

DEVELOPMENT OF SCALES TO MEASURE PERCEIVED EXPERIENCE
WITH CLASSISM AND CLASS ORIGIN IDENTITY SALIENCE IN
COUNSELOR EDUCATION, COUNSELING, AND PSYCHOLOGY PROFESSORIATES

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to develop valid and reliable scales that effectively assess counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors' perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate, and the salience of those professionals' class origin identities. This research also offered Social Identity Theory (SIT) as one possible theoretical explanation to account for variations in counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors' perceived personal experience with classism in the professoriate. Study implications and areas for future research are outlined in light of the study findings in this dissertation.

DEDICATION

To my Granny, Savannah Ray Morrison, and my sage guide, “Momma” Gladys M. Garner

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

a	Cronbach's index of internal consistency
df	Degrees of freedom: number of values free to vary after certain restrictions have been placed on the data
F	Fisher's F ratio: A ratio of two variances
H^2	Communalities
M	Mean: the sum of a set of measurements divided by the number of measurements in the set
p	Probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypothesis of a value as extreme as or more extreme than the observed value
r	Pearson product-moment correlation
t	Computed value of t test
$<$	Less than
$=$	Equal to

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CHAPTER I:
INTRODUCTION

Problem Statement and Background

Classism is a type of discrimination much like racism and sexism, whereby people are excluded, devalued, and denied equal opportunities based on their working-class or poverty-class origins (Lott, 2002). The literature on classism in the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates are emergent fields. Yet, it could be argued that each of those disciplines' professoriates are similar in class diversity status to other academic domains: "more hierarchical today than ever" (Mazurek, 2009, p. 153). Study findings have suggested that without exception, "people of poverty- and working-class origins are significantly underrepresented within U.S. [professorial] staff" (Oldfield, 2007, p. 217). This is a sobering and disappointing finding, especially given that higher education is promoted in the U.S. as "the great leveler, where people of humble origins can gain the knowledge, qualifications, and certification needed" (Oldfield, 2007, p. 218) to become college and university professors, if they aspire to those aims.

Prior research has demonstrated that professors' class origins have essentially predicted the type of college or university that they will eventually become employees of since higher education institutions were first established in the U.S. during the 17th and 18th centuries (Adair, 2001; Mirsa, Kennelly, & Karides, 1999; Marina & Holmes, 2009; Oldfield, 2007). Moreover, with great frequency, the achievement and attainment game is played without alerting

individuals as to what class origin group is winning, by how much, and to what extent class inequality might adversely impact their chances of attaining the qualifications necessary to enter the professoriate (Oldfield, 2007). Prior research has also demonstrated that working-class and poverty-class professors are less likely than are middle-class and upper-class professors: to have attended prestigious institutions; been awarded substantial financial aid packages; become the protégés of prolific recognized scholars; had the resources to conduct publishable quality research; or had access to collegial networks where substantive guidance, advocacy, and support were dispensed (Brook & Mitchell, 2010; Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Gaston, Wolinsky, & Bohleber, 1976; Miller, Miller & Stull, 2007; Oldfield, 2007; Smith, Foley & Chaney, 2008). Thus, by the time that some working-class and poverty-class professors are reviewed for tenure and promotion, their scholarly histories are minimal or appear inferior to those of middle-class and upper-class professors, leaving department heads with little justification for authorizing their advancement in the academy (Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Oldfield, 2010).

Working-class and poverty-class professors are vital to the counselor education, counseling, and psychology enterprises (Midgette & Meggert, 1991; Pedersen, 1991; Smith, Ng, Brinson, & Mityagin, 2008; Sue, Arredondo, & McDavis, 1992). They can serve as mentors and role models for first generation college students (Gilmore & Harris, 2008; Langhout, Rosselli, & Feinstein, 2007; Langhout, Drake, & Rosselli, 2009; McMurray & Sorrells, 2009; Stephens et al., 2012; Oldfield, 2012). They can also help to inform the social justice discourse on class inequality for all students and faculty. Yet, studies have shown that working-class and poverty-class professors are less likely than are middle-class and upper-class professors to be hired or granted tenure or promoted in the professoriate, even when confounding variables such as years of professorial service and scholarly productivity are controlled (Cropsey et al. 2008).

The examination of the potential problem of classism in the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates falls in line with those disciplines' history of identifying and addressing problems with discrimination in their clinical fields and professoriates (Bernal & Padilla, 1982; Casas, Ponterotto, & Gutierrez, 1986; Ivey, 1987; Pedersen, 1989; Wrenn, 1962; Wyatt & Parham, 1985) and is urgently needed. Between the 1960s and the 1980s, many members of these groups focused on addressing the problem of the need to improve the relevance and availability of counseling services for racial minority group members (Wrenn, 1962). Then, during the 1990s some members of these groups advanced the discourse on diversity in the professoriate by calling for the academy to expand their definition of culture to include variables such as class origin (Pedersen, 1991). In this vein, Pedersen (1991) contended that members of the academy needed to become more aware of the impact of privilege and inequality on their own and their counseling clients' lives; because, privilege and inequality have implications for professors' and clinicians' cultural competencies and ability to offer services to diverse groups. Privilege "is a preferred status that is ascribed to one's personal characteristics" (Black, Stone, Hutchinson, & Suarez, 2007, p. 17), e.g., an individual's middle- or upper-class origins, that result in the intergenerational transmission of unearned advantages, power, and opportunities to individuals and groups occupying preferred statuses (Black et al., 2007).

Arguably, counselor education, counseling, and psychology have successfully increased the representation of minority group members within their professoriates (Greenleaf & Bryant, 2012; Holcomb-McCoy & Bradley, 2003; Michael, Hall, Hays, & Runyan, 2013; Midgett & Meggert, 1991; Salazar, Herring, Cameron, & Nihlen, 2004; Young, Chamley, & Withers, 1990). Study findings have shown, however, that some minority professors continue to perceive the professoriates of these disciplines as primarily white, middle-class domains (Brooks & Steen,

2010; Hays & Chang, 2008; Liu et al., 2004; Smith, Foley, & Chaney, 2008), in which working-class and poverty-class professors are viewed as unapt, incompetent, or unqualified (Black & Stone, 2005; Black, Stone, Hutchinson, & Suarez, 2007; Oldfield, 2007) to participate.

Counselor education, counseling, and psychology programs need to be able to supply newly minted professors with an equitable number of potential mentors and successful role models from diverse class origins, to provide support and to ensure that a wide range of scholarly opinions are expressed and needed research conducted (Baker & Griffin, 2010; Lemelle, 2010; Young, Chamley, & Withers, 1990). This is particularly important since counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors teach the application of multiculturalism.

Although the extant literature seems to suggest that classism may be a phenomenon that is alive and well in the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates no studies can be located that have empirically examined this issue. One reason for this gap in the knowledge could be that there are no valid and reliable measures available with which to assess professors in these groups' perceptions of personal experience with classism in the academy or the salience of their class origin identities. This is problematic because without such instruments the perceived class equality statuses of these disciplines' professoriates cannot be assessed. Results from this study can help to fill that gap in the knowledge, inform hiring practices, and aid department chairpersons in their ability to assess counselor education, counseling, and psychology settings and make changes, if needed, to sustain a diverse professoriate in the future.

Significance of Problem

Research on classism in the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates – its prevalence, its impact on victims, and the motives behind it – is an important and growing field; because, some scholars have suggested that classism is the new racism in

academe (Campbell, 2007; Morin, 2012). In particular, for example, Nelson, Englar-Carlson, Tierney, and Hau (2006) conducted a grounded theory analysis of the experiences of eleven working-class and poverty-class counseling psychology and counselor education faculty, from childhood through their entry into the professoriate. Those authors' study findings revealed a pattern of respondents' self-reports of experiences of hardships during their childhood, barriers to advancement and resources that buttress scholarly endeavors, and thwarted feelings of belonging in academic settings.

Prior studies have also suggested that there may be an underrepresentation of working-class and poverty-class professors in the academy; that middle-class and upper-class professors may be less likely than are working-class and poverty-class professors to perceive classism as a pervasive or persistent problem in the professoriate; and that professors' perceptions of personal experience with classism can vary dependent upon the salience of their class origin identities (Black & Stone, 2005; Black, Stone, Hutchinson, & Suarez, 2007; Cutri, Manning, & Chun, 2011; Foley, Ng, & Loi, 2006; Harley, Jolivet, McCormick, & Tice, 2002; Hays, Dean, & Chang, 2007; Liu et al., 2004; Liu, Pickett, & Ivey, 2007; Miller, Miller, & Stull, 2007; Nelson, Englar-Carlson, Tierney, & Hau, 2006; Smith, 2005; Smith, Foley, & Chaney, 2008; Sanders & Mahalingham, 2012; Tilley-Lubbs, 2011).

There is a gap in the literature on studies of counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors' perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate—and knowledge on what might account for the variations in these professors' perceptions of classism is sparse (Langhout, Drake, & Rosselli, 2009; Schmidt, 2010). These points are significant to underscore because classism can be subtle and ambiguous and professors may disagree on what constitutes incidents of classism (Rodriguez, 2008). Moreover, higher

education systems are among the most significant contributors to hegemony, i.e., the means through which societies inculcate and preserve dominant ideas as normal and predictable. Thus, the failure to examine the problem of classism in the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates could lead to the perpetuation of privilege, power, and the reproduction of existing patterns of class inequality in these disciplines in the future (Hays, Dean & Chang, 2007; Liu, Pickett, & Ivey, 2007; Miller, Miller, & Stull, 2007; Nesbit, 2006; Park & Denson, 2009; Smith, Foley, & Chaney, 2008; Pincus, 2008). This is problematic for counselor education, counseling, and psychology because professors in these disciplines must teach students about the importance of diversity and multicultural sensitivity in working with the clients they serve.

At the same time, a steadily increasing number of U.S. states have abolished the use of race- and gender-based affirmative action policies in higher education, including as it pertains to the hiring of professorial staff (Judis, 2013; Kahlenberg, 1996; Oldfield & Conant, 2001; Oldfield, 2007). Without the availability of “unassailable” (Taylor, 1991, p. 18) policies such as affirmative action, the question for counselor education, counseling, and psychology program chairpersons is how will it be possible to sustain the American Counseling Association’s (ACA) requirement to be “committed to recruiting and retaining a diverse faculty” (2014, p. 15), the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Program’s (CACREP) standard of making “systematic efforts to recruit, employ, and retain a diverse faculty” (2009, p. 6), and the American Psychological Association’s (APA) resolution that “the recruitment, retention, and training of ethnic minorities in psychology [is] one of the Association’s highest priorities” (American Psychological Association Commission on Ethnic Minority Recruitment, Retention and Training in Psychology, 1995) in the future? Moreover, and particularly within

academe where the contested territory is knowledge and culture, the larger question may be whose ideas and values will be determined as worth perpetuating in the future (Twombly & Moore, 1991)? Clearly, an assessment of the status of perceptions of classism - the reportedly new racism in academe - in the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates is critically needed.

Possible Theoretical Explanation for Variations in Perceptions of Classism: SIT

This study dovetails within the theoretical framework of the social identity theory (SIT) (Tajfel, 1974). A social identity is defined as that portion of an individual's self-concept which stems from their awareness of their membership in a particular social group or groups (e.g., a nationality, political party, or racial group), combined with the values and affective meaning attached to that membership (Tajfel, 1974). The defining characteristics of social groups provide individuals with a sense of pride and self-esteem (Hogg, Terry & White, 1995).

According to SIT, in order for in-group members to discriminate against an out-group, in-group members must work through a three-stage cognitive process (Tajfel, 1974). First, individuals must cognitively organize people and social groups in a way that is consistent with and demonstrative of the values and beliefs of their referent in-group. Tajfel (1974) termed this process *social categorization*. Secondly, individuals engage in a process of *social identification*, wherein an individual internalizes the salient attributes of the group with which they identify (Tajfel, 1974). Lastly, individuals engage in *social comparison*, wherein they compare their in-group against other groups with the goal of relegating perceived out-groups to inferior statuses along some social dimension (Kim & Ng, 2008; Tajfel, 1974). Prior research has revealed that "people who highly identify with their [social] group [or groups tend]...to be more sensitive to

[various forms of inequality] and hence...perceive more [incidents of] personal discrimination” (Foley, Ngo, & Loi, 2006, p. 205).

The assumptions and key tenants of SIT help to account for variations in professors’ classist attitudes, behavior, and perceptions of personal experience with classism in the academy. This is because members of the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates, like members of other groups in society, grew up in class origins wherein they observed various occupational groups (Houser & Domokos-Cheng Ham, 2004; Russell, 1996; Swartz, 1977) and were “socialized [e.g., by their parents and social institutions such as schools] to assume a particular place in the class structure” (Aronson, 2008, p. 42). These early socialization experiences become deeply ingrained schemas (Houser & Domokos-Cheng Ham, 2004). In the end these schemas change very little overtime and “...predispose [people] to react to others based on the[o]se schemata” (Houser & Domokos-Cheng Ham, 2004, p. 47).

Counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors are the gatekeepers to the fields and professions of their disciplines. Against the backdrop of the rapid economic decline and increased attention to income inequality in the U.S., counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors must ensure that they do not perpetuate class inequality in their professoriates or clinical fields (Keene, 2008; Lipset & Ladd, 1971; Midgette & Meggert, 1991; Pedersen, 1991; Smith, Ng, Brinson, & Mityagin, 2008; Sue, Arredondo, & McDavis, 1992). A paucity of research attention has been devoted to examining the potential problem of classism in counselor education, counseling, and psychology – even within the rubric of multiculturalism (Liu et al., 2004). Yet, without increased research attention to this area classism may become firmly established as “a new socially acceptable form of discrimination” (Adair & Dahlberg, 2003, p. 18) in these disciplines’ fields and professoriates.

The purpose of this research was to develop valid and reliable scales that effectively assess counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors' perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate, and the salience of those professors' class origin identities. This research also offered the Social Identity Theory (SIT) as one possible theoretical explanation to account for variations in counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors' perceived personal experience with classism in the professoriate. The instruments were developed and evaluated via a two phase process (Zhang, While, & Norman, 2012). Phase one of this research involved the construction and development of the Perceived Personal Experience with Classism Scale (P-PECS) and the Class Origin Identity Salience (COIS) scale. The second research phase involved conducting a survey using the final versions of the P-PECS and COIS to test their validity and reliability. Institutional Review Board approval was obtained by the researcher before any data was collected in this study.

Research Questions

1. Is the Perceived Personal Experience with Classism Scale (P-PECS) valid and reliable in assessing perceptions of personal experience with classism;
2. Is the Class Origin Identity Salience (COIS) scale valid and reliable in assessing class origin identity salience;
3. Is there a relationship between counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors' class origin identity saliences and perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate;
4. Are there differences in perceived personal experience with classism by working-class/poverty-class and middle-class/upper-class counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors

Definitions of Key Terms

Counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors are “persons not enrolled in school who report their occupation as a postsecondary teacher working” (Myers & Turner, 2004, p. 296) in a doctorate-granting counselor education and supervision, counseling, or psychology program at a public or private, not-for-profit, college or university of any size (i.e., smaller, medium, and larger programs) (Carnegie Classification, 2010).

Class origin is the socioeconomic position of an individual’s family of origin. Class origin is operationalized in this study according to whether or not the study participant was a first generation college student (Stephens et al., 2012). Study participants whose parents did not hold at least a four-year college degree by the time the study participant was 16-years-old are considered to have been a first generation college student. Professors who were a first generation college student were classified as being from working-class/poverty-class origins (i.e., a *working class/poverty class professor*). Study participants whose parents did hold at least a four-year college degree by the time the participant was 16 years-old are considered to not have been a first generation college student. Professors who were not a first generation college student were classified as being from middle-class/upper-class origins (i.e., a *middle-class/upper-class professor*).

Class origin identity is used as a shorthand for class origin-derived social identity (Foley, Ngo, & Loi, 2006).

Class origin identity salience is defined as a professor’s “psychological investment” in his or her class origin category, combined with the values and affective meaning attached to that membership that provides them with a sense of pride and self-esteem (Foley, Ngo, & Loi, 2006, p. 197; Tajfel, 1974).

Classism is a type of discrimination much like racism and sexism, whereby people are excluded, devalued, and denied equal opportunities based on their working-class or poverty-class origins (Lott, 2002).

Perceived personal experience with classism is defined as a professor's opinion that they have been negatively evaluated by another person or group in the academy on the basis of their class origin instead of their scholarly abilities and productivity (Burstein, 1990).

Summary

A number of scholars have claimed that classism is the new racism in academe. The basis for such assertions include prior, primarily qualitative and self-authored, scholarly reports of a perceived underrepresentation of working-class and poverty-class individuals in the professoriate and personal experiences with classism in the academy. Some scholars have also noted that working-class and poverty-class professors experience accumulative disadvantages in the academy. Prior research has also revealed that middle-class and upper-class professors may be less likely to perceive classism as a pervasive or persistent problem in the academy.

Perceptions of classism in the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates is an emergent issue. There is a dearth of study findings that shed light on the prevalence and pervasiveness of professors' perceived personal experience with classism in the academy. One reason for this paucity of information could be that no valid and reliable instruments can be located that are appropriate to assess professors' perceptions of personal experience with classism in the academy or the salience of professors' class origin identities.

This research was "a cross-sectional, descriptive instrument development study" (Zhang et al., 2012, p. 2638), designed to assess the psychometric properties (i.e., the validity and reliability) of the P-PECS and the COIS. This study also offers one possible theoretical

explanation – social identity theory- to account for the variations in counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors’ perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Some scholars and researchers contend that classism is the new racism in the professoriate (Campbell, 2007; Morin, 2012). As such, counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors need to expand their research agendas to include examinations of possible classism in the professoriate. This will help members of these disciplines to ensure that privilege and oppression are not perpetuated in their professoriates or clinical fields in the future.

This chapter will be divided into seven parts. The first part explores the extant literature on perceptions of classism in the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates. The second part involves a discussion of the definitions and conceptualizations of class origin, class origin identity, and classism in the literature. The second part also involves a discussion of some of the counter arguments against the concept of classism. The third part of this chapter involves a discussion of the relationship between class origin identity and perceptions of personal experience with classism. The fourth part involves a discussion of the psychological reactions that some people have when they perceive a personal experience with classism. The fifth part of this chapter involves a discussion of Tajfel's (1974) social identity theory (SIT), including an overview of the key concepts, assumptions, and hypotheses of SIT. The fifth section also involves a discussion of some of the prior studies that have used SIT as the theoretical framework for their examinations; explores two competing theories to Tajfel's (1974) SIT: the belief in a just world and system justification theories (Lerner, 1978; Jost & Banaji,

1994); and provides a discussion of the rationale for pointing up SIT as a possible explanation for variations in perceptions of personal experience with classism. The sixth part of this chapter involves a discussion and critique of some of the methods that some researchers have used to assess perceived personal experience with classism in prior studies. The seventh part of this chapter involves a discussion of the need to address the lack of assessment tools for measuring perceived personal experience with classism and class origin identity salience.

Perceptions of Classism in the Counselor Education, Counseling, and Psychology Professoriates

Several studies have attempted to examine the possible problem of perceived classism in the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates (Miller, Miller, & Stull, 2007; Nelson, Englar-Carlson, Tierney, & Hau, 2006; Smith, Foley, & Chang, 2008). Nelson, Englar-Carlson, Tierney, and Hau (2006), for instance, conducted a grounded theory analysis of the work-related experiences of eleven working-class and poverty-class counseling psychology professors. Study findings revealed three key issues. First, the majority of study participants reported having had difficulty learning the culture of the professoriate. Secondly, participants reported that at times they felt as though they did not belong in academe. Lastly, study participants reported that they had to develop ways to “adapt or cope” (Nelson et al., 2006, p. 11) with the pervasive air of oppression that they sensed was against working-class and poverty-class professors in the academy.

Miller, Miller, and Stull (2007) asserted that counselor educators need to begin including class and classism in their research agendas. The authors buttressed their assertions with results from their study of a sample 154 counselor educators. In that research, Miller et al. (2007) sought to determine whether counselor educators’ discriminatory behavior could be predicated as

a function of their attitudes, behavior, and perceptions of institutional support for the social justice variables of race, gender, and class. Participants were found to have higher levels of bias and discriminatory attitudes on the variable of class than they did on race or gender. The authors interpreted their study finding as having strong implications for counselor educators: do “not be complacent regarding [your] own biases, especially those related to...class” (Miller et al., 2007, p. 333). The authors also admonished counselor educators to be aware of their college or university’s institutional support for social justice issues. In this vein, Miller et al. (2007) noted that if counselor educators perceive that their institution’s attitude toward social justice is negative, that they “need to be vigilant so that institutional bias does not diminish their own commitment to provide culture-fair” (Miller et al., 2007, p. 333) environments in the professoriate.

Smith, Foley, and Chang (2008) noted that counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors need to examine their own “motivations and everyday discourse [to] reveal previously unexamined symbols and references to class and privilege” (Smith et al., 2008, p. 304). Doing so, the authors suggested, will help other professors and clinicians-in-training to develop the ability to perceive classism in real-life situations, including educational and clinical settings (Smith et al., 2008). It will also help counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors to understand the need to develop mechanisms for incorporating class and classism into their multicultural competencies and student course curricula (Smith et al., 2008).

Definitions and Conceptualizations of Class Origin, Class Origin Identity, and Classism

The following section of this chapter will provide an overview of some of the prevailing and relevant scholarly definitions and conceptualizations of class origin, class origin identity, and classism in the literature. To establish the significance of these constructs to the research at

hand, this section of the chapter will also involve a discussion of how some individuals react to perceived personal experience with classism.

Class Origin

Various definitions and conceptualizations of class origin have been offered. For example, Barrett (2011, 2012) offered an integrated definition of class origin. According to Barrett (2011, 2012), an individual's class origin is a part of their identity that develops concomitantly with and through the same socialization experiences that inform them of who they are in terms of their racial and gender identities.

A second definition of class origin is offered by Liu et al. (2004). These researchers defined class origin as a person's social standing in society, which is based upon her or his parent's earnings, educational attainment, and occupation. The authors also conceptualized an individual's class origin as the combined influence of the setting and the significant people within the environment that a person grew up in. They also noted that individuals are conscious of their standing in the social stratum and of other people that might be members of their same class group. Liu et al. (2004) distinguished class origin from socioeconomic status (SES), contending that with SES a person is assigned to an economic standing in society based upon her or his lifestyle, reputation, authority in society, and access to or control over various resources (Liu et al., 2004). Class origin, on the other hand, supposes a collective or group identity among members within the same economic cultural group (Liu et al., 2004).

The distinction between class origin and SES background is particularly relevant to studies examining perceptions of classism and ideological factors that could account for variations in perceptions of classism. For example, working-class and poverty-class professors may possess an intensified need to establish that they belong to either of those groups in order to

maintain a group identity in their efforts to assert that there is an underrepresentation of working-class and poverty-class professors in the professoriate.

Piff, Kraus, Cote, Chen, and Keltner (2010) sought to examine whether there are any differences between working-class/poverty-class and middle-class/upper-class individuals' interpersonal behavior styles and willingness to aid those in need. Data was collected from a sample of 124 undergraduate students. Piff et al. (2010) reported study findings that working-class/poverty-class participants were found to be more giving, beneficent, trusting, and willing to assist others compared with middle-class/upper-class study participants. The authors interpreted their study findings as being suggestive of the possibility that some working-class/poverty-class group members may attend to the well-being and interests of others as a way of adjusting to social environments that they perceive as hostile along class lines.

Class Origin Identity

Class origin identity is a shorthand for class origin-derived social identity (Foley, Ngo, & Loi, 2006). It is a “complex and powerful...script you act out daily, a bundle of habits and feelings and ways of relating lodged deep in your psyche and broadcast by your talk and conduct” (Ohmann, 2003, p. 11). Yet, class origin identity is not always immediately conspicuous, as are other demographic categories such as gender or racial group membership, nor is it easy to obscure or change (Ohmann, 2003). Many people tend to identify themselves according to their gender or racial group membership more so than they do their class origin – i.e., “except of course when they are way out of their usual class habit: [e.g.,] a mechanic plunked down in the Century Club, say, or an English Professor at the Elks” (Ohmann, 2003, p. 11).

Kaufman (2003) contended that one's class origin identity is the product of an individual's attachment to the social temperaments of their class origin group. Class origin attachments develop and are sustained through a process of reciprocal membership, wherein "individuals accept and are accepted by significant others as members of a particular...class because they have embraced and identified with the cultural disposition of that particular class" (Kaufman, 2003, p. 482).

Prior studies of class origin identity have for the most part been theoretical investigations, qualitative studies, and self-authored reports of individuals' perceptions of observers' views of their class origin group's attributes, values, and behavior. For instance, Lawler (2005) noted that some societal views of working-class and poverty-class group members are characterized by disfavor and disparagement, rather than the objective indicators of those groups' class origin statuses. In other words, to some observers in society, "everything [about working-class and poverty-class group members] is saturated with meaning: their clothes, their bodies, their houses, all are assumed to be markers of some 'deeper', pathological form of identity. This identity is taken to be ignorant, brutal, and tasteless" (Lawler, 2005, p. 437). Studies of that kind have helped to shed light on the potential problem of classism in society. Yet, they fall short in advancing the scholarly discourse because they are not buttressed by data driven findings about the salience of people's class origin identities - or the relationship between class origin identity salience and classist attitudes and perceptions of classism. Thus, and as has been aptly noted by Savage, Bagnall and Longhurst (2001), "we need to know considerably more about the salience of class [origin] identities than we currently do" (p. 878).

Classism

All individuals who enter the professoriate expect to succeed professionally. Yet, research has shown that some working-class and poverty-class professors do not find acceptance, valuation, and equitable opportunities for advancement in the academy (Langhout, Drake, & Rosselli, 2007; Lott, 2002). Some working-class and poverty-class professors have reported that they found the process of navigating the professoriate to be fraught with difficulties, including problems with interpersonal and institutionalized classism that hindered their occupational adjustment and success. This section of this chapter discusses several definitions of the term *classism* found in the literature, then explores two possible counter arguments against the concept of classism noted in the literature.

Lott (2002) defined *classism* as a cognitive and behavioral distancing from “poor people and poverty by those who are not poor...[through acts such as] exclusion [and] devaluation” (p. 100). This definition suggests that individuals from middle-class and upper-class origins may be more likely to be perceived favorably and deserving of recognition, advancement, and prestigious opportunities. This definition also suggests that individuals from working-class and poverty-class origins may be more likely to be stigmatized, negatively stereotyped, and discriminated against both interpersonally and institutionally (Williams, 2009).

Liu et al. (2004) proposed the term *modern classism* to define and describe classism. According to those authors, classism is a strategy that individuals employ to optimize and guarantee their ability to acquire the needed economic capital that is prized in their economic culture. Liu et al. (2004) identified four types of classism: upward, downward, lateral, and internalized. Upward classism is prejudice and discrimination targeted at people or groups that are believed to be members of higher class statuses (e.g., referring to members of higher class

statuses as elitists or snobs). Downward classism occurs when prejudicial attitudes and discriminatory behavior are directed toward individuals and groups believed to be below the perceiver (Liu & Pope-Davis, 2003). Lateral classism is defined as directing classist attitudes and behaviors toward individuals or groups of the same or similar class to realign their worldviews and patterns of behavior with those of the referent group – keeping up with the Jones' is a familiar example of lateral classism (Liu et al., 2004). Internalized classism is the result of an individual's breaching the beliefs, customs, and expectations of their economic culture.

Yeskel (2007) contended that there is no single definition of classism because various disciplines examine different dimensions of class and classism in their theory building and research foci. Yeskel (2007) noted, for example, that economists tend to focus on income strata to assess whether an individual falls within a lower or middle quintile whereas sociologists examine mainly occupational statuses to determine whether someone's occupation falls within a white collar or blue collar domain. The lack of a common definition of the term classism seems to contribute to the perpetuation of social and psychosocial problems. For example, individuals sometimes internalize classism and blame themselves for their failure to succeed socioeconomically rather than attributing their lack of progress to patterns of inequality and stratification embedded within social systems and institutions (Cozzarelli, Wilkinson, & Tagler, 2007; Furnham & Gunter, 1984). People also sometimes resort to scapegoating and other distractions because of the lack of a single definition of classism (e.g., blaming national budget problems on people who receive public assistance or disadvantaged male minority group members for high crime rates), especially during times of significant national economic and

social distress (Furnham & Gunter, 1984). Yet, scholars and researchers have pointed up several counter arguments against the concept of classism in the literature.

Counter Arguments against the Concept of Classism

There are at least two counter arguments that could be made against the concept of classism: beliefs in the Protestant work ethic and meritocracy. The Protestant work ethic is undergirded by “the belief that hard work leads to success” (Rosenthal, Levy, & Moyer, 2011, p. 874). Meritocracy stresses that “everyone has an equal chance to advance and obtain rewards based on their individual merits and efforts, regardless of their...class [origin] or other non-merit factors” (Castilla & Benerd, 2010, p. 543). Clearly, either the Protestant work ethic or meritocracy beliefs could be used to defend against arguments of classism.

Through the lens of the Protestant work ethic an individual who does not achieve a higher level of socioeconomic or occupational success “failed [to do so] on their own terms” (Liu, 2011, p. 384). For example, in the academy a scholar who does not receive tenure or promotion failed to do so because of factors such as their low scholarly productivity or having had inferior doctoral preparation (Clark & Corcoran, 1986). Historically speaking, the Protestant work ethic has been associated with promoting prejudice toward minority group members and has served as the basis for arguments justifying social inequality (Rosenthal et al., 2011). Rosenthal et al. (2011) conducted a meta-analytic review of published and non-published studies on the subject of the Protestant work ethic. The authors reported findings that endorsement of the Protestant work ethic does not appear to consistently promote prejudice among all people or in every setting. Stronger Protestant work ethic beliefs, however, were found to correlate with negative attitudes toward minority group members and opposition to providing aid to disadvantaged groups (Rosenthal et al., 2011).

In terms of meritocracy beliefs, people who ascribe to such worldviews believe that everyone in society has an equal opportunity for social mobility (Castilla & Benerd, 2010). Within the meritocracy paradigm individual responsibility, academic achievement, and social attainment are regarded as the main facilitators of class mobility (Renne, 2003). Meritocracy beliefs can be held by members of any class origin group and are based on the premise that if one works hard and plays by the rules success is inevitable – i.e., within the meritocracy paradigm even the “have nots [can be transformed] into soon to haves” (McCoy et al., 2011, p. 307). Believers in meritocracy also describe it as a positive, fair, and anticipated social attribute (Torche, 2011). It considers individuals’ qualifications and eligibility for advancement objectively, as a function of their achievement and attainment (Kaiser & Major, 2006; Torche, 2011).

Relationship between Class Origin Identity and Perceptions of Classism

Prior research has examined how class origin affects an individual’s beliefs about issues related to classism (Lapour & Heppner, 2009; Jackson, 2009; Morin, 2012). Specifically, researchers have investigated the relation between class privilege and individuals’ perceptions of their vocational opportunities (Lapour & Heppner, 2009); role of employers in social stratification (Jackson, 2009); and the shift in many Americans’ beliefs that class origin has become a more potent base for discrimination than race (Morin, 2012). The next section of this chapter clarifies these study findings by discussing the extant the literature on the relationship between class origin identity and perceptions of classism. This section of this chapter concludes with an examination of the literature on the psychological reactions that some individuals have in response to their perceived personal experience with classism.

In a qualitative study of ten white, female college students from more affluent backgrounds, Lapour and Heppner (2009) explored students' perceptions of their future career options. Study findings revealed that hailing from an advantaged background seemed to heighten respondents' views of their employment opportunities in the future as being unlimited and prestigious (Lapour & Heppner, 2009). Lapour and Heppner explained that their study finding was likely the result of their study participants having been raised in family environments wherein they were taught and acquired work-related values and expectations characteristic of affluent group members. In other words, participants in Lapour and Heppner's study appeared to have been taught in their families of origin "that working-class knowledge and culture is...not...different and equal, but different and inferior" (Giroux, 1983, p. 269). Thus, Lapour and Heppner's study participants' aspirations and expected occupational outcomes can be viewed as having fallen within the scope of values of privileged group members.

Jackson (2009) set up a field experiment, using a sample of 2,560 large, UK companies to test whether employers discriminate against job applicants on the basis of their class origin attributes. Jackson (2009) sent letters of application for professional and managerial positions from hypothetical job applicants to actual prospective employers. All of the letters contained information about the job applicants that equally matched them in terms of their qualifications for the jobs. The letters however, contained demographic information that distinguished them on a range of person attributes, including the name of the candidate (e.g., whether the name appeared to be of foreign origin or of Anglo Saxon decent), the candidate's interests outside work, and the university that the candidate attended. Jackson's (2009) research findings suggested that employers do pay attention to the class origins of job applicants. Hypothetical job applicants with Anglo Saxon names, who attended better universities (e.g., ivy league), and who

had interests typically associated with the activities of upper-class group members noted in their letters of application tended to receive more replies to their letters of application than job applicants with non-elite characteristics.

A 2012 telephone survey of 2,048 adults, conducted by Morin (2012), for the Pew Research Center, found that in contemporary society discord between the wealthy and the poor appears to have surpassed the social difficulties between foreigners and Americans, African Americans and Whites, and younger and older generations (Morin, 2012). Morin (2012) concluded that Americans' attitudes over the divide between the rich and the poor may be attributable to the economic disparity message proffered by the Occupy Movement in the U.S. over the past few years. The events of the Occupy Movement also seems to have contributed to U.S. news services' increased attention to the subject of classism in America (Morin, 2012). Morin (2012) also noted that Americans' views on income inequality in U.S. society may be reflective of their increasing awareness of the dramatic shifts in the nation's distribution of wealth (Morin, 2012).

Liu et al. (2007) contended that many Americans are unable to detect occurrences of classism in their everyday lives and social contexts. The authors noted that privilege tends to be inconspicuous and not something that people who receive it are obviously aware of; because, it is invoked unconsciously and presumed to be something that the individual is naturally entitled to have (Liu et al., 2007). In the U.S., the ideology of moving up to join the middle-class is potent enough to produce injustice in society, although researchers and economists continue to report that the middle-class in the U.S. is a steadily dwindling social group (Liu et al., 2007). Thus, it is imperative that members of society understand that the preferential treatment of members of the upper- and middle-classes in the U.S. can lead to the discrimination and oppression of working-

class and poverty-class group members if it is not recognized and adequately addressed (Liu et al., 2007).

Psychological Reactions to Perceived Personal Experience with Classism

People who perceive personal experience with classism may experience myriad psychological reactions to those types of incidents as they attempt to adjust to those types of unexpected encounters. Several studies have offered insight into the psychological reactions that some people have when they perceive having had a personal experience with classism (Reay, 2005; Russell, 1996; Harley, Jolivette, and McCormick, 2002; Langhout, Drake, and Rosselli, 2009). The next section of this chapter will review the research findings on that body of literature.

Reay (2005) proposed the term *psychic economy* to describe the affective feelings of perceived personal experience with classism. Examples of the emotional outcomes of individuals who encounter classism include ambivalence, advantage and disadvantage, visceral aversions, and airs of sophistication and refinement (Reay, 2005). According to Reay (2005), working-class and poverty-class group members may be the most vulnerable to the negative effects of classism; because, members of those groups bear the most profound psychological burdens of social inequality. Yet, class inequality harms everyone, irrespective of where they may be socioeconomically positioned (Reay, 2005).

Positive and negative psychological consequences of internalized classism have been identified in the literature. Russell (1996) pointed out several negative emotional consequences that can result from internalized classism. Lavour and Heppner (2009) highlighted several positive aspects of internalized classism. Russell (1996) defines internalized classism as “the process by which a person’s experience as a member of the poor- or working-classes becomes

[deeply ingrained in their psyches] and influences her [or his] self-concept and self-esteem” (p. 59). Lapour and Heppner (2009) offers a similar explanation; but, point out that internalized classism can also result among members of privileged classes when they fall short in their efforts to try to “keep up with the demands of [their] identified...class group” (p. 489). These distinctions, as noted by Russell (1996) and Lapour and Heppner (2009), suggest that psychological reactions to classism can occur among people in any class position and result in different psychological experiences and consequences.

In a study of the antecedents and outcomes of classism in higher education settings, Langhout et al. (2007) found that their study participants who reported having experienced classism were more likely, than study participants who reported having not experienced classism, to feel as though they did not belong in higher education settings. That finding could account for why some minority professors opt to leave the academy (Cropsey et al., 2008). Attrition among minority professors is a serious problem; but, is one that according to Cropsey et al. (2008) “is amenable to interventions” (p. 1116).

Harley et al. (2002) identified three ways in which professors tend to respond to classism in the professoriate. Some professors respond by examining their own views of class-related issues while others continue to absorb themselves in naive praxis and theorizing (Harley et al., 2002). Other professors find ways to dismiss themselves from being responsible for acknowledging and addressing issues of classism in the professoriate (Harley et al., 2002). These findings are important to note because they shed light on possible transition and adjustment issues that some professors encounter in the professoriate. These findings also provide insight on the reasons why working-class and poverty-class professors may be more likely than middle-class and upper-class professors to leave the professoriate.

Social Identity Theory

Social Identity Theory (SIT) provides a solid theoretical approach to understanding variations in professors' perceptions of personal experience with classism. This section of this chapter explores and discusses the literature on studies using SIT to examine the correlation between individuals' social identities and their perceptions of discrimination, including classism.

Key Concepts, Assumptions, and Hypotheses of Social Identity Theory

In SIT, social groups define for individuals who they are in social terms (Tajfel, 1971). Social groups also clarify for their members, in fairly relational and comparative terms, whether they are the same as or distinct from, or as better- or worse-off than, individuals belonging to other groups (Tajfel, 1974). Conceptually, an individual's social identity can be viewed as the parts of her or his self-image that stem from the social categories that she or he views themselves as being members of. Tajfel, Billig, Bundy, and Flament (1971) contended that the key assumptions of SIT include the following:

1. People try to maintain or increase their self-esteem: they try to develop a favorable self-concept;
2. Social groups and their members are evaluated as having either positive or negative value. Thus, an individual's social identity can either be positive or negative, based on the individual's assessment of their group and whether the individual's findings from their assessment adds to their self-concept; and
3. An individual's assessment of the positive or negative value of her or his social group is derived through in-group/out-group comparison. In-group/out-group comparisons that yield favorable connotations for one's in-group leads to in-group feelings and perceptions of higher social value; social comparisons that yield less

favorable connotations for an individual's in-group result in in-group feelings and perceptions of lower social standing. Notably, when an individual perceives her or his social identity to be unacceptable, they will either take steps to leave their in-group, in order to become a member of a group that has a more favorable social standing, or take steps to improve the value of their current in-group.

The basic hypothesis of SIT is that social pressures to view one's in-group favorably contribute to an individual's comparison of their in-group against a relevant out-group (Tajfel, 1974). In-group/out-group comparisons allow groups to be distinguished from each other, to maintain or acquire a sense of superiority above an out-group on some aspect(s). At least three variables are believed to impact intergroup comparisons (Tajfel, 1974). First, individuals must subjectively identify with their in-group. Secondly, the social context has to facilitate group members' abilities to choose and evaluate groups' attributes that they consider salient and relevant. For instance, in the U.S. skin color appears to be a more significant attribute than in Asia, whereas, language appears to be a more significant attribute of distinct identity in Germany or French Canada (Tajfel, 1974). Thirdly, in-groups do not compare themselves with every available out-group; the out-group which an in-group compares themselves to has to be viewed as a relevant comparison group.

Tajfel, Billig, Bundy, and Flament (1971) have contended that discriminatory behavior is relatively simple to activate - even when in-group members have no history of hostile attitudes toward an out-group nor any vested interest in the perceived opportunities available to them within a given context. Instead, discriminatory behavior is accounted for in SIT as being the result of salient social identities, social categorization, and to some degree, general out-group attitudes (Tajfel et al., 1971). General out-group attitudes derive from individuals' deeply

internalized early socialization (Russell, 1996; Tajfel et al., 1971) and formal educational experiences (Swartz, 1977), which lead to or reinforce individuals' proclivities to behave differentially toward various groups. According to Tajfel et al. (1971), children learn, at very early ages, which groups and their members are to be viewed favorably and how to construct their own encapsulated net of affiliations (Tajfel et al., in Hogg & Abrams, 2001). These early lessons help individuals to develop we/they representations of in-groups and out-groups. And, generic out-group attitudes guide in-group members' behavior in ways that seek to establish a superiority over out-group members.

Prior Studies Using Social Identity Theory

Several authors have sought to examine how the constructs of SIT relate to intergroup behavior and discriminatory outcomes in society (Amiot & Aubin, 2013; Burford, 2012; Hersby, Jetten, Ryan, & Schmitt, 2011). These studies have included assessments of the effects of group membership on medical education research (Burford, 2012); the effects of gender identity salience on women's willingness to participate in mentoring activities as a function of their perceptions of sexism against women in workplace settings; the effects of social categorization on intergroup behavior (Tajfel et al., 1971); investigating the combined impact of wealth and power on inequality (Harvey & Bourhis, 2011); and investigating the antecedents and consequences of perceived personal gender discrimination (Foley, Ngo, & Loi, 2006). The next section of this chapter will present a discussion of these study findings.

Amiot and Aubin (2013) conducted an investigation of the ways in which individuals are attached to their social groups. The authors contended that three forms of SIT explain how and why individuals are attached to their in-groups (Amiot & Aubin, 2013). Findings from this study revealed that the comparative and competitive tenants SIT predicted nationalism and in-group

favoritism, while the tenants of SIT that capture the internalized in-group attributes predicted outcomes such as self-esteem and patriotism.

Burford (2012) offered support for the utility of SIT as an explanatory theoretical framework. Using the context of medical education research as the foundation for this theoretical inquiry, Burford (2012) noted that as a rule, although “medical education research does not currently take full account of the effects of group membership,” (Burford, 2012, p. 143), SIT allows for those variables to be examined. The author also contended that SIT allows for more refined assessments of varying influences on, and results of, group membership to be examined.

Hersby et al. (2011) applied the theoretical explanation of SIT to examine the salience of a group of 85 disadvantaged women’s gender identities on their willingness to be mentored in the workplace, as a function of their perceptions of widespread sexism against women as a group, in work contexts. The authors reported finding support for the tenants of SIT in that women’s perceptions of the illegitimacy of sexism, reflecting more salient gender identities, encouraged their involvement in mentorship when they viewed sexism as a pervasive problem rather than a rare occurrence. The authors also reported that when women perceived sexism to be a legitimate practice in workplace contexts, sexism did not encourage their willingness to participate in mentoring activities.

Research has been conducted on the impact of social categorization on intergroup interaction and discriminatory behavior (Tajfel et al., 1971). Tajfel et al. (1971) revealed study findings demonstrating that individuals showed favoritism toward their in-group in terms of allocating rewards, but not penalties, in a social environment wherein only minor categorization differences between majority and minority group members could be detected.

Harvey and Bourhis (2011) assessed the impact of wealth and power on discrimination in the allocation of financial resources. Using a sample of a group of 243 college students, the researchers used coin tosses to assign study participants to one of two groups (affluent or poor) and told study participants that they would be asked to make decisions about allocating money to members of various groups. Study findings revealed that poor group members discriminated more often than affluent group members. Study findings also showed that irrespective of participants' group membership, study participants discriminated more often against the out-group when they were affluent as opposed to when the out-group were members of lower income groups. Additionally, the more that study participants discriminated the more positive they reported feeling about their in-group. Harvey and Bourhis (2011) interpreted these findings as meaning that according to the basic premise of SIT, the more individuals engaged in discriminatory behavior the more favorably they evaluated their social identities.

Foley, Ngo, and Loi (2006) developed a model, founded upon SIT, to explore the antecedents and consequences of attorney's perceptions of gender bias and discrimination against female attorneys in legal settings. The authors contended that while demographic variables can aid in accounting for variations in perceptions of and reactions to discrimination, those demographic variables alone are inadequate for understanding the phenomenon of perceptions of discrimination. An "individual's psychological investment in his or her gender category (i.e., his or her gender identity) is another important predictor" (Foley et al., 2006, p. 205) of perceived discrimination. Study findings revealed that female attorneys perceived more gender discrimination against women in legal contexts than did male attorneys. The authors concluded that gender identity was related to perceptions of discrimination against female attorneys in legal contexts. The authors also concluded that individuals "who highly identify

with their [in-group] are likely to be more sensitive to [inequality] and hence to perceive more [incidents of] personal discrimination” (Foley, Ngo, & Loi, 2006, p. 205).

As can be shown from the studies discussed above, SIT has utility for explaining how prejudice and discrimination can result from intergroup relations that involve identification with an in-group and negative attitudes towards an out-group. These studies also demonstrate the way in which identity-based attitudes help individuals gain self-esteem. There is, however, research reporting opposing findings, through competing theories of SIT.

Competing Theories of Social Identity Theory

Two competing theories of SIT are *belief in a just world* and *system justification*. According to Jost and Hunyady (2005) these theories are among those that help to conceptualize ideologies that encourage, buttress, and legitimize discrimination and group inequality. The next section of this chapter will discuss the theories of the belief in a just world and system justification.

The theory of the *belief in a just world* helps to account for the ways in which individuals construe and defend inequality, injustice, and discrimination (Lipkus & Siegler, 1993). The *belief in a just world* hypothesis is easily stated: “individuals have a need to believe that they live in a world where people generally get what they deserve” (Rubin & Peplau, 1975, p. 1030). In other words, the *belief in a just world* theory accounts for the ways in which individuals try to establish secure and orderly worlds for themselves, while acknowledging that adversity and unwanted events can and do happen to good people (Lerner, 1978). For individuals with strong rather than weak beliefs in a just world, occurrences of inequality and discrimination are rare, isolated, or temporal states of affairs (Lerner, 1978).

Observing and acknowledging the injustices that other individuals experience does not threaten people very much until those experiences draw nearer to the observer's own world (Lerner & Miller, 1978). Then the reality sets in that if others can suffer unjustly, then observers must also admit to the unsettling prospect that they too could suffer unjustly (Lerner & Miller, 1978). People can have two kinds of reactions in attempting to maintain their belief in a just world: when given the chance they may try to correct or mitigate the effects of an individual's misfortune or suffering, or if the individual is not able to or unwilling to offer aid to the individual faced with discrimination or misfortune, the observer will cognitively distort the facts of the circumstance at hand and view the victim's situation or suffering as deserved because they had to have done something to deserve their disparate or undesirable fate (Lerner & Simmons, 1966).

A second contrasting theory of social identity theory is *system justification*. Jost and Banaji (1994) developed *system justification theory* as a basis for investigating the ways in which, and the reasons that, people tolerate and retain the social systems that impact them. System justification theory holds that individuals are "motivated to justify and rationalize the way things are, so that existing social, economic, and political arrangements [are]...perceived as fair and legitimate" (Jost & Banaji, 1994, p. 260). The motivational aspect of system justification theory has been referred to as the merciful mechanism; because, it allows people to consciously protect themselves from admitting how unhappy they are with the status quo of inequality and oppression (Auden, 1977).

The most powerful tenant of the system justification theory holds that people who are the most adversely impacted by pervasive inequality tend to be the most likely to advocate for, defend, and rationalize the status quo of inequitable opportunities and outcomes (Jost, Pelham,

Sheldon, & Sullivan, 2003). In other words, individuals who are the most harmed by the status quo are ironically the most likely to support its legitimacy (Jost et al., 2003). Thus, “because system justification tendencies manifest themselves in a desire to maintain and protect the status quo, it stands to reason that such motives can interfere with taking action to correct existing injustices or group-based inequities” (Phelan & Rudman, 2011, p. 378).

Belief in a just world and *system justification* are theoretical explanations of how and why people understand, rationalize, and promote inequality. Within the *belief in a just world* framework, individuals who experience discrimination are believed to have behaved in a way to merit such consequences or to have individual attributes befitting a person who should incur adverse outcomes (Lipkus & Seigler, 1993). *System justification* on the other hand, posits that individuals are motivated to defend and excuse the status quo, so that prevailing societal, income inequalities, and political hierarchies are viewed as fair and legitimate (Jost & Hunyady, 2005). Yet, the use of SIT as an explanation for variations in counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors’ perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate has several advantages over the belief in a just world or system justification theories.

Rationale for Offering Social Identity Theory to Account for Variations in Perceptions of Classism

Social identity theory acknowledges that while demographic variables can help to account for professors’ perceptions of and reactions to classism, those demographics by themselves are insufficient. Social identity theory may provide the basis from which classism could be perceived when an individual’s identification with their class origin in-group is appreciably salient (Foley, Ngo, & Loi, 2006). No studies can be located in the counselor education, counseling, or psychology literatures that have examined professors in those

disciplines' perceptions of classism in the professoriate as a function of the salience of their class origin identities.

Critique of Methods of Assessing Perceptions of Personal Experience with Classism

Although attempts to measure perceptions of personal experience with classism is an emergent area, several authors have attempted to examine individuals' experiences with classism using a variety of methods (Cutri, Manning, & Chun, 2011; Langhout, Rosselli, & Feinstein, 2007; Miller & Kastberg, 1995; Thompson & Subich, 2013). Results to date, however, have yielded limited results. The following section of this chapter involves a discussion and critique of the past methods of examining perceptions of personal experience with classism.

Cutri, Manning, and Chun (2011) conducted self-studies of “poverty PhDs” (p. 299) to explore the relation among the “funds of knowledge possessed by [professors who grew up in]... poverty and [the]...development of [their] professional identity in” the professoriate (p. 299). These authors, who were also the respondents in this research, defined funds of knowledge as the information and skills that people in disadvantaged communities develop and share in order to cope and thrive in situations characterized by class diversity (Cutri et al., 2011). The authors contended that a study of perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate was needed; because, there is evidence of the professoriate moving steadily toward a greater class origin stratification (Cutri et al., 2011). Study findings revealed that the respondents in this study had often perceived themselves as having experienced the deeply rooted stereotypes about people from poverty-class groups in the professoriate; but, that they had used the fund of knowledge that they had learned during their years in poverty to survive and thrive in the professoriate (Cutri et al., 2011). The authors' self-study also revealed that they often felt like - and believed that their colleagues from other classes viewed them as “...minorit[ies] in [the

middle-class] world” (Cutri et al., 311) of the professoriate, who had learned to hide, be invisible, and to accommodate out-group members in the professoriate. These findings are riveting; yet, they are not empirically or theoretically driven. Thus, they do not offer any generalizable findings that could establish the pervasiveness of the problem of perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate.

Langhout, Rosselli, and Feinstein (2007) attempted to: develop a behaviorally based measure that distinguished theoretical domains of classism; determine base rates of perceptions of classism; and investigate the way in which class, gender, and race are related to classism. The authors used a college student sample to test their measure, contending that “examining classism in college is particularly important because college represents an important developmental phase where young people are transitioning from adolescence into adulthood” (Langhout et al., 2007, p. 145). Three theoretical domains of classism were examined as part of the construction of this measure: citational, institutionalized, and interpersonal via discounting. The authors hypothesized that students would rarely identify their experiences as classism and that students’ perceptions of experience with classism would vary based on their class, gender, and race. Findings from this assessment revealed support for the measure; however, the measure had limited utility because the findings were only generalizable among student populations.

Miller and Kastberg (1995) conducted a qualitative study of six female professors from working-class origins. The authors conducted conversations with these women and found that their achievement and attainment experiences had unintended consequences, including feelings of isolation and marginalization in the professoriate. Results from this study revealed poignant stories and testaments of these women’s struggles to be accepted and respected in the professoriate. Yet, because this investigation was a qualitative study it did not yield any

empirical or generalizable findings that could be used to assess base rates of perceptions of personal experience with classism or generalized to other populations.

Thompson and Subich (2013) conducted a study to develop a measure called the *Experiences with Classism Scale* (EWCS). The purpose of the EWCS is to provide researchers with a tool for assessing the barrier of classism on the outcomes and experiences of undergraduate students (Thompson & Subich, 2013). One hundred and fifty undergraduate students, ages 18-42 years-old, enrolled in psychology courses served as participants in the study. Study findings revealed high internal consistency reliability for the EWCS and that higher scores on the EWCS subscales were strongly related to higher levels of anxiety, stress, depression, and to lower levels of wellness and self-esteem (Thompson & Subich, 2013). The authors noted that although the EWCS appears to have good utility for use in future research, more research to “establish the psychometric properties of the [EWCS] more fully” is needed (Thompson & Subich, 2013, p. 153). The EWCS also has limited use with other populations as the researchers intentionally designed it for use with undergraduate student populations.

Addressing the Lack of Assessment Tools for Assessing

Perceived Personal Experience with Classism and Class Origin Identity Salience

No valid and reliable assessment tools can be located that measure perception of personal experience with classism or class origin identity salience. Measures of this kind are critically needed for several reasons. First, researchers are pointing to mounting evidence of people’s perceptions that “this time [the] class warfare cry [in the U.S.] is true” (Carlson, 2012). The political sphere may be the most obvious source of evidence of class warfare through, for instance, some citizens’ and politicians’ beliefs that food stamp programs for the poor are unearned handouts while the public assistance program is for the affluent (i.e., the U.S. tax code,

is fair and legitimate) (Carlson, 2012). Similar contrasts in perceptions can be viewed within the context of the professoriate (Adair, 2001; Adair, 2005; Oldfield, 2007; Reay, 2005). For instance, some working-class and poverty-class professors contend that they are underrepresented and experience inequalities in opportunities and outcomes in the professoriate (Oldfield, 2007).

At the same time, some poverty-class professors assert that their identities, experiences, “marginality[,] and concomitant consciousness and epistemolog[ies] are too distinct from...working-class” professors’ to be claimed and coopted into working-class discourses and social justice agendas (Adair, 2005, p. 817). In other words, although variations in perceptions of personal experience with classism can be hypothesized to be a reflection of the salience of individuals’ class origin identities (Lawler, 2005), the lack of valid and reliable assessment tools to measure perceived personal experience with classism and class origin identity salience render it difficult if not impossible to empirically understand the variations in perceptions of classism.

Moreover, because researchers have reported findings that many people now view classism as a more significant problem in the U.S. than either racism or sexism (Campbell, 2007; Morin, 2012), assessment tools for perceived personal experience with classism and class origin identity salience can help to clarify whether an individual’s perception of personal experience with classism is more reflective of the salience of their class origin identity or evidence of actual problems with discrimination or institutionalized inequality. In counselor education, counseling, and psychology information of this kind could inform department heads’ strategies to diversify the professoriates of these disciplines and promote equality of opportunities and outcomes in them. However, valid and reliable assessment tools for perceived personal experience with classism and class origin identity salience are critically needed.

Summary

This chapter surveyed the extant literature related to definitions and conceptualizations of class origin, class origin identity, and classism, which revealed the importance of understanding how these constructs relate to the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates. The rapid decline in the economic condition of the U.S. and the steadily increasing number of individuals from working-class and poverty-class origins enrolling in higher education institutions over the past few decades underscore the need to ensure the representativeness of counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors from diverse class origins in the academy.

Recent social movements, including the abolishment of the use of affirmative action policies in employment decisions in higher education and the Occupy Movement, have underscored the need for professors and academic program administrators to pay attention to the effects of classism in counselor education, counseling, and psychology programs. As such, professors and program administrators are obligated to examine perceptions of classism in the academy to ensure the applicability and utility of academic training and clinical supervision in the future. The paucity of literature on perceptions of classism in the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates demonstrates the need for research of this kind as no studies can be located that have sought to examine professors in these disciplines' perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate.

In addition to perceptions of classism, a review of the literature was conducted to examine the manner in which class origin and class origin identity is associated with perceptions of classism. That survey of the knowledge demonstrated the importance of understanding how class origin and class origin identity is associated with perceptions of classism. At the same

time, the paucity of studies linking those constructs to the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates provided a clue as to the magnitude of the need to examine perceptions of classism among professors in those disciplines.

A review of the literature was conducted to examine and critique past methods of examining perceptions of personal experience with classism. Although assessments of personal experience with classism is an emergent area, the results of studies in the literature reveal information about the need for the development of measures to assess perceptions of personal experience with classism and class origin identity salience in a variety of contexts, including within the professoriate.

This study offers new information to the counselor education, counseling, and psychology literatures. Empirical studies are needed to understand the prevalence and pervasiveness of the problem of perceptions of personal experience with classism among counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors. Yet, there are no valid or reliable measures available that are appropriate to assess professors in these disciplines' perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate or the salience of their class origin identities. The aim of this dissertation was to fill those gaps in the literature.

CHAPTER III: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the research methodology used in the “design, development, and evaluation” (Dawis, 1987, p. 481) of the Perceived Personal Experience with Classism Scale (P-PECS) and Class Origin Identity Saliency (COIS) scale.

This chapter is divided into five sections. The first section involves a discussion of the scale construction of the P-PECS and COIS, i.e., the conceptual design and development of the measures. The second section involves a discussion of the content validation activities conducted on the measures. The third part of this chapter involves a discussion of the activities undertaken to assess the construct validity of P-PECS and COIS. The fourth part of this chapter involves a discussion of the manner in which the reliability of the P-PECS and COIS were assessed. The final part of this chapter involves a discussion of the statistical tests used to assess: (a) the relationship between professors’ class origin identity saliences and perceived personal experience with classism and (b) possible differences in perceived personal experience with classism by working-class/poverty-class and middle-class/upper-class professors, respectively. This study is characterized by a cross-sectional, descriptive instrument development research design.

Research Questions

1. Is the Perceived Personal Experience with Classism Scale (P-PECS) valid and reliable in assessing perceptions of personal experience with classism
2. Is the Class Origin Identity Saliency (COIS) scale valid and reliable in assessing class origin identity saliency
3. Is there a relationship between professors' class origin identity saliencies and perceptions of perceived personal experience with classism in the professoriate
4. Are there differences in perceived personal experience with classism by working-class/poverty-class and middle-class/upper-class professors

Research Phase I: Scale Construction

The P-PECS and COIS are scales that were designed to provide researchers and campus administrators with valid and reliable tools for assessing college and university professors' perceptions of personal experience with classism and the saliency of their class origin identities. Instruments of this kind are critically needed; because, a growing body of literature seems to suggest that classism may be a persistent and pervasive problem in the academy. No measures can be located that have any specific utility in quantifying and empirically examining this potential problem. The P-PECS and COIS will fill those gaps in the literature because they were developed for use in assessing the domains of perceived classism and class origin identity saliency among college and university professor populations.

The P-PECS and COIS evolved following the scale construction recommendations proposed by Dawis (1987), i.e., "divided into three stages: design, development, and evaluation" (p. 481). The scale construction stages of the P-PECS and COIS are outlined in the following section of this chapter. Specifically, first a discussion of the scale design of the P-PECS and

COIS is conducted, followed by separate reviews of each scales' development. This section of this chapter concludes with a discussion of the evaluation of the reliability of the P-PECS and COIS.

Scale Design of the P-PECS and COIS

The P-PECS and COIS were developed as *subject-centered scales*. By definition, subject-centered scales' scores are designed to "reflect differences among the subjects (respondents) in terms of their standing along the scale[s'] dimension[s]" (Dawis, 1987, p. 481). Dawis (1987) noted two important prerequisites for designing a subject-centered scale: a well-stated definition of the variable to be measured and clear indicators of the variable being assessed.

On the P-PECS and COIS, *perceived personal experience with classism* and *class origin identity salience*, respectively, are the variables to be measured. As previously stated, *perceived personal experience with classism* is defined as a professor's opinion that they have been negatively evaluated by another person or group in the academy on the basis of their class origin instead of their scholarly abilities and productivity (Burstein, 1990). *Class origin identity salience* is defined as a professor's "psychological investment" in his or her class origin category, combined with the values and affective meaning attached to that membership that provides them with a sense of pride and self-esteem (Foley, Ngo, & Loi, 2006, p. 197; Tajfel, 1974). The indicators of perceived personal experience with classism and class origin identity salience are respondents' higher levels of endorsement of items on the P-PECS and COIS, i.e., ratings of a 4 or 5 on the scales. The higher ratings on the measures are viewed as being indicative of a professor having a more profound belief that they have personally experienced classism in the academy and a deeply internalized class origin identity.

Scale Content of the P-PECS and COIS. A review of the extant qualitative and self-report literature on perceived experience with classism was conducted to generate potential items for the P-PECS and COIS. This approach was viewed as appropriate, feasible, and efficient because locating and successfully recruiting a sufficient number of professors to conduct focus groups or interviews with would likely have been fraught with difficulties. This is because some professors, like some people in society, may have been reluctant to openly discuss issues pertaining to class. Class has in many ways become couched in socially divisive political ideologies and stigmatizing hierarchies. Yet, the qualitative study findings and self-reports on perceived classism in the literature are frequently authored by scholars and researchers who self-identify as being from a particular class origin group. Thus, those bodies of literature were regarded as providing experiential information in the authors' "own words" (Dawis, 1987, p. 482), but still within a scholarly frame. The qualitative study findings and self-report literatures on perceived experience with classism were located using the PsychINFO, EBSCOhost, Scout, and ERIC databases.

The initial pool of items generated in the P-PECS and COIS were broad, to ensure that the widest range of opinions and experiences were reflected in the items. In terms of the overall domain identification in the measures, i.e., establishing the definitions and constructs of *perceived experience with classism* and *class origin identity salience*, separate literature reviews were conducted to examine scholarly works on *classism* and *social identity*. These reviews were also conducted using the PsychINFO, EBSCOhost, Scout, and ERIC databases. The reviews included an inspection of scholarly articles, reporting theoretical, qualitative, quantitative, and narrative accounts regarding class hierarchies, class inequality, perceived classism, social reproduction, social identification, social identity formation, and class origin identities.

As it pertains to the concept of *classism*, a literature review was conducted using the keyword terms *class*, *classism*, *classism in university settings*, *classism and university faculty*, *classism and higher education*, and *working-class/poverty-class faculty* (or *professors*). Using these keywords, the disciplines of counseling, education, psychology, and sociology were searched, yielding approximately 400 scholarly endeavors (e.g., dissertations, articles, and presentations). Literature was considered relevant to the domain of classism and selected if it met the criteria of: (a) having the search terms included in the keywords, and (b) the primary sample or focus of the research being conducted was on the class-related experiences of university professors. These criteria allowed for the reduction of the number of scholarly works to review to 204. The more narrow body of literature also provided a historical review of themes regarding classism and insight on the trajectories that professors' perceptions of personal experience with classism may be characterized by.

As it pertains to the concept of *class origin identity salience*, a literature review was conducted using the key terms *social identity*, *social identity theory*, *class identities*, *social identity and perceptions of discrimination*, and *class identities and perceptions of discrimination*. Using these keyword search terms, the disciplines of counseling, education, psychology, and sociology were searched and yielded results exceeding 5,000 scholarly works (e.g., dissertations, articles, and presentations). As was true of the development of the P-PECS, literature was considered relevant and selected if it met the criteria of: (a) having the search terms included in the keywords or (b) the focus of the research being conducted was on social identities or the relationship between individuals' or groups' perception of discrimination based upon a social identity category (e.g., gender, class, or race). These distinctions facilitated the reduction of the volume of published research to be reviewed and provided a focused view of the development

and implications of individuals' social identities, including as it pertains to their perceptions of personal experience with classism.

At this point, recognized and relevant definitions and the content areas of the constructs of *classism* and *class origin identity salience* needed to be identified. Using the findings from the literature review described above, overall definitions and the content areas for the constructs of *classism* and *class origin identity salience* were established. Specifically, it was determined that the construct of *classism* would refer to a type of discrimination much like racism and sexism, whereby professors are excluded, devalued, and denied equal opportunities in the professoriate based on their working-class or poverty-class origins (Lott, 2002). The content area for this definition was informed by the themes related to classism in the literature and include: *exclusion, interpersonal difficulties, devaluation, denial of equal opportunities, feelings of not belonging in the professoriate, and institutional bias against working-class and poverty-class professors.*

As it pertained to the construct of *class origin identity salience* it was determined that the term would refer to a professor's psychological investment (Foley, Ng, & Loi, 2006) in her or his class origin group, i.e., in terms of her or his awareness of their membership in a particular class origin group (e.g., working class or upper class), combined with the values and affective meaning attached to that membership. The content area of the construct of class origin identity salience scale was informed by findings in the literature and included: *individuals' identification with their in-group, individuals' comparison of their in-group with a relevant out-group, and individuals' ascription to the attitudes and values of their in-group.* Chapter two discussed the constructs of *classism* and *class origin identity salience* in greater detail.

Scale Format of the P-PECS and COIS. As previously stated, the researcher in this investigation used the definitions and themes of the constructs of *classism* and *class origin identity salience* found in the qualitative and narrative literature “to generate a preliminary list [of] items” (Zhang, While, & Norman, 2012, p. 2638) for the P-PECS and COIS. The initial, and subsequent expert, content validation survey items in the P-PECS and COIS consisted of item stems and response choices. The item stems were comprised of phrases and full sentences such as “At work,” “One reason that I..,” and “I believe that I have.” The initial and expert reviewed P-PECS and COIS item response choices were based on relevant-to-irrelevant measurement dimensions and formatted on a 4-point Likert-type scale. The number of items to be included on the P-PECS and COIS was not pre-determined and emerged as the instruments evolved. Attention was, however, devoted to ensuring that the range of the content areas on the initial P-PECS and COIS were broad and adequately represented.

A full listing of the 29 initial items in the P-PECS are listed in Appendix F, but included items such as: “At work, my class origin has limited my opportunities for advancement,” “My accomplishments are not acknowledged and rewarded in the professoriate because of my class origin,” and “I do not get what I deserve in the professoriate because of my class origin.” Similarly, a complete list of the 10 initial potential class origin identity salience items on the COIS are listed in Appendix D. Those items included questions such as: “I identify with people who grew up in the same class origin as I did,” “I am like all the other people from the class origin that I grew up in,” and “The class origin that I grew up in is an important reflection of who I am.” The preliminary list of P-PECS and COIS items were reviewed by the researcher’s dissertation committee chair, to evaluate whether the items on the instruments represented the domains of classism and class origin identity salience. The researcher’s dissertation committee

chair also assessed the phraseology, understandability, and rating categories to be used by a subsequent panel of professors to evaluate the items on the P-PECS and COIS. No recommendations for revision of the items were made by the researcher's dissertation committee chair.

With regard to the placement of the demographic items in the survey protocol, the researcher followed the recommendations of Teclaw, Price, and Osatuke (2012). Those authors noted that "placing the demographic questions at the beginning [of a survey] yielded higher item response rates for the demographic items...and led to more completeness of the demographic questions" (p. 286).

Scale Development of the P-PECS and COIS

According to Dawis (1987) scale development involves the collection of data, using earlier versions of an emergent scale to identify and select items that could have utility in final versions of scales. Developing the P-PECS and the COIS involved several phases of activity, including: (a) a content validation review, (b) judgment-quantification by a panel of expert reviewers, (c) ensuring item clarity, (d) assessing inter-rater agreement, and (e) computing item and scale content validity indices.

Content Validation of the P-PECS and COIS. After identifying the dimensions of *classism* and *class origin identity salience*, a panel of professors from the disciplines of counselor education, counseling, and psychology were identified to request their service as content validation panel members, i.e., in rating the relevance of the initial items in the P-PECS and COIS. The professors identified as prospective content validation panel members were either personally known to the researcher or recommended by the researcher's dissertation committee chair. The professors' email addresses were located by visiting the faculty and staff

directories of each prospective reviewer's institution's university webpages or provided by the researcher's dissertation committee chair.

A total of 75 emails were distributed to potential content validation panel members during the summer of 2014. The emails invited the professors to assist with rating the initial items on the P-PECS and COIS as part of the researcher's larger goal of developing valid and reliable instruments with which to measure perceptions of personal experience with classism and class origin identity salience among college and university professors. The email also advised the professors that they could click on a hyperlink located at the end of the email to be redirected to the Qualtrics Survey Software website where the initial P-PECS and COIS instrument items were available for review and rating.

The Qualtrics Survey Software website, where the initial items in the P-PECS and COIS were available for review and rating, provided content validity panel members with a set of instructions, clarifying how to rate the items in the P-PECS and COIS e.g., in terms of their readability and theoretical soundness and using a four point Likert type scale. Rating options ranged from 1 = The item is not representative of Classism (or Class Origin Identity Salience) to 4 = The item is highly representative of Classism (or Class Origin Identity Salience). An open ended question was available at the end of the survey for the panel members to offer suggestions for modifying any items that they felt were incongruent with the conceptual definitions of classism or class origin identity salience or that appeared to be unrepresentative of the domains of classism or class origin identity salience. Four professors completed the process of rating the initial pool of items in the P-PECS and COIS.

Items that were rated by at least two professors as "*not representative*" or "*somewhat representative*" of the concept of classism or class origin identity salience were eliminated from

the initial potential item pool. Moreover, using the ratings and feedback provided by the professors, the initial set of items in the P-PECS was reduced from 29 items to 14 items, and the initial number of items in the COIS was reduced from 10 to 5. Examples of items that were retained in revised P-PECS included: “At work, my class origin has limited my opportunities for advancement” and “At work, I have heard people make jokes about people from working-class and poverty-class origins.” Examples of items retained in the COIS included: “I identify with people who grew up in the same class origin as I did” and “I feel good about my class origin group, compared to other class origin groups.” The items that were eliminated from the initial P-PECS and COIS pools were rated by the professors as being irrelevant to the concept of classism or class origin identity salience. The survey containing the initial potential items on the P-PECS and the COIS was available on the Qualtrics Survey Software website for approximately four weeks during the summer of 2014.

Following the initial content validity panel’s ratings of the initial pool of items in the P-PECS and COIS, an updated online survey protocol of the measures was created in the Qualtrics Survey Software. The update was done in anticipation of the revised scales being subsequently rated by a content validity *expert* review panel of counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors. Grant and Davis (1997) termed the content validity review of instrument items by a panel of experts as a process of “judgment-quantification” (p. 269). The next section of this chapter describes the judgment-quantification process conducted in the development of the P-PECS and COIS.

Judgment-Quantification. The judgment-quantification phase in the development of the P-PECS and COIS involved an evaluation of the individual items on both scales, as well as an evaluation of each scale as a whole, by a panel of counselor education, counseling, and

psychology experts. The judgment-quantification activities were conducted via a pilot study conducted during the summer of 2014, assessing “the degree to which [the P-PECS and COIS] scale[s had] an appropriate sample of items to represent the construct[s] of interest – that is, whether the domain of content for the construct[s were] adequately represented by the items” (Polit et al., p. 459). Professors were considered *experts* if they had well-established histories of publication in peer reviewed journals, conducting presentations at national conferences or symposiums, and/or conducting research on multicultural, social justice, or class-related subjects (Grant & Davis, 1997).

In terms of determining the number of professors that would be needed to comprise the panel of experts, the recommendations of Grant and Davis (1997) were followed. According to those authors, although some scholars contend that “a minimum of 3 content experts [are needed to establish content validity, any number of content experts from]...2 to 20” (p. 270) is sufficient to establish the content validity of an instrument. Twenty-six professors from the academic disciplines of counselor education, counseling, and psychology were identified and recruited to serve as experts in the content validation process of the P-PECS and COIS. The experts were identified by the number of *hits*, i.e., the recurrence of their names in the scholarly literature associated with articles on, for instance, the subjects of class, classism, or social identity development. Experts were also identified by recommendation of members of the researchers’ dissertation committee chair.

Emails were sent to the prospective content validity experts, inviting them to assist with the content validation phase of the P-PECS and COIS. Prospective experts’ email addresses were located by accessing the faculty and staff directory of their academic institution’s website. Within the introductory email, several key pieces of information were provided, including that

their participation was needed to assess the clarity and utility of the items on the P-PECS and COIS and the significance of the development of the scales to the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates. The email also provided a hyperlink which redirected the potential experts to the Qualtrics Survey Software website where the items were available for review and rating. After being directed to the survey, potential experts were provided with the conceptual definitions of the constructs of classism and class origin identity salience and the instructions for selecting their ratings regarding the clarity and precision of the items on the P-PECS and COIS. An item was also included that asked if the expert would be willing to provide further assistance with developing the P-PECS and COIS.

The instructions for rating the individual items on the P-PECS and COIS asked the content validation experts to rate each item using a four point Likert type scale, with responses ranging from 1 = The item is not representative of Classism (or Class Origin Identity Salience) to 4 = The item is highly representative of Classism (or Class Origin Identity Salience). An item was also located at the end of the survey for the experts to make recommendations for any modifications to the items on the P-PECS and COIS (e.g., if or which items were inconsistent with the conceptual definitions that were provided or unrepresentative of the content domains of classism or class origin identity salience) (Grant & Davis, 1997). There was also an item located at the end of the survey which asked if the experts would be willing to continue to assist the researcher with the construction of items in the P-PECS and COIS.

In all, six professors agreed to serve as content validation experts; however, only three experts fully completed their ratings of items on the P-PECS and COIS. Moreover, only one expert agreed to continue assisting the researcher with the development and evaluation of items on the instruments.

Assessing Item Clarity and Inter-Rater Agreement. The researcher computed the level of inter-rater agreement among the panel of experts, in terms of their opinions about the relevance and representativeness of items on the P-PECS and COIS. Consensus among the experts was calculated as “all items rated 1 or 2...and...3 or 4 by panel members...divided by the total number of items on the instruments” (Grant & Davis, 1997, p. 273). Levels of acceptable inter-rater agreement noted in the literature range from .70 to .80 (Grant & Davis, 1997). Items that were rated by at least two professors as “*not representative*” or “*somewhat representative*” (i.e., rated as a 1 or 2 by the experts) of the concept of classism or class origin identity salience were immediately eliminated from the potential item pool because they were considered as either severely lacking in item clarity or to be flatly unrepresentative of the constructs of interest. Levels of inter-rater agreement on the P-PECS and COIS items among the experts were computed for all of the items on both instruments.

Item and Scale Content Validity Index Computation. Scale and item content validity indices were computed in the P-PECS and COIS. The purpose of the item and scale content validity computations was to inform the researcher’s decision making about whether any remaining items on the instrument needed to be revised or rejected (Polit et al., 2007), using the experts’ ratings of the relevance and representativeness of items. The process for computing an item’s content validity index (I-CVI) was derived by the number of experts who provided item ratings of either a 3 or 4 divided by the number of experts on the review and rating panel. Computed I-CVIs are deemed acceptable if they reveal a pattern of overall concurrence about the relevance and representativeness of an item on an instrument (Polit et al., 2007). For instance, “an item rated as ‘quite’ or ‘highly’ relevant” (Polit et al., 2007, p. 460) by seven out of nine experts on a content validator expert panel would have a computed I-CVI of .88. According to

Polit et al. (2007), “items with an I-CVI somewhat lower than .78 would be considered candidates for revision, and those with very low values would be candidates for deletion” (p. 460).

With regard to computing scale content validity indices (S-CVI) the approach of computing the I-CVIs for each item on an instrument then computing the average I-CVI across items has been recommended (Polit et al., 2007). This approach is referred to as S-CVI/Ave, i.e., scale content validity index average (Polit et al., 2006). Researchers recommend this approach because other methods, such as the Scale Content Validity Index/Universal Agreement (S-CVI/UA) is “overly stringent...[and it] become[s] more difficult to achieve as the number of experts increases” (Polit et al., 2007, p. 467). Polit et al. (2007) noted that “the S-CVI/Ave is attractive not only because it avoids these problems but also because it inherently embodies information about the performance of each item through the averaging feature” (p. 467). According to Polit et al. (2007) “for...instruments...to be judged as having *excellent* scale content validity, [they should] be composed of items that [have] I-CVIs of .78 or higher and an S-CVI/Ave of .90 or higher” (Polit et al., 2007, p. 467).

The comments offered by the experts regarding the items on the P-PECS and COIS revealed that one of the experts believed that the terms “professoriate” and “class origin” needed to be substituted with the terms “academy” and “background,” respectively. The expert’s opinion in this regard was based on the premise that although the intended population for use with the P-PECS and COIS was university professors and scholars, the terms professoriate and class origin seemed “overly academic and suggested airs of elitism and classist attitudes in and of themselves.” Another expert recommended that several items be reworded, i.e., condensed to ensure that participants were clear about what portion of a given question that they were to

respond to on the P-PECS and COIS. The expert who made that recommendation also recommended that several items be created in the P-PECS to focus on interpersonal problems between professors in the professoriate. The third expert did not offer any comments, including as it pertains to any recommendations for revision to items on the P-PECS or COIS. Only one of the three experts indicated a willingness to further assist with the development of the P-PECS and COIS. The researcher in this study followed the recommendations offered by both of the experts.

Rating Categories on the Final P-PECS and COIS. Among the factors that instrument developers must consider in the construction of psychometric measures is whether or not an emergent scale will be comprised of an odd or even number of categorical rating points. A “middle category [allows] respondents to indicate a neutral response and be more discriminating in their response[s; thus,] making the scale scores more reliable and the scale more preferred by subjects” (Adleson & McCoach, p. 797). Other, and somewhat related factors in terms of selecting rating categories on an emergent scale pertain to issues of *granularity* and *coarseness*. Granularity refers to how many response categories (i.e., answer choices) will be available to respondents in a scale; coarseness refers to the availability of so few rating categories in a scale that study respondents are limited in their ability to apply the discriminative strengths that they often possess when responding to items on a measure (Matell & Jacoby, 1971). Some researchers contend that higher levels of granularity can accomplish three primary and interrelated goals: insuring that more accurate data is collected, promoting the reliability and validity of study data, and – through the purview of statistical analysis – promoting the collection of more useful data (Pearse, 2011). An instrument developer’s selection of the level of granularity of a scale can impact the reliability and validity of an emergent measure (Pearse,

2011). Reliability refers to “the proportion of scale score variance that is not error variance; validity [refers to]...the proportion of scale score variance that accurately represents the construct or the proportion of criterion variance that is predicted by the scale” (Dawis, 1987, p. 486).

Dawis (1987) noted that “2-, 3, or 5- point [rating] scales are the most common” (p. 482); however, there are varying opinions in the literature about what constitutes an optimal number of response categories (Adelson & McCoach, 2010; Smithson, 2006; Weijters, Cabooter & Schillewaert, 2010). For instance, Symonds (1924) contended that a 7-point rating scale was optimal because instrument developers’ use of any rating categories greater than 7 would result in increases in reliability so negligible that it would not be worth the additional research effort to pursue. Pearse (2011) tested the utility of a 21-point rating scale and reported study findings suggesting that the use of a scale with a higher number of response categories is useful to respondents and by implication to study results. The basis for those authors’ assertions was that respondents would have a wider range of response options to choose from. Adelson and McCoach (2010) reported study findings indicating that a 5-point rating scale is preferable to a 4-point rating scale.

Associated with the reliability of a measure is the fact that study data derived from measures with higher levels of granularity are reported to be more likely to yield meaningful results during statistical analyses (Pearse, 2011). Yet, it seems counterintuitive that just as it is true in physical measurement, that it is of no use to utilize a scale more discerning than the ability of the human eye to see, it is also of no use to utilize a scale in psychological ratings that are more refined than a respondent’s ability to discriminate (Symonds, 1924). In addition, a measure that is comprised of a high number of response category ratings will be more

complicated and lengthen the amount of time that it will take for respondents to select an answer choice and thus complete a survey (Pearse, 2011).

Based upon the foregoing facts, a 5-point categorical rating scale was selected to comprise the P-PECS and COIS. Response options on the P-PECS and COIS range from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. See Figure 1 and Figure 2, respectively. The rationale for the use of 5-point rating categories on the P-PECS and COIS was based upon the fact that the sample in this study are university professors. The work-related demands of professors can be intense; thus, asking them to expend an excessive amount of time responding to a complicated and lengthy measure could result in potential respondents' declining to participate in the study or higher rates of incomplete surveys. A low response rate could impact the researcher's ability to test the utility of the P-PECS and COIS and to contribute to the knowledge on perceptions of experience with classism in the professoriate. The range of scores possible on the P-PECS spans from 12-60. The range of scores possible on the COIS spans from 7-35.

1=Strongly Disagree	2=Disagree	3=No Opinion	4=Agree Disagree	5=Strongly Agree
Endorsement indicates the respondent is very low in perception of personal experience with classism	Endorsement indicates the respondent is below average in perception of personal experience with classism	Endorsement does not tell anything about the respondent's perception of personal experience with classism	Endorsement indicates the respondent is above average in perception of personal experience with classism	Endorsement indicates the respondent is very high in perception of personal experience with classism

Figure 1. P-PECS Likert Type Rating Scale Descriptions

1=Strongly Disagree	2=Disagree	3=No Opinion	4=Agree Disagree	5=Strongly Agree
Endorsement indicates the respondent is very low in class origin identity salience	Endorsement indicates the respondent is below average in class origin identity salience	Endorsement does not tell anything about the respondent's level of class origin identity salience	Endorsement indicates the respondent is above average in class origin identity salience	Endorsement indicates the respondent is very high in class origin identity salience

Figure 2. COIS Likert Type Rating Scale Descriptions

After the content validity of the P-PECS and COIS was determined, a revised survey protocol containing the final versions of the instruments were posted on the Qualtrics Survey Software website. The goal of placing the survey online was in preparation for the assessment of the validity and reliability of the instruments, using a sample of counselor education professors identified using the CACREP listing online. Counseling and psychology professors were identified from the same schools that were identified via the CACREP listing online for the counselor educators.

The next section of this chapter involves a discussion of the participants, instrumentation, procedures, and statistical analysis characterizing that study.

Research Phase II: Scale Evaluation

Following the experts' evaluation of the items in the P-PECS and COIS, an online construct validation, or reliability, survey was conducted using the final versions of the P-PECS and COIS to a sample of counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors. The next section of this chapter involves a discussion of the scale evaluation of the P-PECS and COIS.

Participants

A convenience sample of counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors were recruited for participation in a study to assess the reliability of the P-PECS and COIS. Prospective participants were drawn from a stratified random sample of Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) accredited counseling Master's degree and counselor education and supervision doctoral degree programs [at public or private, not-for-profit, colleges and universities of any size (i.e., smaller, medium, and larger programs)] (Carnegie Classification, 2010). Professors in counseling and psychology departments from the same institutions as the participants from the CACREP institutions. Counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors who teach at online and for-profit institutions were excluded from study participation. The reason for the exclusion of professors at these institutions was because the literature focused on the professorial experiences of faculty at these types of schools is at best sparse and some authors have posited that the structure of the teaching faculty tends to be comprised of adjunct or other instructor-level statuses. To avoid any confusion in the findings from this research because of any unknowns or differences in professorial hierarchies the focus was kept on not-for-profit colleges and universities. A prospective participant's for-profit institution employment status was determined by their response on one question in the study qualifications and informed consent portion on the survey protocol. The question asked prospective participants whether or not they are employed by a for-profit college or university (see Appendix B).

As it pertains to sample size, findings in the extant literature reveal variations in recommendations for determining sample size for exploratory factor analysis (Floyd and Widaman, 1995), as was used in this study. Some authors have argued in favor of “the use of

subject-to-variable ratios ranging from 3 to 20 subjects per variable and absolute sample size standards from 100 to more than 1,000” (Black et al., 2007, p. 20). A power analysis was calculated based on a large effect size and a power of .95 and a sample of a minimum of 95 participants was needed to conduct this study. Power analysis calculated for multiple regression with three predictor variables at .95 was 49.

Recruitment

Permission to conduct this study was obtained from the Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects (IRB) at The University of Alabama. The research did not begin until after the IRB had granted the researcher with permission to conduct this study. Study participants were recruited using an introductory email distributed by identifying prospective participants’ university email addresses from their institution’s departmental faculty directory.

The invitation to participate email included a brief synopsis of the survey, purpose of the study, estimated time required to complete the survey, and a hyperlink which redirected prospective participants to the survey online (i.e., via the Qualtrics Survey Software website). After being redirected to the survey online, participants were asked to read the informed consent information provided and to provide their consent to participate by entering the current calendar date in the space designated in the survey protocol. The data collection period was during summer 2014. The demographic questionnaire, P-PECS, and COIS (as was presented in the survey online) are described below.

The first three items on the survey protocol requested information from participants to establish their qualifications to participate in this study. In order, the items asked participants if they were at least 19 years-old, if they were employed by a public/private or for-profit institution, and to distinguish their academic discipline (i.e., counselor education, counseling,

psychology program, or other). If a prospective participant indicated that they were not at least 19 years-old, that they were employed by a for-profit institution, or not employed by a counselor education, counseling, or psychology program, they were automatically redirected to the end of the study survey and thanked for their participation in the study. After participants' qualifications to participate in the study was established they were presented with more detailed information regarding the study and the informed consent information. The information outlined: (a) the rationale and purpose of the research, (b) the estimated period of time that it would take to complete the survey, and (c) the risks and benefits of participating in this human subjects research. The informed consent information advised prospective participants that they could decline to take part in the study or discontinue their participation in the study at any time, with no penalty, until they clicked "submit" at the end of the survey because data was immediately summarized and could not be individually retrieved.

However, participants' identities in this study were not known and no identifiable information about the participants was accumulated or distributed. Two reminder emails were forwarded to prospective participants at their university email accounts, in three week intervals, over a total of six weeks of data collection time. The instructions and information included in the reminder emails was identical to the information included in the introductory email. The survey website was deactivated after six weeks of data collection.

There was minimal risk and no cost to participants to be involved with this study. Data collected in this research is stored in a locked, fire resistant, file cabinet in the researcher's home office in Cottdale, Alabama. The researcher is the only person in possession of a key that will open the file cabinet. IRB approval was obtained from the University of Alabama before any data collection occurred in this research.

Security Measures Regarding Data Collection and Storage. All data collected from participants in this study was transmitted in encrypted format. This helped to insure that any data intercepted during the data collection transmission process could not be decoded and that each participant's responses could not be tracked back to them. The level of security for the data collection in this study also included secure socket layer (SSL) and certified digital signatures for informed consent. The informed consent information advised prospective participants that they could decline to take part in the study or discontinue their participation in the study at any time, with no penalty, until they clicked "submit" at the end of the survey because data was immediately summarized and could not be individually retrieved. Two buttons were located at the end of the survey, one that allowed participants to dispose of the data and the other to submit the data for inclusion in the study. The survey instruments in this study were formatted to allow participants to skip questions if they wished. Participants' identities were not known and no identifiable information about the participants was accumulated or distributed.

A copy of the study data is stored on the University of Alabama faculty computer of the principal investigator's dissertation committee chair, Dr. Rick Houser, where it will remain for a minimum of three years. Study data has not been housed on any server, including any server belonging to the principal investigator's dissertation committee chair or the University of Alabama, as this study did not involve more than minimal risk. A back-up of the data is, however, stored on the personal computer of the principal investigator which requires a password, which is only known to the principal investigator, to access. Competent data destruction services will be used to insure that no data can be recovered from obsolete electronic media.

Security Protections of the Survey Software System. The online survey tool, Qualtrics Survey Software, was used in this study. This research was minimal risk and did not involve the collection of sensitive data. Qualtrics Survey Software offered the SSL encryption that was needed for and used in this study. At the same time, although Qualtrics Survey Software has an option that allows researchers to save a participant's IP address in their results, which could be used to track the survey by IP address, no IP addresses were tracked in this study. To accomplish this, the researcher selected "no" for the option in Qualtrics Survey Software for collecting IP addresses in this study, effectively precluding tracking information from being collected, and the research results were as a result completely anonymous. Participants' identities are not known and no identifiable information about the participants has been accumulated or distributed. The informed consent information advised participants that "Your confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the internet by any third parties."

Instrumentation

Data was obtained in this research via a self-reported survey, administered online, in English, using Qualtrics Survey Software. The instrumentation used in this study followed the Informed Consent information online.

Demographic Questionnaire

After being redirected to the survey online, participants were requested to provide demographic information about themselves. The demographic items included participants' first generation college student status, age, gender, race/ethnicity, and faculty rank. The demographic items are listed in Appendix C.

Perceived Personal Experience with Classism Scale (P-PECS)

The Perceived Personal Experience with Classism Scale (P-PECS) (see Appendix H) was used for data collection regarding participants' perceived personal experiences with classism in the professoriate. The P-PECS is comprised of 12 items that were developed based upon a review of the scholarly literature and an item review, in two rounds of content validation processes, by a panel of counselor education, counseling and psychology professors. Sample items on the P-PECS included items such as: "I believe the college/university from which I graduated is seen by others as inferior," and "At work, some people have class background stereotypes and treat me as if they were true." The P-PECS requested that participants indicate their response to each item presented on a 5-point Likert type scale with response options ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was selected to assess the internal consistency reliability of the P-PECS. According to Zhang, While, and Norman (2012), "values of Cronbach's alpha above .70 are considered to be indicative of good internal reliability" (p. 2640) i.e., consistency. The range of scores possible on the P-PECS spans from 12-60.

Class Origin Identity Salience (COIS) Scale

The Class Origin Identity Salience (COIS) scale was used to assess the salience of participants' class origin identities (see Appendix I). The COIS is comprised of 7 items that were developed based upon a review of the scholarly literature and reviewed in a two-round content validation process by a panel of counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors. Examples of items on the COIS include items such as: "I identify with people who grew up in the same class origin as I did," and "The class origin attitudes and values I learned growing up inform my reactions to members of other class groups." The COIS requested that

participants indicate their response to each item presented on a 5-point Likert type scale with response options ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. Cronbach’s coefficient alpha was selected to assess the internal consistency reliability of the COIS. As previously stated, “values of Cronbach’s alpha above .70 are considered to be indicative of good internal reliability” (p. 2640) i.e., consistency. The range of scores possible on the COIS span from 7-35.

Open Ended Item

An open-ended item was placed at the end of the survey protocol for participants to add other information that they may have deemed relevant to note in connection with the study. Participants were instructed, parenthetically, in the directions for responding to the open-ended question to avoid including any identifiable information about themselves or their employer/university in the space provided.

Research Questions	Analyses
Is the Perceived Personal Experience with Classism Scale (P-PECS) valid and reliable in assessing perceived personal experience with classism?	Item Analysis Construct/ Content Validity via Experts Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha Exploratory Factor Analysis
Is the Class Origin Identity Saliency (COIS) scale valid and reliable in assessing class origin identity saliency?	Item Analysis Construct/ Content Validity via Experts Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha Exploratory Factor Analysis
Is there a relationship between professors’ class origin identity saliency and perceptions of perceived personal experience with classism in the professoriate?	Simple Linear Regression Analysis
Are there differences in perceived personal experience with classism by working-class/poverty-class and middle-class/upper-class professors?	Independent Samples t-test

Figure 3. Research Questions and Analyses

Procedures

As noted above, the method used to recruit study participants was via locating counselor educators' email addresses using the CACREP online listing of counseling Master's degree and counselor education and supervision doctoral degree programs (<http://www.cacrep.org/directory>). Professors in counseling and psychology departments from the same institutions as the participants from the CACREP institutions were included in this study. The addresses were then entered into the Qualtrics Survey Software database created by the researcher for this study. Participants' responses were automatically uploaded, via a Microsoft Excel document converted into a CSV file, into the Qualtrics Survey Software database for this survey.

After all of the faculty email addresses had been compiled into the Qualtrics Survey Software database created for this research, prospective participants were sent the Introductory Email (see Appendix A) and asked to click on the hyperlink located at the end of the introductory email to be automatically redirected to the study survey online. Participants were expected to be able to complete the survey in one session using the Qualtrics Survey Software. The body of the introductory email contained information regarding informed consent, and advised participants that their study participation was voluntary, anonymous, and confidential. Individuals indicated their qualifications to participate, consent, and agreement to participate in the study, via their electronic signature (i.e., by entering the current date in a space designated on item number three) on the study protocol.

The introductory email also contained information advising prospective participants that they could opt out of or discontinue their study participation at any time with no penalty, until they clicked "submit" at the end of the survey because data was immediately summarized and

could not be individually retrieved. The information also clarified that participants' identities in this study would not be known and no facts that could in any way identify participants would be accumulated or be distributed, and that by entering the date in the area designated on the study protocol for Informed Consent, participants would be verifying their consent to participate in the study. Participants were advised to click on the hyperlink located at the end of the introductory email to begin the survey.

The survey in this study remained available online for six weeks during the summer of 2014. Introductory emails (see Appendix A) were sent to potential study participants via email, using their university email account. Two follow-up (reminder) emails were forwarded to all potential respondents to this study (see Appendix J), in three week intervals, of data collection activity. At the end of the data collection period, the survey website was deactivated and the survey data was retrieved using the Qualtrics Survey Software.

Statistical Analysis

Following the completion of the conceptual design and construction of the P-PECS and COIS, the instruments' psychometric properties were assessed. Multiple phases of statistical analyses were conducted using the data that was collected in this research to ascertain factor pattern and reliability of the COIS and P-PECS. The following section of this chapter describes each of those activities. Notably, prior to performing any data analyses conditions for retaining and excluding cases were established to ensure that data were adequate for analysis. Data screening and all statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 22.0.

The conditions for retaining cases was: (a) participants were counselor educators employed at public or private CACREP accredited Master's or doctoral degree granting institutions. Professors employed by counseling and psychology programs at the same

institutions as the counselor educators were included as study participants; (b) participants responded on all of the informed consent and demographic items, with the exception of age, in the questionnaire; and (c) participants responded on the majority of the items on the COIS and P-PECS (having 3 or fewer items missing on either measure). Consequently, cases that did not meet the criteria for case retention and were excluded.

Data Screening

Data screening involved several steps, including examining the P-PECS and COIS data for missing data, outliers, and normality of distributions. Frequency tables and histograms were used to identify questionable scores across all variables on the P-PECS and COIS, in light of the range of scores possible for each variable on each measure. The potential problem of missing data was addressed by substituting the group means for items with missing values. Researchers tend to use this solution because the group mean for missing data is regarded as being representative of the average of that item. The presence and impact of outliers in the data set were assessed via inspection of the outlier labeling rule proposed by Hoaglin, Iglewicz, & Tukey (1987), which computes the lower and upper bounds of values for identifying a case as being an extreme value and hence an outlier. Lastly, the normality of the distribution of the data sets in this study was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality.

Before proceeding with conducting a factor analysis with the P-PECS and COIS, an assessment of the factorability of the data collected in this study was conducted. According to Tinsley and Tinsley (1987), after researchers have opined that factor analysis is the correct approach for accomplishing their study goals, several characteristics of a data matrix need to be examined to ensure its adequacy for factor analysis. Those characteristics include an assessment

of the “composition of the data matrix,...the sample size,..., and the significance of the matrix” (Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987, p. 415).

In terms of assessing the significance of the matrix, a Bartlett’s test of sphericity was performed. The Bartlett’s test of sphericity examines whether “the sample correlation matrix came from a multivariate normal population in which the variables of interest are independent” (Dziuban & Shirkey, 1974, p. 358). A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) procedure, an index for assessing sampling adequacy, was also performed to assess whether “the variables belong together psychometrically and thus whether the correlation is appropriate for factor analysis” (Dzibuan & Shirkey, 1974, p. 359). The results of these evaluations are presented and discussed in Chapter IV of this dissertation.

Factor Analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used to evaluate the internal structure of the P-PECS and COIS. EFA allows for the identification of “the underlying dimensions of a domain of functioning, as assessed by a particular measuring instrument” (Floyd & Widaman, 1995, p. 286). The rationale for the use of EFA in this study was buttressed by the fact that a paucity of studies have sought to examine the constructs of perceived classism and class origin identity salience. The pertinence of the utilization of EFA in research geared toward instrument construction was noted by Floyd and Widaman (1995) who stated that EFA “is exploratory because, presumably, the investigator has no firm a priori expectations based on theory or prior research about the composition of the subscales, and thus the analysis is used to discover the latent variables that underlie the scale” (p. 286). As the goal of this research was to examine the presence of the underlying dimensions of the P-PECS and COIS, EFA emerged as an appropriate and adequate means of research exploration.

According to Floyd and Widaman (1995), conducting research using EFA as a part of its statistical analyses requires undertaking a series of steps which include estimating, or extracting, factors; determining the number of factors to retain; and “rotating factors to an interpretable orientation” (p. 287). Procedurally, EFA is comprised of two main methodologies: principal components analysis and common factor analysis. The common factor analysis approach was chosen for this study because among its primary aims is to “understand the relations among a set of measured variables in terms of underlying latent variables” (p. 290).

Several factor extraction methods were considered, including maximum likelihood and principal component analysis. Yet, principal axis factoring appeared to offer the most utility in revealing the simple structure of the P-PECS and COIS. Simple structure, or simple fit, can be understood as occurring when variables are found to load on as few a number of factors as possible (Kim & Mueller, 1978).

As it pertains to determining the number of factors to retain, three approaches were utilized: a scree test, parallel analysis, and the Eigenvalue Greater Than 1.00 rule (Floyd & Widaman, 1995; Zwick & Velicer, 1986). With a scree test, the “eigenvalues of...unrotated factors are plotted on a coordinate plane and [then] the slope of the line connecting them is examined” (Floyd & Widaman, 1995, p. 292). The criteria for retaining factors using the scree test is that eigenvalues “falling above the line are retained” (Zwick & Velicer, 1986, p. 434). In terms of parallel analysis, “a sample-based adaptation of the population-based [Eigenvalues greater than 1.00 rule, holds that the] components of the matrix of interest, which have eigenvalues greater than those of the comparison random matrix, [sh]ould be retained” (Zwick & Velicer, 1986, p. 434). Parallel analysis “involves extracting eigenvalues from random data sets that parallel the actual data set with regard to the number of cases and variables” (O’Connor,

2000, p. 397). According to Coovert and McNelis (1988), “graphically, the point at which the plots of observed and random eigenvalues overlap is examined. ...Those factors accounting for more variance than the corresponding factors generated from random data are retained” (Coovert & McNelis, 1988, p. 690). The Eigenvalues Greater than 1.0 rule (also referred to as the K1 method and likely the most widely utilized by researchers, holds that factors with eigenvalues at or above 1.0 should be retained (Zwick & Velicer, 1986).

After extraction, the remaining factors were rotated, using a promax oblique procedure – “in which the factors [were] allowed to correlate - ...to simple structure to make them more interpretable” (Floyd & Widaman, 1995, p. 292). According to Floyd and Widaman (1995), investigators are encouraged to consider oblique solutions, as opposed to orthogonal solutions in which factors are not allowed to correlate, because “the oblique simple structure may be more compelling...[and] the investigator can experiment with allowing various amounts of correlation among factors” (p. 292). The promax rotation procedure was used to more clearly identify the factors on the P-PECS and COIS. The promax rotation method is an oblique procedure which begins as an orthogonal rotation and then if the factors are uncorrelated they will remain uncorrelated. If, however, the factors are correlated the promax method “finesses the solution with an oblique rotation” (Kahn, 2006, p. 697) and an oblique rotation will result. It was anticipated that the factors on the P-PECS and COIS would be correlated. Thus, by using an oblique procedure the factors would be correlated with each other.

Before interpreting and reporting the factor structures of the P-PECS and COIS, an acceptable level for the rotated factor structures of the instruments needed to be determined. In that regard, the recommendations of Floyd and Widaman (1995) were followed. That is, for “factor loadings [to be] considered...meaningful...they [needed to] exceed .30 or .40” (p. 292).

Only the items which loaded and were regarded as enhancing the overall interpretability of the P-PECS and COIS were retained. The factors were then defined through consideration of plausible theoretical underpinnings that might account for the noted pattern of positive and negative loadings (DeCoster, 1998). Results of the factor analysis are presented in tabular form, in Chapter IV of this dissertation.

Reliability

A review of the Cronbach's alphas for the P-PECS and COIS was performed to assess the reliability of the instruments. Specifically, the Cronbach's alphas were computed for the P-PECS and COIS to determine which items, and in what way, the items contributed to the overall scales. A Cronbach's alpha of at least .70 was regarded as indicative of an acceptable level of reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Cronbach's alpha for the full P-PECS and COIS measures are reported in tabular form in Chapter IV of this dissertation.

Total Scores on the P-PECS and COIS

Mean scores were used to compute total scores on the P-PECS and COIS, rather than sums of scores on the scales. This approach was selected because it allowed the researcher to address the problem of missing data when using computer software. According to Wuensch (2012), "with some computer software, when you command the program to compute the sum of a certain set of variables (responses to individual items), it will treat missing data (items on which the respondent indicated [a] no answer) as zeros," (p. 5) and significantly distort researchers' data. Wuensch (2012) recommends that researchers command the computer software to eliminate the data from any participant "who has missing data on more than some specified number of items (for example, more than 1 out of 10 items)" (p. 5). The total score is then defined "as being the mean of the items which were answered. This is equivalent to

replacing a missing data point with a mean of the subject's responses on the other items in that scale" (Wuensch, 2012, p. 5). If every item on the scale are assessing the same construct, then this approach is considered a reasonable procedure (Wuensch, 2012).

Simple Linear Regression

Simple linear regression analysis was used to assess whether there is a relationship between counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors' class origin identities and perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate. In the regression analysis the predictor, or independent variable, was class origin identity salience and perception of personal experience with classism was the criterion, or dependent variable.

Independent Samples T Test

An independent samples t-test was used to compare the mean differences on the dependent variable, perceptions of personal experience with classism, between working-class/poverty-class and middle-class/upper-class professors. The goal of this assessment was to determine whether the means of the two groups are statistically different from each other on the variable of perceived personal experience with classism. The evaluation assessed whether those two groups differed in any significant way from one another on the P-PECS. For the purposes of this analysis, total scores computed from the P-PECS were utilized.

Results of the data analysis from this dissertation are presented and discussed in Chapter IV.

Summary

The intent of this chapter was to outline the methods that were used to conduct the research in this dissertation. Moreover, this chapter specified the research design that was used in this study. A description of the survey respondents and measures, delineation of the research

questions, and the data collection and analysis strategies that were used in this research were discussed in this chapter. This study was conducted using a cross-sectional, descriptive instrument development research design.

CHAPTER IV:

RESULTS

This chapter involves a summary of the results of this study. This chapter begins with a report of the descriptive statistics revealed in this study, then presents the results from the factor analysis and reliability assessments of the P-PECS and COIS. Following that discussion, this chapter continues with a presentation of the findings from the examination of (a) the relationship between counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors' class origin identity salience and perceptions of personal experience with classism and (b) possible differences among working class/poverty class and middle class/upper class professors' perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate.

Descriptive Statistics

Three thousand eighteen (3,018) study recruitment emails were distributed to prospective study participants online. A total of 355 professors responded. Screening of the dataset required that survey responses from 92 professors be excluded because they had indicated that they were employed at a for-profit college or university. Four cases had to be deleted because the participant had indicated occupying a visiting lecturer, adjunct faculty, or other teaching status outside of the assistant, associate, or full professor hierarchy. Forty seven responses were excluded because the participant had not given informed consent. Seven cases were excluded because the participant had not completed any items on the P-PECS or COIS, although they had responded on the study qualifications and informed consent items.

After the data screening process was completed, there were 205 participants in this study. There were 115 women and 90 men. Ages ranged from 28 to 73 years-old (mean age = 46.1). The majority of participants reported being from middle-class/upper-class origins (n = 120, or 58%). Approximately 41.5% of participants (n = 85) reported being from working-class/poverty-class origins. In terms of ethnicity, 181 participants (88.3%) reported being White, 13 Black or African American (6.3%), 9 Asian (4.4%), and 2 American Indian or Alaska Native (1.0%). There were 56 full professors, 69 associate professors, and 80 assistant professors.

The next section of this chapter provides separate reports of the results from the factor analyses of the P-PECS and COIS.

Factor Analysis

P-PECS

Results from the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's Test of test of Sphericity affirmed the factorability of the dataset. The KMO measure revealed a finding of .838, and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity revealed a statistically significant finding ($\chi^2 = 666.978$, $df = 66$, $p = .000$). Moreover, results from the outlier labeling rule indicated that any noted outliers were not statistically significant.

A principal axis factor analysis with an oblique promax rotation was used on the 12-item P-PECS, to yield an interpretable factor solution. Principal axis factor analysis was used because prior research has indicated that it tends to result in more precise estimates and it is recommended for assessing latent factors (Kahn, 2006). Promax rotation was chosen because it was anticipated that the P-PECS items would be correlated.

In terms of the number of factors to retain, three factors were observed on the scree plot and three factors were found to have an Eigenvalue greater than 1.00 (see Figure 4 and Table 1,

respectively). Results of the parallel analysis (see Table 2) revealed that only one factor should be retained. Using some research interpretation and flexibility, a decision was made to proceed with the Eigenvalues greater than 1.00 criteria for determining the number of factors to retain (R. Houser, personal communication, September 24, 2014); but, using a forced two-factor solution. The rationale for the use of the forced two-factor solution was that two factors, as opposed to three, revealed a more interpretable solution and was characterized by themes which could “be supported in the literature” (R. Houser, personal communication, September 24, 2014). The two factor solution explained 45.6% of the variability in the initial 12 items. See Table 3 to review the descriptive statistics for the P-PECS. See Table 5 to review the skew values and range for the P-PECS.

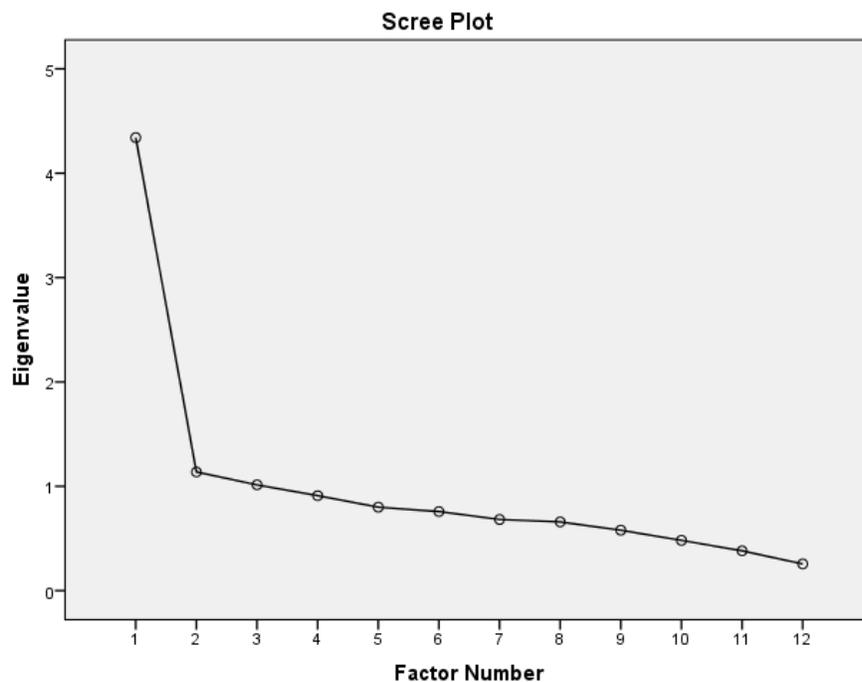


Figure 4. Scree Test for a 12-Factor Solution on the P-PECS

Table 1

Total Variance Explained by the Initial P-PECS Factor Extraction with 12-Factor Solution

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotated Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.341	36.176	36.176	3.745	31.211	31.211
2	1.137	9.476	45.652	.469	3.905	35.116
3	1.014	8.449	54.101			
4	.910	7.587	61.688			
5	.800	6.664	68.351			
6	.758	6.313	74.664			
7	.682	5.683	80.347			
8	.659	5.492	85.839			
9	.579	4.826	90.666			
10	.482	4.016	94.681			
11	.382	3.181	97.863			
12	.256	2.137	100.000			

Table 2

P-PECS Parallel Analysis Results

Actual Eigenvalues	Average Eigenvalues	95 th Percentile Eigenvalues
4.341	1.414	1.520
1.137	1.300	1.373
1.014	1.215	1.272
.910	1.142	1.194
.800	1.076	1.124
.758	1.015	1.057
.682	.957	1.001
.639	.899	.943
.579	.840	.887
.482	.780	.831
.382	.716	.769
.256	.641	.704

Table 3

P-PECS Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N
I believe the college/university from which I graduated is seen by others as inferior.	1.86	1.076	205
I believe my colleagues perceive a state university or college to be lesser than a private university or college.	2.36	1.096	205
At work, some people have class origin stereotypes and treat me as if they were true.	2.42	1.039	205
At work, some people make jokes about people from working- and lower-class backgrounds.	1.96	1.091	205
I believe my colleagues perceive faculty from working-and lower-class backgrounds as lacking scholarly capability and skill.	2.00	1.046	205
I believe my colleagues perceive talking about one's class background as a faux pas.	2.59	1.150	205
I believe my colleagues perceive my doctoral preparation as inferior.	1.60	.833	205
I believe my colleagues are uncomfortable talking about the experiences of faculty from working – or lower-class backgrounds.	2.18	1.081	205
At cocktail parties, some of my colleagues snub me because they believe I lack cultural refinement.	1.67	.906	205
I believe my colleagues perceive the academy functions optimally because it is a middle-/upper-class domain.	2.21	1.042	205
I believe my colleagues perceive using class background to promote faculty diversity thwarts meritocracy.	2.58	1.098	205
I believe my colleagues perceive faculty from working- and lower-class origins as nice, but incompetent.	1.79	.904	205

Table 4

Factor Loadings and Communalities for Exploratory Factor Analysis with Promax Rotation of Perceived Personal Experience with Classism Scale

Item	Devaluation and Minimization	Marginalization and Discounting	H^2
I believe the college/university from which I graduated is seen by others as inferior.	.743		.380
I believe my colleagues perceive a state university or college to be lesser than a private university or college.	.716		.202
At work, some people have class origin stereotypes and treat me as if they were true.	.666		.204
At work, some people make jokes about people from working- and lower-class backgrounds.	.576		.348
I believe my colleagues perceive faculty from working-and lower-class backgrounds as lacking scholarly capability and skill.	.515		.458
I believe my colleagues perceive talking about one's class background as a faux pas.	.500		.215
I believe my colleagues perceive my doctoral preparation as inferior.	.459		.293
I believe my colleagues are uncomfortable talking about the experiences of faculty from working – or lower-class backgrounds.	.427		.495
At cocktail parties, some of my colleagues snub me because they believe I lack cultural refinement.	.408		.329
I believe my colleagues perceive the academy functions optimally because it is a middle-/upper-class domain.		.733	.419
I believe my colleagues perceive using class background to promote faculty diversity thwarts meritocracy.		.508	.211
I believe my colleagues perceive faculty from working- and lower-class origins as nice, but incompetent.		.356	.659

Note: Factor loadings > .40 are in boldface.

Table 5

P-PECS Skew Values and Range

N	Valid	200
	Missing	5
Skewness		.482
Std. Error of Skewness		.172
Range		33.00

Table 4 depicts the rotated two-factor solution (and the communalities) in the P-PECS. The factor loadings were used to name the subscales on the P-PECS *devaluation and minimization* and *marginalization and discounting*, based on the aspect of perceived personal experience with classism the items were measuring.

Categorizing and Defining the P-PECS Factors

The following section of this chapter names and offers a summary of the two subscales yielded from the factor analysis of the P-PECS.

Subscale 1 – Devaluation and Minimization: Nine items loaded under the first P-PECS subscale and were characterized, thematically, by a set of items suggestive of what appears to be stereotypical attitudes regarding scholars from working-class/poverty-class origins, a downplaying of the persistence or pervasiveness of the problem of classism in the academy, and negative attitudes toward any discussion of class-related concerns within the professoriate. Examples of the items on the P-PECS that loaded under factor 1 included: “At work, some people have class background stereotypes and treat me as if they were true,” “I believe my colleagues perceive talking about one’s class background as a faux pas,” “I believe my colleagues perceive the academy as functioning optimally because it is a middle-/upper class

domain,” and “I believe my colleagues perceive using class background to promote faculty diversity thwarts meritocracy.” The internal consistency reliability estimates for this subscale was .82.

Subscale 2 – Marginalization and Discounting: Three items loaded under the second subscale. The items were characterized by a response pattern suggestive of views of working-class and poverty-class professors as being unqualified to participate in the professoriate, based upon some scholars’ perceptions that they had attended sub-par institutions where they had received inferior scholastic training and preparation in their doctoral programs. Items that loaded under the second factor included: “I believe the college/university from which I graduated is seen by others as inferior,” “I believe my colleagues perceive a state university or college to be lesser than a private university or college,” and “I believe my colleagues perceive my doctoral preparation as inferior.” The internal consistency reliability estimates for this subscale was .53.

The reliability of the P-PECS was assessed by determining whether the 12-items on the instrument were all measuring the construct of perceived classism. The overall internal consistency reliability estimates for the scale was approximately .83, indicating an optimal level of reliability on the instrument. A review of the Item-Total Statistics in SPSS, which provided the inter-item correlations of the items in the P-PECS and indicated whether the reliability of the P-PECS could be improved through removal of any of the items on the instrument, indicated that the removal of any of the items on the P-PECS would not have improved the reliability of the scale.

COIS

On the COIS, results from the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett’s Test of test of Sphericity confirmed the factorability of the dataset.

The KMO measure revealed a finding of .738, and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity revealed a statistically significant finding ($\chi^2 = 154.117$, $df = 21$, $p = .000$). Moreover, results from the outlier labeling rule indicated that any noted outliers were not statistically significant.

Principal axis factoring estimation was used as the factor extraction method. To determine the number of factors to retain, a scree test, parallel analysis, and Eigenvalue greater than 1.00 assessments were conducted (see Figure 5 and Tables 6, and 7, respectively). An oblique promax rotation was utilized in the factor analysis of the 7-item COIS scales (see Table 8, Descriptive Statistics). Only one factor was indicated as appropriate to retain, from any of the three tests conducted for deciding the number of factors to retain in the COIS. Moreover, the COIS could not be rotated. Thus, only a single factor model was yielded on the COIS and no pattern matrix of the instrument could be generated from SPSS.

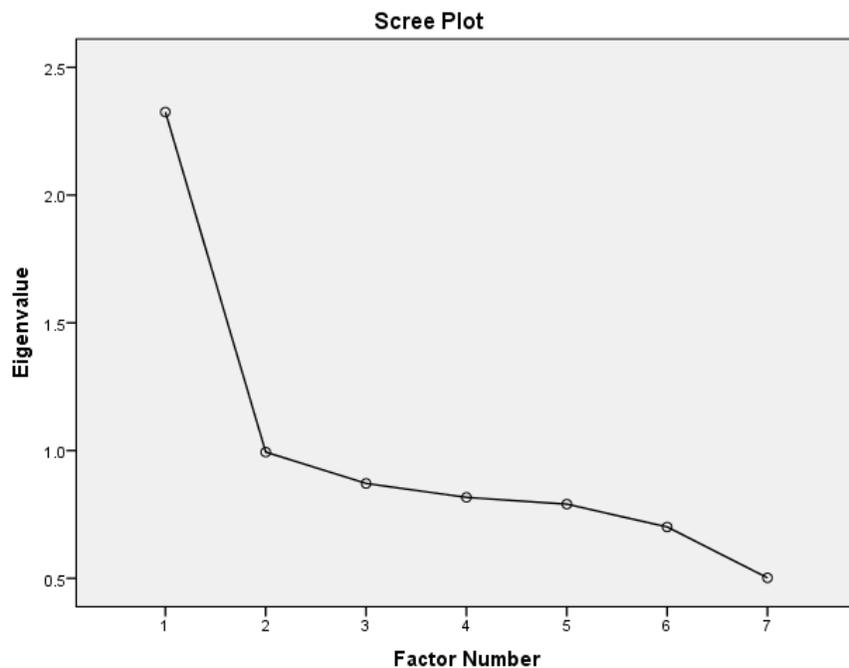


Figure 5. Scree Test for a 7-Factor Solution on the COIS

Table 6

Total Variance Explained by the Initial COIS Factor Extraction with 7 Factor Solution

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotated Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.325	33.217	33.217	1.592	22.741	22.741
2	.994	14.199	47.416			
3	.871	12.446	59.862			
4	.817	11.667	71.529			
5	.790	11.290	82.819			
6	.701	10.012	92.831			
7	.502	7.169	100.000			

Table 7

COIS Scale Parallel Analysis Results

Actual Eigenvalues	Average Eigenvalues	95 th Percentile Eigenvalues
2.325	1.266	1.364
.994	1.154	1.224
.871	1.068	1.121
.817	.994	1.043
.790	.920	.970
.701	.842	.898
.502	.753	.821

Table 8

COIS Scale Descriptive Statistics

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N	
I perceive my class background as an Important reflection of who I am.	3.60	.903	203	0
I can perceive the attitudinal and behavioral differences between people who grew up in my class background and those who did not.	3.25	1.020	203	0
I identify with people who grew up in the same class background as I did.	3.55	1.122	203	0
People from my class background tend to have similar experiences in society.	3.65	.985	203	1
My parents taught me the values of my class background group.	3.17	1.195	203	0
My reactions to people from other class backgrounds are based on the class attitudes and values I learned growing up.	3.48	1.140	203	1
I believe my class background	2.84	1.078	203	0

Table 9

Factor Loadings and Communalities for Exploratory Factor Analysis (with Attempted Promax Rotation) of the Class Origin Identity Salience Scale

Item	Internalized Classism	H^2
I perceive my class background as an Important reflection of who I am.	.665	.243
I can perceive the attitudinal and behavioral differences between people who grew up in my class background and those who did not.	.541	.174
I identify with people who grew up in the same class background as I did.	.493	.442
People from my class background tend to have similar experiences in society.	.417	.293
My parents taught me the values of my class background group.	.417	.101
My reactions to people from other class backgrounds are based on the class attitudes and values I learned growing up.	.408	.174
I believe my class background influences my life more than my race.	.317	.166

Note: Factor loadings > .40 are in boldface.

Table 10

COIS Skew Values and Range

N	Valid	201
	Missing	4
Skewness		-.607
Std. Error of Skewness		.172
Range		26.00

Categorizing and Defining COIS Factor Structure

As previously stated, all seven of the items comprising the COIS loaded on a single factor through factor analysis. The COIS could not be rotated. The internal consistency reliability estimates for this factor was .65. A review of the item-total statistics in SPSS for the COIS did not suggest that the removal of any items on the instrument would improve the internal consistency reliability estimates of the scale. At best, the factor which resulted from the factor analysis on the COIS could be called *internalized classism*, because the highest loading item on the scale pertained to an individual's class origin being an important reflection of who they are. This suggests some degree of internalized classism. See Table 9 to review the factor loadings and communalities for exploratory factor analysis (with attempted promax rotation) for the COIS. Table 10 provides the skew values and range of the COIS.

Simple Linear Regression

The relationship between class origin identity salience and perceived personal experience with classism was assessed via simple linear regression. Basically, the goal of the analysis was to assess the correlation between the total scores on the COIS and P-PECS. Results were found to be statistically significant, revealing a weak, positive relationship between class origin identity salience and perceived personal experience with classism ($\beta = .250$, $t(195) = 3.603$, $p < .001$). Survey respondents who had more salient class origin identities had more histories of incidents with perceived personal experience with classism in the professoriate. Results also revealed that the correctness of predicting scores for perceived personal experience with classism would improve by roughly 6% if the prediction is determined by using scores for class origin identity salience ($r^2 = .063$). Class origin identity salience also explained approximately 6% of the variance in perceived personal experience with classism, $r^2 = .063$, $F(1, 195) = 12.98$, $p < .001$.

Moreover, an assessment of the fit of the equation to the data revealed a statistically significant model (see Table 11). Standard error of the estimate results are also provided in Table 12.

Table 11

Table of P-PECS Total Score Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Constant)	14.795	2.945		5.024	.000
	COIS Total Score	.443	.123	.250	3.603	.000

Table 12

COIS and P-PECS Simple Linear Regression Model Summary

Model	R	R-Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.250	.063	.058	7.10288

Independent Samples T-Tests

The independent samples *t* test conducted in this study revealed that the difference in perceived personal experience with classism in the professoriate between working-class/poverty-class professors ($N = 83$, $M = 25.44$, $SD = 8.17$) and middle-class/upper-class professors ($N = 117$, $M = 25.05$, $SD = 6.53$) was not statistically significant, $t(151.237) = .357$, $p = .722$. The null hypothesis determined for this test was that the sample mean for the working-/poverty class origin group would be equal to the sample mean for the middle-/upper class origin group. The

hypothesis testing criteria was $p < .05$. Results of the independent samples t test are presented in Table 13.

Table 13
Independent Samples t Test Results

		Levine's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
P-PECS Total Score	Equal variances assumed	8.035	.005	.370	198	.712	.38595	1.04243	-1.66974	2.44165
	Equal variances not assumed			.357	151.237	.722	.38595	1.08242	-1.75266	2.52457

Summary

On the 12-item P-PECS, exploratory factor analysis with principal axis factoring extraction and the promax rotation method resulted in a two-factor solution. The two-factor solution accounted for approximately 46% of the common variance. An interpretable factor structure was yielded on the P-PECS. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the first subscale, i.e., factor 1, on the P-PECS was found to be optimal, while the second subscale on the P-PECS, i.e., factor 2, was found to be less than adequate. Overall, however, the reliability of the P-PECS was found to have an optimal level of .83.

On the 7-item COIS, exploratory factor analysis, derived via use of a principal axis factoring extraction and the promax rotation method, only yielded a single factor, which as a

result could not be rotated. The single factor on the COIS accounted for 33% of the common variance on the scale. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the COIS was a .65.

Simple linear regression analysis revealed a statistically significant relationship between professors' class origin identity saliences and perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate. The evaluation of differences between working-class/poverty-class professors and middle-class/upper-class professors' perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate, however, did not reveal any statistically different findings.

CHAPTER V:

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research was to develop valid and reliable scales that effectively assess counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors' perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate, and the salience of their class origin identities. This research also sought to offer Social Identity Theory (SIT) as one possible theoretical explanation to account for variations in counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors' perceived personal experience with classism in the professoriate. This research used exploratory factor analysis to examine the constructs buttressing the Perceived Personal Experience with Classism Scale (P-PECS) and Class Origin Identity Salience (COIS) scale. More specifically, this dissertation assessed the psychometric properties of the P-PECS and COIS. A second goal of this study examined whether (a) there are any differences among working-class/poverty-class professors and middle-class/upper-class professors' perceptions of personal experience with classism and (b) there is a relationship between professors' class origin identity salience and perceived experience with classism.

This chapter is divided into three sections. First, this chapter presents an exposition of the findings from the research inquiries in this study, including a discussion regarding the psychometric properties of the P-PECS and COIS. Secondly, this study provides a discussion of the implications and limitations of this study. This chapter concludes with some recommendations for possible areas of future research.

Summary of Research Findings

Research Question 1: Is the Perceived Personal Experience with Classism Scale (P-PECS) valid and reliable in assessing perceptions of personal experience with classism?

Exploratory factory analysis revealed two subscales, i.e., a two factor solution, in the P-PECS. The first subscale, *Devaluation and Minimization* and the second subscale, *Marginalization and Discounting*, comprised of 12 of the initial 29 items on the measure. The extraction methods of a scree test and Eigenvalues greater than 1.00 indicated that three factors should be made on the P-PECS; however, results from the parallel analysis indicated that only one factor should be retained. These mixed results were carefully considered before the researcher made the decision to use a forced two-factor solution. The two factor solution provided an easy, theoretically defensible solution with no cross loaded factors. They also accounted for roughly 46% of the common variance among the sample's 205 participants.

Perhaps the most compelling aspect in the P-PECS was revealed as professors' perceptions of classist attitudes and behaviors in the counselor education, counseling, and psychology professoriates. The *Devaluation and Minimization* subscale in the P-PECS was comprised of nine items which mirrored the findings in the extant qualitative and self-report narrative literature that some scholars: (a) harbor negative opinions about the scholarly abilities and contributions of working class and poverty class professors, (b) deny that classism is a serious or persistent problem in the academy; and (c) believe that efforts to promote the representation and equality of opportunities and outcomes of working class and poverty class professors is essentially reverse discrimination that thwarts meritocracy (Adair, 2001; Harley et al., 2002; Hays, Dean, & Chang, 2007; Marina, & Holmes, 2009; Miller & Kastberg, 1995; Miller, Miller, & Stull, 2007; Oldfield, 2007; Russell, Chamley, & Withers, 1990; Myers &

Turner, 2004; Smith, Foley, & Chaney, 2008). Items that loaded on the first subscale of the P-PECS included: “At work, some people have class origin stereotypes and treat me as if they were true;” “I believe my colleagues perceive talking about one’s class background as a faux pas;” and “I believe my colleagues perceive the academy functions optimally because it is a middle-class/upper-class domain.” Thematically, the items that loaded on the first subscale assess the level of professors’ beliefs that working-class and poverty-class professors’ scholastic abilities and contributions are devalued in the academy and that there may be a general down playing of the problem of classism in the professoriate. There were no a priori theories about the items developed for inclusion in the P-PECS, therefore the factors that loaded on the first subscale occurred through statistical correlation. This may have been the case because the items generated for the P-PECS were developed based upon qualitative study findings and self-reports of, primarily working-class and poverty-class, professors in the literature. For instance, some working-class and poverty-class professors report that they experience feelings of immobility due to the negative attitudes, stereotypes, and alienation in the academy (Maguire, 2005; Nainby, 2003; Renne, 2003). The concepts of devaluation and minimization are buttressed a body of literature which suggests that helping professions need to overcome their unwillingness to acknowledge the impact of class disparity in their faculty recruitment and retention agendas and training curriculum (Lott, 2002; Mays 2000; Smith, 2008; Smith, Foley, & Chaney, 2008). Additionally, Bullock and Lott (2001) noted that concerted more effort needs to be expended in higher education to establish class-based research agendas and advocacy to prevent the possible entrenchment and evolution of classism in the academy in the future. However, it makes theoretical sense that the items on the first subscale of the P-PECS did so.

A second compelling finding in the P-PECS was the evidence suggesting that some professors feel that working-class and poverty-class professors are inadequately trained and prepared to participate in the academy. More specifically, the second subscale, i.e, factor 2, in the P-PECS, *marginalization and discounting*, is comprised of three items, two of which mirror the findings in the extant literature suggesting that the doctoral preparation and credentials of professors from working and poverty class origins is outside of the realm of, and inferior to, the scholarly preparation and credentials of their middle class and upper class counterparts (Cutri, Manning, & Chun, 2011; Honan & Teferra, 2001; Marina & Holmes, 2009). Items that loaded on the second subscale of the P-PECS included: “I believe the college/university from which I graduated is seen by others as inferior;” “I believe my colleagues perceive a state university or college to be lesser than a private college or university;” and “I believe my colleagues perceive my doctoral preparation as inferior.” Despite the factor analysis of the P-PECS not revealing a higher indicator of reliability for the second subscale, the items on the second subscale are consistent with the findings contained in the literature on classism in the professoriate.

Prior research, authored by primarily working class and poverty class professors, reveals that working class and poverty class professors are less likely than are their middle class and upper class counterparts to have attended prestigious colleges and universities or to have been the prodigies of faculty with key networking connections or well-established scholarly backgrounds (Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Oldfield, 2010; Twombly & Moore, 1991). Prior research also reveals a perceived underrepresentation of working class and poverty class professors in the academy - and the opinion of some professors that working class and poverty class professors are more often assigned to less *plum* (i.e., core course or key) teaching or faculty

assignments and denied tenure and promotion than their middle class and upper class counterparts (Honan & Teferra; Mikulak, 1991).

In general, the P-PECS subscales derived via factor analysis revealed findings which mirror those noted in the extant classism literature (Harley, et al., 2002; Hays, Dean, & Chang, 2007; Lott, 2002; Miller & Kastberg, 1995; Oldfield, 2007; Smith, Foley, & Chaney, 2008). These findings seem to suggest that perceptions of classism in the professoriate is a serious and pervasive problem in the professoriate. These findings also suggest that the P-PECS is a valid scale for assessing professors' perceptions of classism in the academy. In terms of reliability, the P-PECS achieved an internal consistency of .82 on the first subscale, indicating optimal reliability. The second P-PECS subscale produced a reliability coefficient alpha of .53, which is considered an inadequate indicator of reliability. It is possible that the development and testing of additional items on the P-PECS, and using a larger content validator pool in both the initial and expert review panels may have yielded a more reliable second subscale on the measure. Overall, the P-PECS yielded optimal level internal consistency as reflected by Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .84.

Research Question 2: Is the Class Origin Identity Salience (COIS) scale valid and reliable in assessing class origin identity salience?

Exploratory factory analysis revealed a unidimensional scale, i.e., a one factor solution, in the COIS. The subscale, called *Internalized Classism*, was comprised of 7 of the initial 10 items on the measure. The extraction methods of a scree test, Eigenvalues greater than 1.00, and Parallel Analysis indicated that only one factor should be retained on the COIS. The single factor solution provided a relatively simple, theoretically plausible solution. It also accounted for approximately 33% of the common variance among the sample's 205 participants.

One of the most compelling aspects in the COIS was revealed as some counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors' apparent strong identification with their class origin groups. The *Internalized Classism* subscale in the COIS dovetailed with the extant knowledge on social identities which reveals that some people: (a) can tell, comparatively speaking, whether they are the same as or distinct from, or better- or worse-off than, individuals belonging to other groups; (b) derive their sense of self-image based upon the social categories that she or he views themselves as being members of; and (c) determine their reactions to people from out-group class origins based on the class attitudes and values they learned growing up (Amiot & Aubin, 2013; Foley, Ngo, & Loi, 2006; Tajfel, Billig, Bundy, & Flament, 1971). Items that loaded on the COIS subscale included: "I perceive my class background as an important reflection of who I am," "I can perceive the attitudinal and behavioral differences between people who grew up in my class background and those who did not," and "My reactions to people from other class backgrounds are based on the class attitudes and values I learned growing up."

Thematically, the items that loaded on the COIS subscale assessed the level of professors' ongoing identification with and internalization of the class-related attitudes and values of their class origin group. The items on the COIS point-up that like some other people in society, some professors learned their class attitudes, values, and behavior during their developmental years and that those qualities have endured overtime and become more deeply ingrained. This finding supports the plausibility that the class-related attitudes, values, and behavior of counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors likely influence their class-related attitudes, behavior, and perceptions of classism in the academy. Moreover, and as was true in the case of the P-PECS, there were no a priori theories about the items developed for

inclusion in the COIS. Thus, the factors that loaded on the single subscale resulted through statistical correlation. This outcome may have resulted since the items generated for the COIS were created using prior qualitative and self-reports on social identity and perceptions of discrimination, including classism, in the literature. For instance, some working-class and poverty-class professors have noted that they have difficulty “finding a home” in the academy (Renne, 2003).

The concept of internalized classism is also supported by a body of literature which suggests that some professors may mete the influence of their class origin attitudes, values, and behavior by examining their own views of class-related issues while others find ways to exclude themselves as being responsible for or a party to perpetuating classism in the academy (Harley et al., 2002). Additionally, Lott (2002) offered an operationalization of how class attitudes, values, and behavior can manifest through interpersonal acts and institutional policies that cognitively and behaviorally divide individuals and groups along class lines (e.g., excluding or devaluing the scholarly contributions of working-class and poverty-class professors). Thus, the loadings of the items on the COIS make theoretical sense.

A second compelling finding in the COIS was evidence suggesting that some professors believe that their class origin influences their life more than their race does. More specifically, although the factor loading for the item on the COIS that assessed whether professors believe that their race impacts their experiences and perceptions in life more than their class origin does appeared somewhat marginal, it is still important to note and further explore. This is because the item is consistent with findings in the literature on class inequality (Carlson, 2012). Prior research has demonstrated, for instance, the ways in which some people attribute economic disparities to racial differences in habitus and social and cultural capital (Bourdieu & Wacquant,

2013; Furnham & Gunter, 1984). Yet, some scholars have noted that race has frequently been used, especially in politics, to incite strong emotional reactions to overshadow the most obvious source of economic inequality – classism (Carlson, 2012).

The COIS was found to have an internal consistency reliability estimate of .65. Although .65 is not considered a great or an ideal level of reliability, it still suggests that the COIS is a valid scale for assessing professors' class origin identity saliences. Possible contributors to the COIS resulting in this less than optimal level of reliability is the fact that the composition of the content validation panel and subsequent panel of experts was comprised of very few members.

The content validation panel was comprised of only three members which, arguably, may have led to the elimination of some items on the COIS inappropriately because of the low ratio of panel members. The low number of volunteers to serve as content validation panel members in this study may have been because the COIS was developed during the summer months, when many faculty are away from their institutions on summer break - or opting to check their university emails less often because summers are considered vacation time. The implication of this occurrence is that the reliability of the COIS may have been hindered because it was comprised of too few or comprised of the wrong combination of items, more so than the instrument's having been a casualty of the proverbial "garbage in garbage out" scale demise that sometimes occurs in factor analysis. A content validation panel comprised of more raters could have produced different results on the COIS.

Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between professors' class origin identities and perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate?

Results from the simple linear regression analysis revealed a statistically significant relationship between professors' class origin identity saliences and their perceptions of personal

experience with classism in the professoriate. This finding is theoretically and empirically defensible because prior research has established a relationship between individuals' social identities and their perceptions of discrimination, including racism and sexism (Pieterse & Carter, 2010; Swank, Fahs, & Frost, 2013; Thompson & Subich, 2011).

According to Foley, Ngo, and Loi (2006) social identities often predict individuals' perceptions of discrimination and individuals who have strong identifications with their in-group tend to perceive more and be more sensitive to incidents of discrimination. In other words, the argument that the more deeply ingrained an individual's class origin is the more likely that they may be to perceive personal experience with classism in the professoriate seems legitimate. This is problematic for at least two reasons. First, professors who report higher levels of perceptions of personal experience with classism in the academy may be more likely to leave the professoriate, taking with them demographic diversity and the diversity of opinions and ideas that are critically needed in higher education. Secondly, this finding has implications for what the composition of counselor education, counseling, and psychology faculties may be comprised of in the future - and what theoretical and clinical knowledge will be perpetuated overtime.

Research Question 4: Are there differences in perceived personal experience with classism by working-class/poverty-class and middle-class/upper-class counselor educators?

Results from the independent samples t tests did not yield any statistically significant differences between professors' perceptions of personal experience with classism in the academy, based upon their class origin statuses. The results from this examination suggested that at best any differences between working-class/poverty-class and middle-class/upper-class professors, as it pertains to their perceptions of personal experience with classism in the academy, should be described as unclear. That is, because the research findings did not yield

results indicating why the groups are different, it could be argued that any noted difference is not because of the sample's class origin group memberships. There was no significant difference found between the scores of the two groups on the P-PECS.

Implications of this Research

The research findings from this dissertation revealed key implications for counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors' careers and campus administrators' faculty recruitment and retention agendas. The outcome of the P-PECS suggested that it is imperative that professors and researchers gain more insight into and empirical understanding of the problem of perceptions of classism in the academy. Without this type of information available, reports of classism in the academy could continue to appear to be more isolated incidents or in some instances dismissed as the reports of a small number of floundering academics. Moreover, the fact that the COIS bore out evidence to support the impact of professors' class origin identity saliences on their perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate, it is clear that there is a correlation between these two variables.

Campus administrators need to be concerned with professors' perceived personal experience with classism in the academy. Numerous accreditation bodies, professional associations, and credentialing entities stress attention to diversity in the recruitment and retention of members of their professoriates. Lack of attention to this area could lead to a perceived (or actual) continued underrepresentation of working class and poverty class professors in the academy in the future. This is problematic because it has implications for the range of scholarly ideas and clinical interventions that are available and developed for multicultural populations in the future.

This study also has implications for psychology and counseling professionals, including guidance and career counselors and school psychologists working with, for example, high school students or individuals changing careers. Members of these professions are responsible for assisting people with exploring whether or not a particular field or profession falls within the purview of their interests and helping them to develop the social skills necessary to succeed occupationally, including as it pertains to diversity. This means that in the future, guidance and career counselors and school psychologists will need to ensure that they attend to helping e.g., high school students and individuals in career transition to explore their attitudes toward diversity and helping them to develop more tolerance and sensitivity to diverse group members ensure that they do not perpetuate discriminatory attitudes and behavior in their subsequent learning and work environments.

This study helps to advance the emergent line of research focused on assessing class inequality in the academy, and the relationship between professors' class origin identities and perceptions of class discrimination. For the most part, the professoriate has not been among the populations studied in investigations of classism in higher education settings in previous years. Yet, the use of social identity theory as a possible theoretical framework, as used in this study, demonstrates the utility of this perspective in research of that kind.

Study Limitations

One limitation in this research is the small sample size that was utilized. A sample size of 200 participants is considered a *fair*. Thus, a sample of at least 300 participants, which would be considered *good*, would have possibly yielded differing and perhaps more informed results. A second limitation is the low number of items on both the P-PECS and the COIS; but, especially perhaps the COIS. If more items had been available on both measures the factor

loadings could have been more varied or comprised of different factor loadings. A third limitation is the low number of content validation experts that reviewed the P-PECS and COIS. Because the scales were essentially developed and tested during an academic summer break, it is reasonable to suspect that a larger panel of experts may have retained more items on the initial versions of the scales, or recommended other revisions to the instruments. A fourth limitation could be that a distinction was not made between the responses of counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors in this study. This precluded the researcher's ability to zoom-in and assess whether professors' perceptions of classism in the academy or class origin identity saliences were more pronounced across the academic disciplines of counselor education, counseling, and psychology. Another limitation may be the low number of racial minority group members that responded to the measure. Members of racial minority groups may perceive personal experiences with classism in the academy more often than was discernable in this study. This could especially be the case among faculty members who teach, for instance, at historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs), which tend to be characterized by higher numbers of minority group professors in their academic ranks. Lastly, the definition of classism in this study only concentrated on assessing professors' negative experiences with perceived personal classism. This emphasis may have overshadowed the possibility that more counselor education, counseling, and psychology professors have witnessed classist events that they were not directly involved with. Items could be included in future iterations of the P-PECS that assesses observations of classist attitudes or events in the academy.

Areas for Future Research

Based upon the findings from this research, several recommendations appear to be in order. First, researchers are encouraged to continue conducting future studies examining professors' perceptions of classism in the professoriate. Studies of this kind are critically needed given that many Americans now reportedly believe that class inequality is a more serious and pervasive problem in society than race or gender. Second, the COIS should be retooled to further improve its reliability in assessing class origin identity salience and the relationship between professors' class origin identity saliences and perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate. For example, all of the initial items on the COIS (and P-PECS for that matter) could be re-rated by another, larger panel of content validators and experts. Initial content validation panels, and subsequent expert panels, comprised of 15-20 members would likely yield more significant reliability and leave more items to be included on the scale.

Consideration might also be given to modifying the content of some of the items on the P-PECS and COIS to ensure the clarity of the items on the scales. For example, on the P-PECS the item that reads "At cocktail parties, some of my colleagues snub me because they believe I lack cultural refinement," cocktail parties could be changed to "social events." Particularly in geographical regions where, for instance, college football is a popular social activity across all class origin groups, responses to this item could be rated differently because it is easier to understand and relate to. Cocktails parties could also be changed to faculty receptions, etc. On the P-PECS the item reads, "I believe my colleagues perceive a state university or college to be lesser than a private university or college" could be changed. This is because some professors may hold the converse view, i.e., hold the view that a private university or college is lesser than

a state university or college. In other words some professors may hold the opinion that when it comes to private colleges and universities money trumps academic ability and any one with means can buy their way into a private university or college and avoid the academic competitiveness of a State university.

Additional research should be conducted on the class-related experiences of professors at for-profit higher education institutions, including online programs. In this research, approximately 25% of the initial survey respondents had to be excluded from the study dataset because they indicated that they were employed at a for-profit institution. This relatively high attempted response rate (N = 92) suggests that at least some professors at for-profit institutions perceive or have personally experienced a problem with classism in their roles as employees of for-profit colleges and universities. At the same time, it may be that the for-profit institution professors' attempts to respond to the survey in this study was due to their trying to establish that they perceive classism in the overall structure of hiring in the academy because they had personally been unable to secure employment at a major institution and only work at a for-profit institution as somewhat of a last resort.

Research on the classism experiences of assistant professors may also be an area for future research. Roughly 40% of the participants in this study reported that they currently work at the assistant professor level. This high number of respondents in this category may be an indicator that members of this group perceive more problems with classism in the academy than either associate or full professors. Arguably, the difference between members of this groups' perceived personal experiences with classism in the professoriate, compared with associate and full professors may be due to the fact that as professors are promoted or granted tenure they perceive incidents of discrimination less often. But, that is an area that needs further

exploration. However, perceptions of classism among assistant professors could lead to problems with attrition among members of that group as a consequence of their inability to adjust to perceived interpersonal or institutional classism in the academy.

Finally, future research should be conducted on differences in perceptions of classism and class origin identity at diverse types of institutions, e.g., HBCUs. HBCU professoriates tend to be overwhelmingly comprised of African American professors from a wide-range of class backgrounds. Thus, it is conceivable that professors at those institutions perceive personal experiences with classism but of what kind and to what degree remains unknown. Only future and comparative examinations will reveal any differences in that regard.

It should be noted here that the social identity theory (SIT) framework was not carried forward in this study as a theoretical framework. This is because SIT was only included in this study to offer one possible explanation for variations in professors' perceptions of classism in the professoriate. This research was exploratory in nature, therefore none of the items on the P-PECS or COIS were developed based upon the premises of SIT. In other words, no a priori theoretical consideration was given to developing items on the P-PECS or COIS based on SIT.

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APPENDIX A: INTRODUCTORY EMAIL/CONSENT

(Email message line: “Research Invitation”)

Dear Colleague:

I am researching the development of valid and reliable measures that effectively assess professors’ perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate and class origin identity salience. Part of my research entails surveying university professors to ask them about their family origins and class origin-related experiences in the professoriate. I am a doctoral student at The University of Alabama and must complete this research project in order to graduate. This email is to request your assistance with this important research being conducted for my IRB approved dissertation at The University of Alabama in Tuscaloosa Alabama. I am contacting professors to ask them to participate in this study.

The survey is comprised of 28 items and will take approximately 3-5 minutes to complete. Your responses on this survey will provide useful information for this study. Participation in this study is voluntary, and although no incentives will be offered as a part of this research, I would appreciate your assistance. It is only through the support of colleagues, such as yourself, in the professoriate that my research will be successful. Your responses on this survey will be completely confidential and no individual’s answers will be identified as your name will not be connected to your answers. This survey is entirely voluntary and you may decline to participate or withdraw from this study at any time without any penalty, until you click “submit” at the end of the study because data is immediately summarized and cannot be individually retrieved. Your identity as a participant in this study will not be known and no information that identifies you in any way will be collected or be released. Please read the Informed Consent. By entering the date in the area designated on the study protocol for Informed Consent you are verifying your consent to participate in this research. To begin the survey, please click on the hyperlink below.

Only the principal investigator and her dissertation chair will have access to the data. The data are encrypted. Only summarized data will be presented at meetings or in publications.

There will be no direct benefits to you. The findings from this study, however, may be beneficial or contribute to the literature on the subject of diversity in the professoriate and help inform department chairpersons’ recruitment, retention, and diversity agendas in the future.

The chief risk is that some of the questions may make you uncomfortable. You may skip any questions you do not want to answer.

If you have questions about this study, please contact Terissa Upchurch Butler at (205) 247-3160 (or by email at tupchurchbutler@crimson.ua.edu) or Dr. Rick Houser at (205) 348-0243 (or by

email at rhouser@bamaed.ua.edu). If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact Ms. Tanta Myles (the University Compliance Officer) at (205) 348-8461 or toll-free at 1-877-820-3066. If you have complaints or concerns about this study, file them through the UA IRB outreach website at http://osp.ua.edu/site/PRCO_Welcome.html. Also, if you participate, you are encouraged to complete the short Survey for Research Participants online at this website. This helps UA improve its protection of human research participants. **YOUR PARTICIPATION IS COMPLETELY VOLUNTARY.** You are free not to participate or stop participating any time before you submit your answers.

If you understand the statements above, are at least 19 years old, and freely consent to participate in this study, click on the hyperlink below to begin completing the study survey. Your participation and time is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Terissa Upchurch Butler, M.S., Doctoral Candidate
The University of Alabama
Program in Counselor Education
tlupchurchbutler@crimson.ua.edu

APPENDIX B: STUDY QUALIFICATIONS AND INFORMED CONSENT

1. The following questions will tell us whether you qualify to participate in this study. Are you an employee of a CACREP accredited Counselor Education Program at a doctorate-granting university?

Yes No

Are you employed by a for-profit college or university?

Yes No

Are you at least 19 years of age or older?

Yes No

Your answers to this survey are completely confidential and no individual's responses will be identified as your name or university affiliation will not be connected to your survey responses. This survey is entirely voluntary. Please read the Informed Consent information below.

2. INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR ONLINE PARTICIPANTS

I have been informed that this study involves research which will be conducted by Terissa Upchurch Butler, M.S., a doctoral student at The University of Alabama in Tuscaloosa, Alabama. I have been informed and understand that this study is designed to explore the status of the counselor education profession as it pertains to class diversity and perceptions of classism in the counselor education professoriate. I understand that my participation in this study will involve the completion of an online questionnaire designed to assess my perceptions of class origin related issues in the professoriate. I understand that my involvement in this study will take approximately 3-5 minutes of my time.

The researcher in this study is requesting a waiver of documentation for survey participants and that participants will be asked to enter a calendar date below to verify their understanding of the informed consent in this investigation. I understand that I may decline to participate or withdraw from this study at any time without any penalty, until I click "submit" at the end of the study because data is immediately summarized and cannot be individually retrieved. I understand that

my identity as a participant in this study will not be known and that no information that identifies me in any way will be collected or be released. I have been informed that only Terissa Upchurch Butler, M.S., and her dissertation committee will have access to data collected from this study. I have been informed that all data collected from or about this study will be destroyed by Terissa Upchurch Butler, M.S., after 7 years of the electronic signing of this document.

I have been informed that some questions in this study may make me feel uncomfortable. If this occurs, then Terissa Upchurch Butler, the principal investigator of this project, or her supervisor, may be contacted, and, if necessary, an appropriate referral will be provided to you for further psychological help. I am aware that although I may not directly benefit from this study, my participation in this project may increase knowledge about how attention to class diversity in the professoriate affects the climate and functionality of the counselor education professoriate.

I understand that I may contact Terissa Upchurch Butler at the contact information below if I have any questions about this project or my participation in this study. I understand that at the end of the study I may contact Terissa Upchurch Butler at the contact information below to request a summary of results or additional information about the study.

Terissa Upchurch Butler, M.S., Doctoral Candidate
The University of Alabama
(205) 247-3160
tlupchurchbutler@crimson.ua.edu

3. Please enter the date to confirm that you have read and understood the informed consent.

MM DD YYYY

By entering the date, I am providing an online signature and indicating that I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

APPENDIX C: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Answers to the following questions will provide the researcher with information about who you are.

1. Were you a first generation college student? (First generation college student is defined in this survey as a college student whose parents had not attained at least a 4-year college degree by the time that you were 16 years old)

Yes No

2. How old are you? _____

3. Which of the following best identifies your race?

White _____

-A person having origins in original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North America

Black or African American _____

-Having origins in any Black racial groups of Africa

American Indian or Alaska Native _____

-A person having origins in any of the original peoples of North or South America (including Central America) and who maintain tribal affiliation or community attachment.

Asian _____

- A person having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent including, for example, Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam.

Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander _____

- A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific Islands

4. What is your gender?

Male Female

5. What is your faculty rank?

Male Female

APPENDIX D: FIRST ROUND POSSIBLE CLASS ORIGIN
IDENTITY SALIENCE ITEMS

Please rate the items below using the following scale:

1= Not Relevant	2= Somewhat Relevant	3= Quite Relevant	4= Highly Relevant
--------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	-----------------------

1. I identify with people who grew up in the same class origin as I did.
2. I am like all the other people from the class origin that I grew up in.
3. The class origin that I grew up in is an important reflection of who I am.
4. People who grew up in my class origin group are better off than other class origin groups.
5. I feel good about my class origin group, compared to other class origin groups.
6. I can tell the difference between people who grew up in the same class origin as I did by comparing my class origin's values and behaviors with other class origin groups'.
7. I believe that people's class origins impact their lives more than their race does.
8. My parents taught me the importance of the values of my class origin.
9. The class origin attitudes and values I learned growing up inform my reactions to members of other class groups.
10. I feel pressure in society to view my class origin group favorably and other classes as Inferior.

APPENDIX E: SECOND ROUND POSSIBLE
CLASS ORIGIN IDENTITY SALIENCE ITEMS

Please rate the items below using the following scale:

1= Not Relevant	2= Somewhat Relevant	3= Quite Relevant	4= Highly Relevant
-----------------	----------------------	-------------------	--------------------

1. I identify with people who grew up in the same class origin as I did.
2. I am like all the other people from the class origin that I grew up in.
3. The class origin that I grew up in is an important reflection of who I am.
4. The class origin attitudes and values I learned growing up inform my reactions to members of other class groups.

APPENDIX F: FIRST ROUND POSSIBLE PERCEIVED PERSONAL EXPERIENCE
WITH CLASSISM SCALE ITEMS

Please rate the items below using the following scale:

1= Not Relevant	2= Somewhat Relevant	3= Quite Relevant	4= Highly Relevant
--------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	-----------------------

1. At work, my class origin has limited my opportunities for advancement
2. My class origin has a negative influence on my career advancement in the professorate
3. At work, some people have class origin stereotypes and treat me as if they were true
4. At work, I have heard people make jokes about people from working-class and poverty-class origins
5. I have not gotten what I have earned in the professoriate because of class discrimination
6. My accomplishments are not acknowledged and rewarded in the professoriate because of my class origin
7. I have been denied tenure or promotion because of my class origin
8. I do not get what I deserve in the professoriate because of my class origin
9. My scholarship is not valued in counselor education because of my class origin
10. I am not accepted by dominant group members in the professoriate because of my class origin
11. I am excluded from opportunities in the professoriate because of my class origin

12. Most of my colleagues distance themselves from me because of my class origin
13. I am perceived less favorably by dominant group members in the professoriate because of my class origin
14. I am perceived by dominant group members as being less deserving of recognition and advancement in the professoriate because of my class origin
15. My dominant group colleagues make me feel like I do not belong in the professoriate because of my class origin
16. I am stigmatized in the professoriate because of my class origin
17. I do not receive equitable treatment in the professoriate because of my class origin
18. I am not compensated fairly in the professoriate because of my class origin
19. I am subjected to warm but dumb stereotypes in the professoriate because of my class origin
20. I have not received a generous pay raise in the professoriate because of my class origin
21. It has taken me longer to be promoted in the professoriate because of my class origin
22. My institution will not hire many scholars from my class origin
23. I expect to take longer to receive promotion or tenure in the professoriate because of my class origin
24. I do not expect to receive promotion or tenure because of my class origin
25. I do not receive favorable performance evaluations because of my class origin
26. My colleagues think I am only in the professoriate because of all the talk going on in the U.S. about addressing income inequality
27. Dominant class-group members are ashamed of my class origin
28. I am assigned to teach courses that are not considered part of the core counselor education curriculum because of my class origin

29. My qualifications to be a professor are viewed by middle-class and upper-class professors as less credible because of my class origin

SURVEY OPEN ENDED ITEM

Do you have any other comments or experiences that you would like to share with the researcher in this study? (Please do not include any identifiable information in this space).

APPENDIX G: SECOND ROUND POSSIBLE PERCEIVED
PERSONAL EXPERIENCE WITH CLASSISM SCALE ITEMS

Please rate the items below using the following scale:

1= Not Relevant	2= Somewhat Relevant	3= Quite Relevant	4= Highly Relevant
--------------------	-------------------------	----------------------	-----------------------

1. One reason that I am not accepted by dominant group members in the professoriate because of my class origin
2. One reason that I am perceived less favorably by dominant group members in the professoriate because of my class origin
3. My dominant group colleagues make me feel like I do not belong in the professoriate because of my class origin
4. Dominant class-group members are ashamed of my class origin

APPENDIX H: FINAL VERSION OF THE PERCEIVED
PERSONAL EXPERIENCE WITH CLASSISM SCALE ITEMS

1=Strongly Disagree	2=Disagree	3=No Opinion	4=Agree Disagree	5=Strongly Agree
------------------------	------------	--------------	---------------------	---------------------

1. I believe the college/university from which I graduated is seen by others as inferior.
2. I believe my colleagues perceive a state university or college to be lesser than a private university or college.
3. At work, some people have class origin stereotypes and treat me as if they were true.
4. At work, some people make jokes about people from working- and lower-class backgrounds.
5. I believe my colleagues perceive faculty from working-and lower-class backgrounds as lacking scholarly capability and skill.
6. I believe my colleagues perceive talking about one's class background as a faux pas.
7. I believe my colleagues perceive my doctoral preparation as inferior.
8. I believe my colleagues are uncomfortable talking about the experiences of faculty from working – or lower-class backgrounds.
9. A cocktail parties, some of my colleagues snub me because they believe I lack cultural refinement.
10. I believe my colleagues perceive the academy functions optimally because it is a middle-
/upper-class domain.

11. I believe my colleagues perceive using class background to promote faculty diversity thwarts meritocracy.
12. I believe my colleagues perceive faculty from working- and lower-class origins as nice, but incompetent.

APPENDIX I: FINAL VERSION OF THE CLASS ORIGIN

IDENTITY SALIENCE SCALE ITEMS

1=Strongly Disagree	2=Disagree	3=No Opinion	4=Agree Disagree	5=Strongly Agree
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1. I identify with people who grew up in the same class background as I did.
2. People from my class background tend to have similar experiences in society.
3. I perceive my class background as an important reflection of who I am.
4. I can perceive the attitudinal and behavioral differences between people who grew up in my class background and those who did not.
5. I believe my class background influences my life more than my race.
6. My parents taught me the values of my class background group.
7. My reactions to people from other class backgrounds are based on the class attitudes and values I learned growing up.

APPENDIX J: ORIGINAL REMINDER EMAIL/CONSENT

(Email message line: "Research Invitation")

Dear Colleague:

I am researching the development of valid and reliable measures that effectively assess counselor educators' perceptions of personal experience with classism in the professoriate and class origin identity salience. Part of my research entails surveying counselor educators to ask them about their family origins and class origin-related experiences in the professoriate. I am a doctoral student at The University of Alabama and must complete this research project in order to graduate. This email is to request your assistance with this important research being conducted for my IRB approved dissertation at The University of Alabama in Tuscaloosa Alabama. I am contacting professors to ask them to participate in this study.

The survey is comprised of 28 items and will take approximately 3-5 minutes to complete. Your responses on this survey will provide useful information for this study. Participation in this study is voluntary, and although no incentives will be offered as a part of this research, I would appreciate your assistance. It is only through the support of colleagues, such as yourself, in counselor education that my research will be successful. Your responses on this survey will be completely confidential and no individual's answers will be identified as your name will not be connected to your answers. This survey is entirely voluntary and you may decline to participate or withdraw from this study at any time without any penalty, until you click "submit" at the end of the study because data is immediately summarized and cannot be individually retrieved. Your identity as a participant in this study will not be known and no information that identifies you in any way will be collected or be released. Please read the Informed Consent. By entering the date in the area designated on the study protocol for Informed Consent you are verifying your consent to participate in this research. To begin the survey, please click on the hyperlink below.

Only the principal investigator and her dissertation chair will have access to the data. The data are encrypted. Only summarized data will be presented at meetings or in publications.

There will be no direct benefits to you. The findings from this study, however, may be beneficial or contribute to the literature on the subject of diversity in the counselor education professoriate and help inform counselor education chairpersons' recruitment, retention, and diversity agendas in the future.

The chief risk is that some of the questions may make you uncomfortable. You may skip any questions you do not want to answer.

If you have questions about this study, please contact Terissa Upchurch Butler at (205) 247-3160 (or by email at tlupchurchbutler@crimson.ua.edu) or Dr. Rick Houser at (205) 348-0283 (or by email at rhouser@bamaed.ua.edu). If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact Ms. Tanta Myles (the University Compliance Officer) at (205) 348-8461 or toll-free at 1-877-820-3066. If you have complaints or concerns about this study, file them through the UA IRB outreach website at http://osp.ua.edu/site/PRCO_Welcome.html. Also, if you participate, you are encouraged to complete the short Survey for Research Participants online at this website. This helps UA improve its protection of human research participants.

YOUR PARTICIPATION IS COMPLETELY VOLUNTARY. You are free not to participate or stop participating any time before you submit your answers.

If you understand the statements above, are at least 19 years old, and freely consent to participate in this study, click on the hyperlink below to begin completing the study survey. Your participation and time is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Terissa Upchurch Butler, M.S., Doctoral Candidate
The University of Alabama
Program in Counselor Education
tlupchurchbutler@crimson.ua.edu

APPENDIX K: IRB APPROVAL

Office for Research
Institutional Review Board for the
Protection of Human Subjects

THE UNIVERSITY OF
ALABAMA
R E S E A R C H

June 25, 2014

Terissa Upchurch-Butler, M.S.
Department of ESPRMC
College of Education
The University of Alabama
Box 870231

Re: IRB # EX-14-CM-082 "Development of Scales to Measure Perceived Experience with Classism and Class Origin Identity in Counselor Education"

Dear Ms. Upchurch-Butler:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for your proposed research.

Your protocol has been given exempt approval according to 45 CFR part 46.101(b)(2) as outlined below:

(2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:

(i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Your application will expire on June 24, 2015. If your research will continue beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of Continuing Review and Closure Form. If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved Protocol Form. When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of FORM: Continuing Review and Closure.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the assigned IRB application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,



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