability in measuring career satisfaction.

**Table 4.8**

*Case Processing Summary*

		<i>N</i>	%
Cases	Valid	108	100.0
	Excluded <sup>a</sup>	0	.0
	Total	108	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

**Table 4.9**

*Reliability Statistics*

Cronbach’s Alpha	<i>N</i> of Items
.930	5

### **Descriptive Statistics of Dependent and Independent Variables**

Table 4.4 presents descriptive statistics for multiple variables in the study. Each variable has a sample size ( $N$ ) and provides information on the minimum and maximum values, mean, and standard deviation. Notably, BRIAS ( $N=20$ ), PRIAS ( $N=19$  except Conformity has  $N=18$ ), WRIAS ( $N=68$  except autonomy has  $N=67$ ), except for CDSE-SF and CSS which have a sample size of 108.

For all the variables listed, the minimum and maximum values, as well as the mean and standard deviation, are identical, with a value of 50.0000 and 10.00000, respectively. This suggests that the data distribution for each variable is centered around the mean value, with a consistent dispersion as indicated by the standard deviation.

It is important to note that there is a “Valid  $N$  (listwise)” entry of 0, indicating that there are no valid cases in the dataset for further analysis. This is due to participants only responding to one racial identity scale based on how they identify.

In summary, the descriptive statistics provide an overview of the variables’ distribution in the study, indicating that the mean and standard deviation are consistent across the variables.

### **Research Question 1**

*How do clinical counseling students align with specific levels of racial identity by race?*

The chart provided summarizes the quartile percentage rankings for the five variables of BRIAS: pre-encounter, post-encounter, immersion, emersion, and internalization. It indicates that there are 20 respondents out of 108 respondents for each variable, suggesting that data is available for analysis.

Table 4.10 has the distribution of rankings for BRIAS for participants who self-identified as Black. The 25th percentile represents the lower end of the rankings, with pre-encounter, post-encounter, immersion, and internalization all having a similar value of 5.375. The median, or 50th percentile, reflects the middle ranking, with pre-encounter having a median of 10.000, post-encounter 11.500, immersion 10.750, emersion 11.000, and internalization 10.750. The 75th percentile represents the higher end of the rankings, with values of 15.500 for pre-encounter, 15.000 for post-encounter, 16.000 for immersion, 16.500 for emersion, and 15.500 for internalization.

These percentiles provide valuable insights into the distribution of rankings within each variable, offering a sense of the range and central tendencies of the data.

**Table 4.10**

*BRIAS Quartile Percentages*

		Rank of BRIAS Pre-Encounter	Rank of BRIAS Post-Encounter	Rank of BRIAS Immersion	Rank of BRIAS Emersion	Rank of BRIAS Internalization
<i>N</i>	Valid	20	20	20	20	20
	Missing	88	88	88	88	88
Percentiles	25	5.37500	5.37500	5.37500	4.87500	5.50000
	50	10.00000	11.50000	10.75000	11.00000	10.75000
	75	15.50000	15.00000	16.00000	16.50000	15.50000

The following Table 4.11 is a summary of the quartile percentage the rankings for PRIAS: conformity, immersion/resistance, internalization, and dissonance. The number of valid cases varies, with 18 valid cases for conformity and 19 valid cases for immersion/resistance, internalization, and dissonance, indicating the availability of data for these cases. However, there are also missing cases, with 90 missing cases for

conformity and 89 missing cases for the other three variables, suggesting that some data is missing or not provided for these cases.

Examining the percentiles, we find that conformity has a 25th percentile ranking of 4.500, a median (50th percentile) ranking of 9.000, and a 75th percentile ranking of 14.250. Immersion/resistance has a 25th percentile ranking of 5.000, a median ranking of 9.500, and a 75th percentile ranking of 15.500. Internalization has a 25th percentile ranking of 4.500, a median ranking of 10.000, and a 75th percentile ranking of 15.500. Dissonance has a 25th percentile ranking of 5.000, a median ranking of 10.000, and a 75th percentile ranking of 16.000.

**Table 4.11**

*PRIAS Quartile Percentages*

		Rank of PRIAS Conformity	Rank of PRIAS Immersion/Resistance	Rank of PRIAS Internalization	Rank of PRIAS Dissonance
<i>N</i>	Valid	18	19	19	19
	Missing	90	89	89	89
Percentiles	25	4.50000	5.00000	4.50000	5.00000
	50	9.00000	9.50000	10.00000	10.00000
	75	14.25000	15.50000	15.50000	16.00000

Table 4.12 lists the percentiles for WRIAS for self-identified White participants: contact, disintegration, reintegration, pseudo-independence, immersion/emersion, and autonomy. The data includes 68 valid cases for contact, disintegration, reintegration, pseudo-independence, and immersion/emersion, indicating the availability of data for these variables. However, there is one missing case for autonomy, resulting in 67 valid cases for this variable. Additionally, 40 participants out of 108 completed each variable, indicating the absence of data for those cases.

By analyzing the percentiles, we find the rankings for each variable. Contact has a 25th percentile rank of 17.500, a median rank of 32.500, and a 75th percentile rank of 50.000. Disintegration has a 25th percentile rank of 20.500, a median rank of 34.000, and a 75th percentile rank of 53.000. Reintegration has a 25th percentile rank of 17.500, a median rank of 39.000, and a 75th percentile rank of 51.500. Pseudo-independence has a 25th percentile rank of 16.000, a median rank of 31.500, and a 75th percentile rank of 46.000. Immersion/emersion has a 25th percentile rank of 17.000, a median rank of 35.750, and a 75th percentile rank of 52.000. Autonomy has a 25th percentile rank of 14.000, a median rank of 35.000, and a 75th percentile rank of 50.500.

**Table 4.12**

*WRIAS Quartile Percentages*

		Rank of WRIAS Contact	Rank of WRIAS Disintegration	Rank of WRIAS Reintegration	Rank of WRIAS Pseudo- Independence	Rank of WRIAS Immersion/ Emersion	Rank of WRIAS Autonomy
<i>N</i>	Valid	68	68	68	68	68	67
	Missing	40	40	40	40	40	41
Percentiles	25	17.50000	20.50000	17.50000	16.00000	17.00000	14.00000
	50	32.50000	34.00000	39.00000	31.50000	35.75000	35.00000
	75	50.00000	53.00000	51.50000	46.00000	52.00000	50.50000

**Research Question 2**

*What is the relationship between clinical counseling students' level of racial identity development and career satisfaction?*

At the 0.05 level of significance (with a 2-tailed test), there are notable correlations observed between two PRIAS schema: immersion/resistance and career satisfaction (Table 4.13). These variables show a negative correlation of  $-.560^*$  ( $p < .05$ ). This suggests that there is a relationship between these variables that is unlikely to have

occurred by chance. The term “significant” here implies that the correlation is statistically meaningful and not just a random occurrence in the data.



**Table 4.13**

*Correlations*

		BRIAS	BRIAS	BRIAS	BRIAS	BRIAS	PRIAS	PRIAS	PRIAS	WRIAS	WRIAS	WRIAS	WRIAS	WRIAS	PRIAS	CSS	
		Pre-Encounter	Post-Encounter	Immersion	Emersion	Internalization	Conformity	Immersion/Resistance	Internalization	Contact	Disintegration	Reintegration	Pseudo-Independence	Immersion/Emersion	Autonomy	Dissonance	
BRIAS	Pearson Correlation	1	.730**	-.087	-.370	-.374	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.096
Pre-Encounter	Sig. (2-tailed)		<.001	.714	.109	.105	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.687
	N	20	20	20	20	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20
BRIAS	Pearson Correlation	.730**	1	-.124	-.529*	-.546*	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.012
Post-Encounter	Sig. (2-tailed)			.602	.016	.013	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.959
	N	20	20	20	20	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20
BRIAS	Pearson Correlation	-.087	-.124	1	.569**	.270	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.219
Immersion	Sig. (2-tailed)				.009	.250	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.354
	N	20	20	20	20	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20
BRIAS	Pearson Correlation	-.370	-.529*	.569**	1	.258	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	-.043
Emersion	Sig. (2-tailed)					.009	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.858
	N	20	20	20	20	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20
BRIAS	Pearson Correlation	-.374	-.546*	.270	.258	1	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.218
Internalization	Sig. (2-tailed)						.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.355
	N	20	20	20	20	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20
PRIAS	Pearson Correlation	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	1	.011	.077	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	-.184
Conformity	Sig. (2-tailed)							.966	.763	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.632
	N	0	0	0	0	0	18	18	18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18
PRIAS	Pearson Correlation	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.011	1	-.112	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.127
Immersion/Resistance	Sig. (2-tailed)								.966	.647	.	.	.	.	.	.	.604
	N	0	0	0	0	0	18	19	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	19
PRIAS	Pearson Correlation	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.077	-.112	1	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	-.348
Internalization	Sig. (2-tailed)							.763	.647	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.144
	N	0	0	0	0	0	18	19	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	19
WRIAS	Pearson Correlation	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	1	.211	.327**	.514**	-.303*	-.085	.b	.025
Contact	Sig. (2-tailed)										.084	.007	<.001	.012	.492	.	.841
	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	68	68	68	68	68	67	0	68
WRIAS	Pearson Correlation	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.211	1	.479**	.216	.009	-.319**	.b	.072
Disintegration	Sig. (2-tailed)									.084		<.001	.077	.942	.009	.	.559
	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	68	68	68	68	68	67	0	68
WRIAS	Pearson Correlation	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.327**	.479**	1	.163	-.378**	-.287*	.b	-.058
Reintegration	Sig. (2-tailed)									.007	<.001		.185	.001	.019	.	.640
	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	68	68	68	68	68	67	0	68
WRIAS	Pearson Correlation	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.514**	.216	.163	1	-.078	.038	.b	.058
Pseudo-Independence	Sig. (2-tailed)									<.001	.077	.185		.526	.759	.	.640
	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	68	68	68	68	68	67	0	68
WRIAS	Pearson Correlation	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	-.303*	.009	-.378**	-.078	1	.166	.b	.169
Immersion/Emersion	Sig. (2-tailed)									.012	.942	.001	.526		.179	.	.168
	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	68	68	68	68	68	67	0	68
WRIAS	Pearson Correlation	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	-.085	-.319**	-.287*	.038	.166	1	.b	-.146
Autonomy	Sig. (2-tailed)									.492	.009	.019	.759	.179		.	.240
	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	67	67	67	67	67	67	0	67
PRIAS	Pearson Correlation	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	-.184	.127	-.348	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	.b	1	.056
Dissonance	Sig. (2-tailed)						.464	.604	.144	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.820
	N	0	0	0	0	0	18	19	19	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	
CSS	Pearson Correlation	.096	.012	.219	-.043	.218	-.121	-.560*	.256	.025	.072	-.058	.058	.169	-.146	.056	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)								.632	.013	.290	.841	.559	.640	.640	.168	.820
	N	20	20	20	20	20	18	19	19	68	68	68	68	68	67	19	108

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).  
 \* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).  
 b. Cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant.

### **Research Question 3**

*Is there a difference in the impact of racial identity on career satisfaction of clinical counseling students based on race?*

To explore Research Question 3, an ANOVA was run to see if there was any difference between racial identity and career satisfaction. The data in Table 4.13 presents descriptives for the variable “Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS)” based on the self-identified race of participants: Black, people of color, and White. Here is an interpretation of the data:

For Black participants ( $N = 20$ ), the mean score for CSS is 50.3022, with a standard deviation of 11.95997. The 95% confidence interval suggests that the true population mean falls between 44.7048 and 55.8997. The minimum and maximum scores for this group are 21.88 and 65.98, respectively.

For people of color participants ( $N = 19$ ), the mean score for CSS is 50.7664, with a standard deviation of 9.85330. The 95% confidence interval indicates that the true population mean falls between 46.0173 and 55.5156. The minimum and maximum scores for this group are 19.43 and 65.98, respectively.

For White participants ( $N = 69$ ), the mean score for CSS is 49.7013, with a standard deviation of 9.56057. The 95% confidence interval suggests that the true population mean falls between 47.4047 and 51.9980. The minimum and maximum scores for this group are 19.43 and 65.98, respectively.

The analysis of homogeneity of variances indicates that there is no significant difference in variances across the three identity groups (Black, people of color, and

White). The  $p$ -values for all tests of homogeneity of variances are above the conventional threshold of 0.05, indicating no significant difference.

The ANOVA results show that there is no significant difference in the means of CSS scores between the three identity groups. The  $p$ -value for the between-groups  $F$ -test is 0.910, which is greater than the conventional threshold of 0.05, suggesting no significant effect.

The multiple comparisons using the Bonferroni method also indicate that there are no significant differences in mean scores between any of the identity groups. The  $p$ -values for all comparisons are above 0.05, indicating no significant differences between the groups.

In summary, based on the provided data, there is no evidence to suggest that there are significant differences in the CSS scores between Black, people of color, and White individuals.

#### **Research Question 4**

*Does career decision-making self-efficacy act as a moderator between racial identity and career satisfaction for clinical counseling students?*

#### ***WRIS Contact***

In the model examining the relationship between WRIS Contact and CSS, the findings indicate that WRIS Contact does not have a significant direct effect on CSS. The  $R$ -squared value, as well as the model as a whole, suggests that WRIS Contact accounts for 13.96% of the variance in CSS. However, CDSE-SF does have a significant positive direct effect on CSS, indicating that higher levels of CDSE-SF are associated

with higher levels of CSS. The interaction term, Int\_1, does not show a significant effect on CSS. Therefore, the model suggests that CDSE-SF, rather than WRIAS Contact, is a significant factor in explaining CSS in the sample of 68 participants.

**Table 4.14**

*WRIS Contact Model Summary*

<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	MSE	<i>F</i>	df1	df2	<i>p</i>
.3737	.1396	83.5570	3.4618	3.000	64.000	.0213
Model	coeff	se	T	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	49.7385	1.1140	44.6473	.0000	47.5130	51.9641
Contact	.0069	.1234	.0558	.9557	-.2396	.2534
CDSE-SF	.3765	.1179	3.1935	.0022	.1410	.6120
Int 1	-.0044	.0117	-.3749	.7090	-.0277	.0190

Outcome Variable: CSS

Sample Size: 68

**WRIS Disintegration**

The results from the model examining the relationship between WRIAS Disintegration and CSS suggest that WRIAS Disintegration does not have a significant direct effect on CSS. However, CDSE-SF demonstrates a significant positive direct effect on CSS, indicating that higher levels of CDSE-SF are associated with higher levels of CSS. The R-squared value of 0.1901 indicates that the predictor variables and the model as a whole explain 19.01% of the variance in CSS. The interaction term, Int\_1, does not have a significant effect on SCS. These findings highlight the importance of CDSE-SF in explaining CSS, while WRIAS Disintegration does not appear to play a significant role in this relationship.

**Table 4.12***WRIAS Disintegration Model Summary*

<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	MSE	<i>F</i>	df1	df2	<i>p</i>
.4360	.1901	78.6578	5.0061	3.000	64.000	.0035
Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	49.3294	1.1228	43.9347	.0000	47.0863	51.5724
Disintegration	.5451	.3036	1.7954	.0773	-.0614	1.1515
CDSE-SF	.3978	.1233	3.2254	.0020	.1514	.6442
Int 1	-.0354	.0130	-1.1403	.2584	-.0974	.0266

Outcome Variable: CSS

Sample Size: 68

**WRIS Pseudo-Independence**

The model examined the relationship between CSS (outcome variable), WRIAS Pseudo-Independence (predictor variable), and CDSE-SF (control variable), including the interaction term Int\_1. The analysis was conducted on a sample of 68 participants.

The model summary indicates that the predictors account for 15.19% of the variance in CSS, with an *R*-squared value of 0.1519. The overall model shows statistical significance, as evidenced by the significant *F*-test ( $p = 0.0139$ ), suggesting the model's effectiveness in predicting CSS.

Upon examining the individual coefficients, the constant term is 49.7718, representing the estimated mean value of CSS when all predictors are zero. WRIAS Pseudo-Independence has a coefficient of 0.0920, which is not statistically significant ( $p = 0.4687$ ), indicating that it does not have a significant direct effect on CSS. On the other hand, CDSE-SF has a coefficient of 0.3692, which is statistically significant ( $p = 0.0024$ ), indicating a positive direct effect on CSS. Higher levels of CDSE-SF are associated with higher values of CSS. However, the interaction term Int\_1 has a coefficient of -0.0122,

which is not statistically significant ( $p = 0.3222$ ), suggesting no significant interaction effect between WRIAS Pseudo-Independence and CDSE-SF.

Further analysis of the highest order unconditional interaction ( $X*W$ ) indicates that it does not contribute significantly to the model, as the R-squared change is minimal (0.0132) and the associated  $F$ -test is not statistically significant ( $p = 0.3222$ ).

It is worth noting that prior to the analysis, the variables CDSE-SF and WRIAS Pseudo-Independence were mean-centered.

In summary, the results suggest that CDSE-SF has a significant direct effect on CSS, while WRIAS Pseudo-Independence and the interaction between WRIAS Pseudo-Independence and CDSE-SF do not significantly contribute to the prediction of CSS.

**Table 4.15**

*WRIAS Pseudo-Independence Model Summary*

<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	MSE	<i>F</i>	df1	df2	<i>p</i>
.3897	.1519	82.3662	3.8202	3.000	64.0000	.0139
Model	Coeff	se	T	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	49.7718	1.1031	45.1187	.0000	47.5680	51.9756
WRIAS Pseudo-Independence	.0920	.1262	.7290	.4687	-.1601	.3440
CDSE-SF	.3692	.1168	3.1621	.0024	.1359	.6024
Int 1	-.0122	.0122	-.9976	.3222	-.0367	.0122

Outcome Variable: CSS

Sample Size: 68

***WRIAS Immersion/Emersion***

Below are the findings from the model examining the relationship between CSS (outcome variable), WRIAS Immersion/Emersion (predictor variable), and CDSE-SF (control variable), including the interaction term Int\_1. The sample consisted of 68 participants.

The model summary indicates that the predictors explain 20.51% of the variance in CSS, as denoted by an *R*-squared value of 0.2051. The *F*-test for the overall model is statistically significant ( $p = 0.0020$ ), indicating that the model is effective in predicting CSS.

Examining the individual coefficients, the constant term is 49.5779, representing the estimated mean value of CSS when all predictors are zero. WRIAS immersion/emersion has a coefficient of 0.2679, which is statistically significant ( $p = 0.0235$ ), suggesting a positive direct effect on CSS. Higher levels of WRIAS immersion/emersion are associated with higher values of CSS. Similarly, CDSE-SF has a statistically significant coefficient of 0.4367 ( $p = 0.0004$ ), indicating a positive direct effect on CSS. Higher levels of CDSE-SF are associated with higher values of CSS. However, the interaction term Int\_1 has a coefficient of -0.0060, which is not statistically significant ( $p = 0.6135$ ), suggesting no significant interaction effect between WRIAS immersion/emersion and CDSE-SF.

Further analysis of the highest order unconditional interaction ( $X*W$ ) indicates that it does not contribute significantly to the model. The *R*-squared change is small (0.0032), and the associated *F*-test is not statistically significant ( $p = 0.6135$ ).

It is important to note that prior to the analysis, the variables CDSE-SF and WRIAS immersion/emersion were mean-centered.

In summary, the results suggest that WRIAS immersion/emersion and CDSE-SF have significant direct effects on CSS. Higher levels of both variables are associated with higher values of CSS. However, the interaction between WRIAS immersion/emersion and CDSE-SF does not significantly contribute to the prediction of CSS.

**Table 4.16**

*WRIAS Immersion/Emersion Model Summary*

<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	MSE	<i>F</i>	df1	df2	<i>p</i>
.4528	.2051	77.2006	5.5033	3.000	64.00	.0020
Model	coeff	se	T	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	49.5779	1.0910	45.4413	.0000	47.3983	51.7575
WRIAS Immersion/Em	.2649	.1154	2.3213	.0235	.0373	.4985
CDSE-SF	.4367	.1159	3.7672	.0004	.2051	.6683
Int_1	-.0060	.0118	-.5075	.6135	-.0295	.0175

Outcome Variable: CSS

Sample Size: 68

**WRIAS Autonomy**

A multiple linear regression was completed to assess the relationship between CSS (outcome variable), WRIAS Autonomy (predictor variable), and CDSE-SF (control variable), including the interaction term Int\_1. The model accounted for 15.50% of the variance in CSS, as indicated by the *R*-squared value of 0.1550. The overall model was statistically significant ( $p = 0.0135$ ), suggesting its effectiveness in predicting CSS.

Individual coefficients revealed that WRIAS Autonomy was not statistically significant ( $p = 0.3673$ ), implying no significant direct effect on CSS. Conversely, CDSE-SF had a statistically significant coefficient ( $p = 0.0025$ ), indicating a positive direct effect on CSS. Higher levels of CDSE-SF were associated with higher values of CSS.



The interaction term Int\_1 was not statistically significant ( $p = 0.4161$ ), suggesting no significant interaction effect between WRIAS Autonomy and CDSE-SF.

Analysis of the highest order unconditional interaction ( $X*W$ ) showed no significant contribution to the model, as indicated by a small  $R$ -squared change and a non-significant  $F$ -test ( $p = 0.4161$ ).

It is important to note that prior to analysis, the variables CDSE-SF and WRIAS Autonomy were mean-centered.

In conclusion, the findings suggest that CDSE-SF has a significant direct effect on CSS, while WRIAS Autonomy and the interaction between WRIAS Autonomy and CDSE-SF do not significantly contribute to the prediction of CSS.

**Table 4.17**

*WRIAS Autonomy*

$R$	$R^2$	MSE	$F$	df1	df2	$p$
Model	coeff	Se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.3937	.1550	83.3588	3.8510	3.000	63.0000	.0135
constant	49.5804	1.1266	44.0101	.0000	47.3292	51.8317
WRIAS Autonomy	-.1046	.1152	-.9080	.3673	-.3347	.1256
CDSE-SF	.3805	.1208	3.1487	.0025	.1390	.6219
Int_1	-.0092	.0112	-.8186	.4161	-.0316	.0132

Outcome Variable: CSS

Sample Size: 67

## **CHAPTER V**

### **DISCUSSION**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between racial identity and career satisfaction among master's and doctoral counseling students, with a specific focus on career decision-making self-efficacy as a moderator variable. The topic is significant due to its unique and growing nature, drawing attention from professionals, service providers, and the community of people of color who are being counseled. The current chapter presents a comprehensive summary of the key research findings at the outset. Additionally, these findings are thoroughly examined and compared to previous studies, providing valuable insights into the field. The chapter also addresses any limitations encountered during the research process and discusses their potential implications. Furthermore, the implications of the research findings for practice and training are explored. Finally, recommendations for future research directions in this area are outlined, highlighting opportunities for further exploration and advancement of knowledge.

#### **Research Findings**

The study includes participants from various universities across the United States who were enrolled in a master's or doctoral program and had completed or were currently enrolled in practicum or internship experiences.

To gather data, participants were asked to complete a demographic questionnaire, which provided information about their background and program enrollment.

Additionally, participants completed the racial identity scales, either the Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale (BRIAS), the People of Color Racial Identity Attitude Scale

(PRIAS), or the White Racial Identity Attitude Scale (WRIAS). These scales were used to assess how participants identified themselves in terms of their racial identity.

Furthermore, participants were asked to complete two additional measures: the Career Satisfaction Scale (CSS) and the Career Decision-Making Self-Efficacy Scale – Short Form (CDSE-SF). The CSS was employed to assess participants' level of satisfaction with their chosen career path, while the CDSE-SF measured participants perceived self-efficacy in making career-related decisions. The following are the research questions for the study:

1. How do clinical counseling students align with specific levels of racial identity by race?
2. What is the relationship between clinical counseling students' level of racial identity development and career satisfaction?
3. Is there a difference in the impact of racial identity on career satisfaction of clinical counseling students based on race?
4. Does career decision-making self-efficacy act as a moderator between racial identity and career satisfaction for clinical counseling students?

The first research question was answered by using interquartile range by how the participant self-identified by race. For the BRIAS scale, there were 20 valid cases for each variable (pre-encounter, post-encounter, immersion, emersion, and internalization) out of the total 108 participants. This indicates that there is sufficient data available for analysis. Examining the percentiles for self-identified Black participants, we find that the rankings are fairly consistent across the variables. The 25th percentile rankings range from 4.875 to 5.375, the median rankings range from 10.000 to 11.500, and the 75th

percentile rankings range from 15.000 to 16.500. These percentiles provide insights into the distribution and central tendencies of the rankings within each variable.

On the PRIAS scale, there were varying numbers of valid cases for the different variables (conformity, immersion/resistance, internalization, and dissonance). The number of valid cases ranged from 18 to 19, indicating some missing or unavailable data. The percentiles for these variables indicate a range of rankings. For example, the 25th percentile rankings range from 4.500 to 5.000, the median rankings range from 9.000 to 10.000, and the 75th percentile rankings range from 14.250 to 16.000.

For the WRIAS scale, there were 68 valid cases for most variables (contact, disintegration, reintegration, pseudo-independence, and immersion/emersion), indicating sufficient data availability. However, there was one missing case for the autonomy variable, resulting in 67 valid cases. It is worth noting that there were 40 participants out of 108 who did not complete the variables, indicating a lack of data for those cases. The percentiles for the WRIAS variables show a range of rankings. For instance, the 25th percentile rankings range from 14.000 to 20.500, the median rankings range from 31.500 to 39.000, and the 75th percentile rankings range from 46.000 to 53.000.

Overall, the discussion of the rankings and percentiles for each racial identity scale provides an understanding of the distribution and variations within the variables, shedding light on the levels of racial identity among the participants.

The second research question was answered by performing a correlational analysis between racial identity schemes and career satisfaction. Significance was found between PRIAS schema immersion/resistance and career satisfaction at the 0.05 level of significance using a 2-tailed test. The results, as shown in Table 4.13, indicate notable

correlations between these variables. The term “significant” in this context implies that the observed correlation is statistically meaningful and unlikely to have occurred by chance alone. The statistically significant correlation provides evidence that variations in the level of immersion/resistance in racial identity schemas are associated with differences in the level of career satisfaction. It implies that as the level of immersion/resistance in racial identity schemas increases or decreases, there is a corresponding change in career satisfaction.

The purpose of Research Question 3 was to investigate whether there is a difference in career satisfaction among Black, White, and people of color individuals who participated in the study. To address this question, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, and the descriptive statistics for the CSS were examined based on the participants’ self-identified race.

The findings reveal that among the Black participants ( $N = 20$ ), the mean score for CSS is 50.3022, with a standard deviation of 11.95997. The 95% confidence interval suggests that the true population mean falls between 44.7048 and 55.8997, and the range of scores spans from 21.88 to 65.98. Similarly, for the people of color participants ( $N = 19$ ), the mean score for CSS is 50.7664, with a standard deviation of 9.85330. The 95% confidence interval indicates that the true population mean lies between 46.0173 and 55.5156, and the range of scores varies from 19.43 to 65.98. Lastly, among the White participants ( $N = 69$ ), the mean score for CSS is 49.7013, with a standard deviation of 9.56057. The 95% confidence interval suggests that the true population mean falls between 47.4047 and 51.9980, and the range of scores ranges from 19.43 to 65.98.

To assess the homogeneity of variances across the three racial identity groups, the analysis indicates that there is no significant difference. The  $p$ -values for all tests of homogeneity of variances are above the conventional threshold of 0.05, suggesting no significant variation among the groups.

The ANOVA results further confirm that there is no significant difference in the mean scores of CSS between the Black, people of color, and White groups. The  $p$ -value for the between-groups  $F$ -test is 0.910, which exceeds the conventional threshold of 0.05, indicating no significant effect. Moreover, multiple comparisons using the Bonferroni method also indicate no significant differences in mean scores between any of the racial identity groups. The  $p$ -values for all comparisons are above 0.05, further supporting the absence of significant differences. Based on the data, there is no evidence to suggest that significant differences exist in the CSS scores between Black, people of color, and White individuals.

The last research question was answered by completing a multiple linear regression analysis. The aim of this study was to examine the potential moderating role of career decision-making self-efficacy (measured by the CDSE-SF) in the relationship between racial identity and career satisfaction among clinical counseling students. The analysis explored the influence of various predictor variables, including PRIAS dissonance, PRIAS immersion/resistance, PRIAS internalization, WRIAS contact, WRIAS disintegration, WRIAS pseudo-independence, WRIAS immersion/emersion, and WRIAS autonomy, on CDSE-SF and CSS.

The results of the present study provide valuable insights into the relationship between career decision-making self-efficacy, racial identity, and career satisfaction among clinical counseling students. The findings suggest that CDSE-SF plays a significant role in explaining the results of the CSS, as higher scores on the CDSE-SF were consistently associated with greater levels of career satisfaction. However, the examined racial identity variables, including WRIAS contact, WRIAS disintegration, WRIAS pseudo-independence, and WRIAS immersion/emersion did not show significant direct effects on CSS scores. Moreover, the interaction term Int\_1 did not demonstrate a significant effect on CSS scores in any of the models.

### **Racial Identity and Career Satisfaction**

The result of the study found that PRIAS immersion/resistance had a strong negative correlation of  $-.560^*$  ( $p < .05$ ). This indicates that there is a significant relationship between PRIAS immersion/resistance and CSS value, with higher values in PRIAS immersion/resistance being associated with lower values in CSS, and vice versa.

According to Helms (2003), individuals in the PRIAS immersion-emersion status experience two distinct psychological phenomena: feelings of rage and mistrust towards individuals of White racial backgrounds while simultaneously idealizing their own racial group. In this stage, individuals may display intense emotional reactions and develop negative perceptions towards White individuals, understanding them as the root cause of racial injustice, discrimination, and oppression.

Furthermore, Argundade and Arogundade (2015) suggest that career satisfaction is influenced by an individual's overall attitude towards various work-related factors, including salary, benefits, and their overall perception of their job. Research focusing on

people of color has indicated lower levels of career satisfaction, higher instances of discrimination and harassment in the workplace (Greenhaus et al., 1990), increased barriers to promotion (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Yap & Konrad, 2009), and lower wages (Pendakur and Pendakur, 1998, 2007).

This study only demonstrated the correlation of these relationships, not causation. Further research would need to be conducted to better understand the implications of PRIAS immersion/resistance and career satisfaction.

Out of the three instruments used to measure racial identity, significant findings were only found with PRIAS immersion/resistance and career satisfaction.

### **The Impact of Career Decision-Making Self-Efficacy on Racial Identity and Career Satisfaction**

The results of the analysis suggest that CDSE-SF acts as a significant predictor of career satisfaction (measured on the CSS) for clinical counseling students. The moderating effect of CDSE-SF score on the relationship between racial identity and career satisfaction was examined.

The findings indicate that WRIAS contact does not have a significant direct effect on career satisfaction. However, CDSE-SF score shows a significant positive direct effect on career satisfaction. This suggests that higher scores on the CDSE-SF are associated with higher levels of career satisfaction. The interaction term (Int\_1) does not show a significant effect on career satisfaction. Therefore, CDSE-SF, rather than WRIAS contact, is a significant factor in explaining career satisfaction in the sample of 68 participants.



Similarly, for WRIAS disintegration, WRIAS pseudo-independence, and WRIAS immersion/emersion, the results indicate that these variables do not have a significant direct effect on career satisfaction. However, CDSE-SF demonstrates a significant positive direct effect on career satisfaction in all three models. This suggests that higher levels of CDSE-SF are associated with higher levels of career satisfaction. The interaction term (Int\_1) does not show a significant effect in any of the models, indicating no significant interaction between racial identity and CDSE-SF in explaining career satisfaction.

In summary, the results suggest that CDSE-SF plays a crucial role in predicting career satisfaction for clinical counseling students. While the examined dimensions of racial identity (WRIAS contact, WRIAS disintegration, WRIAS pseudo-independence, and WRIAS immersion/emersion) do not directly influence career satisfaction, CDSE-SF significantly contributes to the prediction of career satisfaction. The interaction between racial identity and CDSE-SF does not significantly impact career satisfaction in these models.

### **Limitations**

The study had several limitations that should be acknowledged. One limitation was the small sample size for the BRIAS, WRIAS, and PRIAS scales, which consist of individual schemas (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Unfortunately, the study could not include 107 participants for each of these scales, which may have limited the generalizability of the findings. The enrollment of Black students or students of color in the counseling departments' master's and doctoral programs was relatively low, contributing to the challenge of achieving a larger sample size.

Another limitation relates to the use of self-reported data obtained through the instruments used in the study. Participants might have been influenced by various factors when responding, such as attempting to provide socially desirable responses or conforming to perceived expectations. These factors could introduce bias and potentially impact the accuracy of the results. Additionally, the length of the survey, approximately 30 minutes, may have caused survey fatigue, potentially affecting participants' attentiveness and response quality.

These limitations should be taken into consideration when interpreting the results of the study. Future research with larger and more diverse samples, as well as the utilization of additional data collection methods, could help address these limitations and provide a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between career decision-making self-efficacy, racial identity, and career satisfaction among clinical counseling students.

### **Implications for Future Research**

The study suggests a potential relationship between PRIAS immersion/resistance and career satisfaction, highlighting the need for further research to understand this relationship better. This research would benefit counseling graduate training programs. Critiques by Helms (1994), Helms and Piper (1994), and Helms and Cook (1999) have pointed out flaws in vocational theory and research, including the lack of attention to racial factors in career development and the absence of race-specific constructs to interpret workplace behavior. Future research addressing these flaws can contribute to the retention of people of color in the counseling field.

The study provides valuable insights for counseling practitioners and trainers by emphasizing the importance of culturally sensitive approaches and recognizing the diverse range of racial identity development among students. It offers a framework for interventions and career development strategies that cater to diverse populations. These implications highlight the need to consider racial identity in counseling practice and training, suggesting a potential correlation between racial identity attitudes and career satisfaction among clinical counseling students, with career decision-making self-efficacy potentially moderating this relationship. Ultimately, these implications support the development of culturally sensitive counseling approaches, targeted career interventions, and comprehensive training programs that address the unique needs and experiences of students from different racial backgrounds.

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**APPENDICES**

**APPENDIX A**

**DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE**

Age: \_\_\_\_\_

Gender Identification: \_\_\_\_\_

Graduate Level (Master or Doctoral): \_\_\_\_\_

Highest Degree completed and Major (Bachelor, Master, Doctoral):  
\_\_\_\_\_

College/University and State: \_\_\_\_\_

Supervision/Practicum completed (Yes or No): \_\_\_\_\_

Licensed (Yes or No): \_\_\_\_\_

Type of License (LPC, LPC-A, LMFT, LMFT-A, LP, LPA, LCDC, LCSW, other):  
\_\_\_\_\_

Work Environment (Mental Health, Non-Mental Health Field, other):  
\_\_\_\_\_

**APPENDIX B**

**PERMISSION LETTER FOR PRIAS, BRIAS, WRIAS**



**Huentity Psychological Consulting LLC - 6521 Burnet Lane Suite 100 - Austin TX 78757**

December 3, 2019

Rebecca Opamen  
1605 82<sup>nd</sup> St. Apt. #611  
Lubbock TX78757

Re: Permission to use WRIAS, PRIAS & BRIAS for research

Dear Ms. Opamen:

Included are the White Racial Identity Attitude Scale (WRIAS), the People of Color (PRIAS) and the Black Racial Identity Attitude Scale (BRIAS) you ordered.

The following conditions apply to this grant of permission to use the scale. You are not granted permission to copy these instruments or administer them in any way. Should you decide you want to administer the tests you must repurchase them and pay a new fee.

You must not post the scales on any website that is accessible to the public or share these instruments with anyone else other than your academic advisor.

Please sign below to indicate that you understand the terms of using the scales and return a copy of this letter to the email below.

Thank you for your purchase.

ORIGINAL SIGNATURE  
AVAILABLE UPON REQUEST

[huentity@huentity.com](mailto:huentity@huentity.com)

---

User Signature, Title, Date

## APPENDIX C

### CSS PERMISSION LETTER

#### Dissertation

Greenhaus, Jeffrey <jhg23@drexel.edu>

Mon 9/30/2019 2:18 PM

To: Opamen, Rebecca <Rebecca.Opamen@ttu.edu>

1 attachments (1 MB)

Greenhaus et al 1990.pdf

Rebecca,

You have my permission to use the career satisfaction scale in your research.

As you may know, the Appendix of the attached article identifies the items and the response categories (from 1 = Strongly Agree to 5 = Strongly Disagree, reverse coded). I can't vouch for how others have scored the items; for example perhaps they reversed the response categories (e.g., 5 = Strongly Agree), and perhaps they summed (we averaged) the responses to the items to form a total score. Frankly, I am not sure that these kinds of variations make much of a difference. If I were conducting the study today, I would probably have 5 = Strongly Agree to 1 = Strongly Disagree.

Hope this helps. Good luck in your research.

Best wishes,

Jeff Greenhaus

-----  
Jeffrey H. Greenhaus  
Professor Emeritus  
Department of Management  
LeBow College of Business  
627 Gerri C. LeBow Hall  
Drexel University  
Philadelphia, PA 19104  
[jhg23@drexel.edu](mailto:jhg23@drexel.edu) (email)

## APPENDIX D

### CDSE-SF PERMISSION LETTER

For use by Rebecca Opamen only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on May 21, 2023

#### Permission Letter



[www.mindgarden.com](http://www.mindgarden.com)

To Whom It May Concern,

The above-named person has made a license purchase from Mind Garden, Inc. and has permission to administer the following copyrighted instrument up to that quantity purchased:

#### **Career Decision Self-Efficacy Scale**

The license holder has permission to administer the complete instrument in their research, however, only three sample items from this instrument as specified below may be included in the research write-up, thesis, or dissertation. Any other use must receive prior written permission from Mind Garden. The entire instrument form may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material. Please understand that disclosing more than we have authorized will compromise the integrity and value of the test.

**Citation of the instrument must include the applicable copyright statement listed below. Sample items:**

How Much Confidence Do You Have That You Could:

Summarize the skills you have developed in the jobs you have held? Select one major from a list of potential majors you are considering. Make a plan of your goals for the next five years.

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Sincerely,

ORIGINAL SIGNATURE AVAILABLE UPON REQUEST
--

Robert Most  
Mind Gar-  
den, Inc.  
[www.mind-  
garden.com](http://www.mind-<br/>garden.com)



## APPENDIX E

### G\*POWER RESULTS

#### Sample Size

Power Analysis was run. Sample was determined using G\*Power (Erdfelder, Faul, & Buchner, 1996). The power analysis indicated that a minimal sample of 107 was required.

[1] -- *Wednesday, May 04, 2022 -- 09:55:04*

**F tests** - Linear multiple regression: Fixed model, R<sup>2</sup> deviation from zero

**Analysis:** A priori: Compute required sample size

**Input:** Effect size  $f^2$  = 0.15

$\alpha$  err prob = 0.05

Power (1- $\beta$  err prob) = 0.95

Number of predictors = 2

**Output:** Noncentrality parameter  $\lambda$  = 16.0500000

Critical F = 3.0837059

Numerator df = 2

Denominator df = 104

Total sample size = 107

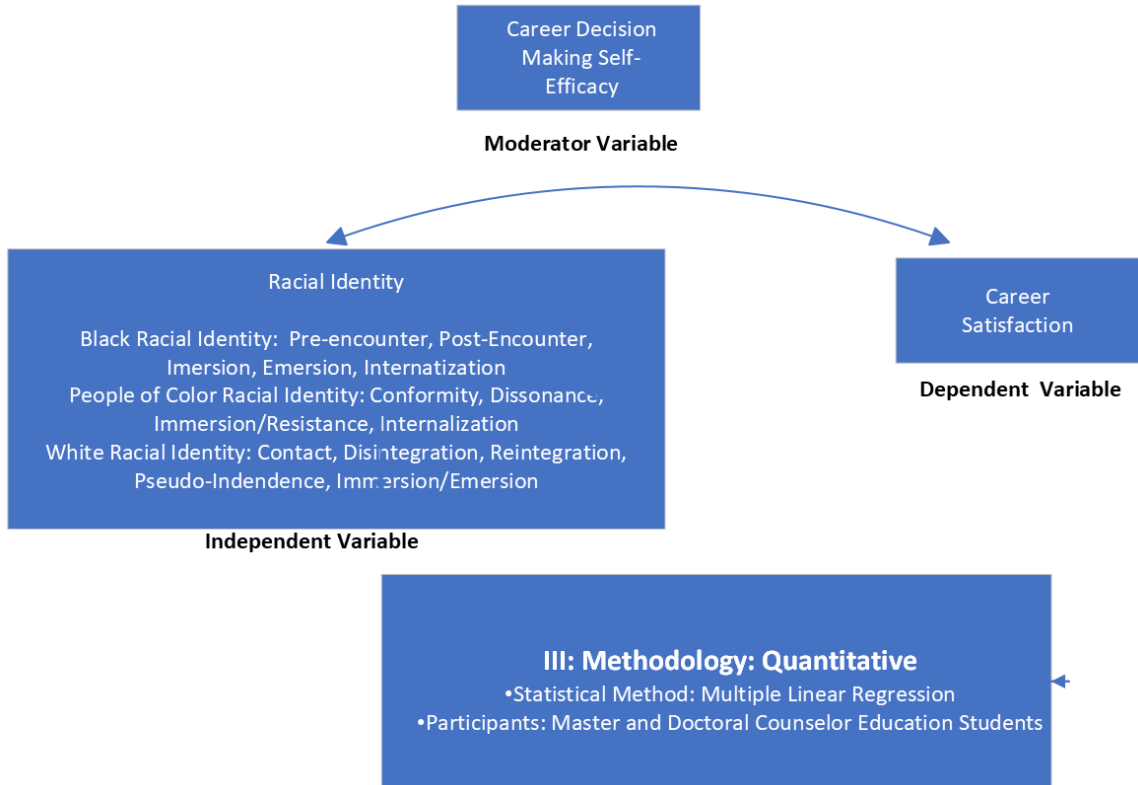
Actual power = 0.9518556

## APPENDIX F

### CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

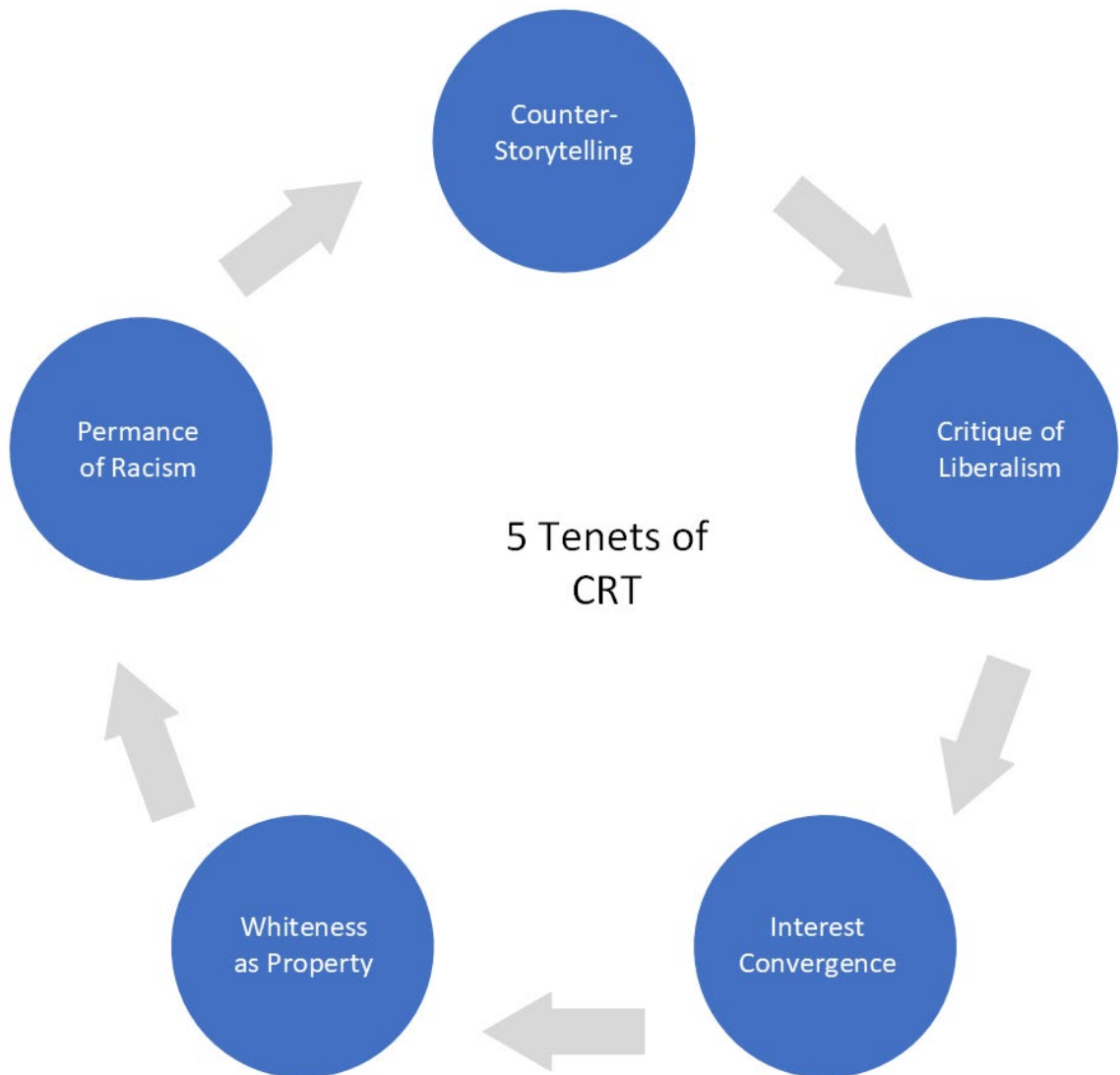
#### I: Topic: The Impact of Career Satisfaction on the Attrition of Counselors

#### II: Topical Research



#### IV: Theory: Critical Race Theory

•For the purpose of this study the tenets used for the theoretical framework of the study are: the permanence of racism, counter-storytelling, interest convergence theory, whiteness as property, and critique of liberalism (Bell, 1995; Lawrence, 1995; Harris, 1995; Bell, 1980; Crenshaw, 1988; Matsuda et al., 1993).



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