Touro University Worldwide Interdisciplinary Proceedings for Scholarly Colloquium: Volume 1

Edited by Dr. Aldwin Domingo and Dr. Shelia Lewis

In memory of Drs. Edith and Yoram Neumann who provided the online foundational legacy in Touro University Worldwide

Touro University Worldwide Colloquium

Touro University Worldwide (TUW) is a community of scholars, learners and educators committed to maintaining the highest standards of personal integrity in all aspects of the academic process. Intellectual integrity is a hallmark of ethical, scholarly, and scientific inquiry, as well as a core value of the Jewish tradition. Dr. Edith Neumann established the Touro University Worldwide Annual Colloquium in 2017 to provide an annual interdisciplinary forum for TUW faculty and doctoral alumni to share academic research with each other via video conference utilizing PowerPoint Presentations. Every year, colloquia speakers are invited from across all 4 academic pillars of TUW (School of Business and Management, School of Behavioral and Applied Sciences, School of Psychology, The Edith Neumann School of Health and Human Services, and the branch campus of Touro College of Los Angeles). Each speaker is allotted time to present their research study along with inviting the video conference audience to ask any questions and/or provide comments after each presentation. Included in this set of proceedings are a sample of presentations over the past 7 years (2017-2023), which the corresponding colloquia speakers have graciously written and allowed for inclusion in this written record of the Touro University Worldwide Colloquium series. We hope you are able to glean further academic insights and appreciation of the very active TUW community of scholars, learners and educators after perusing these proceedings.

Dr. Aldwin Domingo and Dr. Shelia Lewis, Editors

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Comparing the Parent-Child Relationship in Adolescence versus Emerging Adulthood

Dr. Jessica Shoemaker

Introduction

Despite the interest and wide acceptance of the developmental phase of lifespan identified by Jeffrey Arnett (2006) as Emerging Adulthood (typically thought of as 18-29 years old), there is a limited amount of literature on the parent-child relationship during Emerging Adulthood. The relationship between parent and child undergoes significant transformations during adolescence and emerging adulthood. This period, marked by profound developmental changes and transitions, affects both the parent-child dynamic and the individual's personal development. Understanding these changes requires a look into current research and theoretical perspectives on the evolving nature of these relationships.

As emerging adults often live independently from their parents, the nature of their interactions shifts from daily supervision to more sporadic but more emotionally significant. Research suggests that this transition can lead to a more egalitarian relationship where both parties renegotiate their roles (Bowe, 2011). A longitudinal study by Smetana (2011) found that emerging adults typically value their parents' support and advice but seek to make their own decisions and establish their own identities. Moreover, a longitudinal study by Nelson and Barry (2005) supported the notion that emerging adults experience substantial identity exploration, but also highlighted variations based on socioeconomic status and cultural background. Their research showed that while the exploration of identity is a central theme, the ways in which individuals experience this phase can differ significantly across different contexts.

Additionally, the quality of the parent-child relationship in emerging adulthood can be influenced by factors such as economic conditions and educational attainment. For instance, Arnett (2007) notes that economic challenges can prolong dependency and influence the dynamics of parent-child interactions. Parents may continue to provide financial support or emotional guidance, which can sometimes strain the evolving adult-child relationship if not managed with clear boundaries.

Furthermore, the concept of emerging adulthood has been examined in various cultural settings. Research by Quatman, Watson, and Scheel (2001) extended Arnett's framework to different cultures, finding that while the core features of emerging adulthood are widely applicable, cultural values and economic conditions influence how individuals experience and navigate this stage. For instance, in collectivist cultures, the transition to adulthood may be more gradual and involve greater family involvement compared to individualistic cultures where autonomy is emphasized (Arnett & Galambos, 2003).

Previous research has explored how contemporary social and economic trends impact emerging adulthood. The delay in traditional adult milestones such as marriage, homeownership, and

financial independence has been a focal point. For example, a study by Settersten and Ray (2010) found that economic instability and prolonged education have contributed to the delay in achieving these milestones, which in turn affects the trajectory of emerging adulthood. They argue that the economic and educational context shapes the experience of emerging adulthood by extending the period of dependency and exploration.

Moreover, the rise of technology and social media has transformed the landscape of emerging adulthood. Research by Valkenburg and Peter (2011) examined how digital platforms influence identity formation and social relationships among emerging adults. They found that social media can both facilitate and complicate identity exploration, offering platforms for self-expression while also presenting challenges related to social comparison and cyberbullying.

Effective communication is pivotal in maintaining a healthy parent-child relationship throughout these the emerging adulthood stage. Studies indicate that open and supportive communication fosters a positive relationship and helps manage conflicts (Collins & Laursen, 2004). For example, research by Fuligni and Eccles (1993) highlights that adolescents who perceive their parents as supportive and communicative report better mental health and academic outcomes.

In emerging adulthood, maintaining supportive communication becomes equally important, though the nature of interactions may change. A study by Smetana, Campione-Barr, and Metzger (2006) suggests that emerging adults who perceive their parents as supportive and non-controlling are more likely to have successful transitions to adulthood and maintain positive relationships.

Current Study and Methodology

The goal of the current study is to further expand on the quantitative and qualitative literature exploring on the parent-child relationship during emerging adulthood. In conducting survey for this study, separate versions of the "Parent-Child Relationship in Adolescence versus Emerging Adulthood Questionnaire" were created for the college student and his or her parent(s). The questionnaires consisted of eight demographic questions. The student version of the questionnaire contained 36 Likert scale questions, and the parent version of the questionnaire contained 18 Likert scale questions. Both versions contained very similar questions regarding previous (adolescence) and current (emerging adulthood) levels of Attachment, Affection, Acceptance, Autonomy, Conflict, and Communication so the ratings between students and parents could be easily paired in the comparisons. The remaining questions in the survey were open-ended regarding how the parent-child relationship may *have changed since* entering emerging adulthood; this data was qualitatively analyzed using the Grounded Theory Approach.

The participants in the current study were 42 college students (30 female and 12 male; 18-29 years old) from a state university in the Northeast and their parents (36 mothers and 21 fathers) completed written questionnaires. Nearly half of the sample did not currently live with their parents at the time of completing this questionnaire, while the other half did currently live with their parents. The racial variation in the sample included: 78.6% White, 9.5% Latino; 7.1% Black, 2.4% Asian, 2.4% Mixed Race. The types of family structures that the students in this

sample grew up with included: 54.8% biological parents still married, 19% stepfamily, 16.7% single mother, 4.8% single father, 2.4% adopted family, 2.4% raised by grandparents.

Results

Adolescence – Communication

This study found that 52% of students said if they had a problem they wanted to talk about during adolescence, their mother was one of the first people they talked to about it, whereas only 31% said this of their fathers. Daughters were more likely to report talking to their mothers (57%) than their fathers (20%) when they had a problem as compared to sons ($t = 2.31(58)$, $p = .024$). Fathers reported that sons (78%) were significantly more likely than their daughters (42%) to talk to them about a problem ($t = -2.38(19)$, $p = .028$). 74% of students said their mother encouraged them to talk about their problems with her during adolescence as compared to 41% of students who said this about their fathers.

Emerging Adulthood - Communication

Based on the surveys compiled from the sample of participants, 69% of students said if they had a current problem they wanted to talk about, then their mother would be one of the first people they would talk to about it, whereas only 29% said this about their fathers. Sons were significantly more likely to report talking to their mother about a problem in emerging adulthood (75%) versus adolescence (42%), ($t = -2.54(22)$, $p = .019$). Seventy four percent of students said their mother currently encourages them to talk with her about their concerns as compared to 40% who said this about their fathers. Mothers were more likely to report that their daughters talked to them about a problem than fathers ($t = 3.35(55)$, $p = .001$), and mothers also were more likely to report encouraging their daughters to talk to them as compared to fathers' reports ($t = 2.33(55)$, $p = .023$). Fathers reported their sons were more likely to talk to them about a problem than their daughters ($t = -2.48(19)$, $p = .023$).

Qualitative Findings on Communication

Many students mentioned they had improved communication with their mothers during emerging adulthood as compared to adolescence; they felt they could talk more openly to their mothers now that they were in emerging adulthood. Most mothers indicated a greater frequency of communication and more open communication during emerging adulthood as compared to adolescence. For example, one mother said about her son, "My child now comes to me for advice rather than his peers." Another mother commented, "My daughter is easier to talk to now." A third mother said about her daughter, "We talk more openly now." A fourth mother commented, "We have discussions instead of arguments."

The students who commented on communication with their fathers all agreed they talked more with their fathers in emerging adulthood as compared to adolescence, and there seemed to be a lightness (joking around, humor) and openness as far as asking for advice, which had not been as

big a part of their relationship in adolescence. One father gave an insightful comment on changes in communication with his daughter, "I am more sensitive and less controlling and our communication is much more authentic, more personal, and more rewarding for both of us. I know we enjoy each other's company and the sharing works both ways. She often seeks my perspective and I seek hers and I think there is no pressure to react in a particular way, only a freedom to consider another point of view."

Adolescence - Attachment, Affection, Acceptance

This study found that 74% of students described their relationship with their mothers as being "close", while 57% said this about their fathers during adolescence. Son's (92%) reports of feeling close to their mothers were significantly higher than daughter's (67%) reports of feeling close to their mothers during adolescence (t= -2.53(39), p=.016).

This study found that 73% of students said they were affectionate toward their mother (hugging), while 52% said they were affectionate toward their father during adolescence. About 64% said their mothers initiated hugging and 55% said their fathers initiated hugging during adolescence. Sons reported they had been more affectionate with their mothers (91%) than fathers (33%), (t = 2.66(22), p = .045), and their mothers (58%) more affectionate with them as compared to fathers (33%), (t = 2.13(21), p = .015). About 52% of students said they felt accepted by their mothers and 64% said they felt accepted by their fathers during adolescence. However, mothers (89%) were more likely than fathers (50%) to report accepting their daughters during adolescence (t = 2.26(38), p = .029).

Emerging Adulthood - Attachment, Affection, Acceptance

This study found that 88% of students said they currently have a "close" relationship with their mother, and 64% said this about their father. This is a statistically significant difference (t = 2.22(67), p = .030). Daughters reported feeling closer to their mothers during emerging adulthood (92%) as compared to adolescence (67%), (t = -2.30(51), p = .025).

This study found that 76% of students indicated they are currently affectionate toward their mothers (hugs), while 50% said this regarding their fathers. Students also reported that mothers (76%) showed them more affection (hugs) than their fathers (57%) (t = 2.01(79), p = .048). Regarding fathers, daughters were significantly more likely than sons to report that their fathers showed them affection (hugging), (t = 2.35(37), p = .024), and daughters also were more likely to report that they were currently affectionate toward their fathers as compared to son's reports (t = 2.47(37), p = .018).

This study found that 90% of students indicated they currently feel accepted by their mother, and 74% said this of their father. Mothers' reported a significant increase in accepting their daughters from adolescence (89%) to emerging adulthood (97%), (t = -2.80(54), p = .007), and were more likely than fathers to report accepting their daughters (t = 2.27(13), p = .040) in emerging adulthood. Daughter's reports agreed that they thought their mothers (as compared to fathers) were more accepting of them (t = -3.09(49), p = .003).

Qualitative Findings on Attachment

Most students indicated that they perceived their relationship with their mother as closer in emerging adulthood as compared to adolescence. Their commentary seemed to indicate a shift in creating a "friendship" within their mothers during emerging adulthood. For example, a female student commented, "We spend time together more now because we want to enjoy each other's company." Another female student said, "When I was younger, I didn't want to talk about many things even though I was encouraged to. I also would rather spend time with friends than at home. Today it is much easier for me to talk to my mom and enjoy spending time with her and sharing my life with her."

All of the mothers who discussed attachment changes indicated their relationships with their children were closer in emerging adulthood as compared to adolescence. For example, one mother said, "My son and I are friends now." Another mother commented, "My relationship with my daughter is much better now. I'm not sure whether she just matured or I just got mellow, but either way I believe we have a great relationship with each other [now]."

Mot students' comments also indicated they felt "closer" to their fathers in emerging adulthood as compared to adolescence. For example, a female student said, "Today I talk to my dad more and we hang out more. We have a good relationship, and I enjoy spending time with him." More than one female student commented along the lines of, "We enjoy more activities together than before (sports)."

In reading over all of the students' qualitative responses regarding fathers, they can be summed up by this one female student's comment, "I understand my father better now." For those few fathers who commented on attachment, all indicated they had become closer to their child now that he or she has entered emerging adulthood.

Adolescence - Autonomy & Conflict

Students were more likely to report that mothers (48%) tried to make decisions for them than fathers (26%) during adolescence, ($t = 1.98(82)$, $p = .05$; nearly significant result here). This study found that 48% said they argued a lot with their mothers during adolescence, whereas 36% said this regarding their fathers. About 27% of the students said conflicts with their mothers usually did not get resolved, and 36% said this about the conflicts with their fathers. Parents reported more arguing with daughters than sons ($t = 2.54(44)$, $p = .02$), and fathers were more likely to report that conflicts with daughters (25%) usually did not get resolved as compared to their conflicts with their sons (0%), ($t = 2.11(16)$, $p = .05$; nearly significant result here).

Emerging Adulthood - Autonomy & Conflict

This study found that 17% of students said their mothers and fathers currently try to make decisions for them in emerging adulthood. Mothers reported being less likely to make decisions for their daughters in emerging adulthood (14%) as compared to when their child was an

adolescent (47%), (t = 3.81(54) p = .001). This agreed with both sons' (t = 2.53(18), p = .021) and daughter's (t = 3.04(58), p = .004) reports that their mothers made less decisions for them in emerging adulthood as compared to adolescence.

Only 12% of students said they currently argue with their mothers a lot, and 12% said this regarding their fathers. About 17% of students said conflicts with their mothers usually did not get resolved, and 12% said this about conflicts with their fathers. Both sons and daughters reported significantly less arguing with both their mothers and fathers in emerging adulthood as compared to adolescence (t = 4.80, df(58), p = .001), and significantly less conflicts with their parents that could not be resolved during emerging adulthood (t = 2.10(58), p = .038). Mothers also reported less arguing with their daughters during emerging adulthood (3%) versus adolescence (39%), (t = 3.06(47), p = .004). However, daughters reported significantly more arguing with their fathers during emerging adulthood as compared to sons' reports (t= 2.60(35), p= .014).

Qualitative Findings on Autonomy and Conflict

Students perceived their mothers as allowing greater autonomy in emerging adulthood as compared to adolescence. For example, a female student said, "My mother is more accepting of my choices even though she still will give her opinion on what I should do." Another female student commented, "My mother trusts me more and respects me more as an equal." A male student said, "My relationship with my mother has changed due to the fact that I no longer live with her and I feel as if I can be more honest with her about my personal life."

Mothers' indicated that many of them were making a conscious attempt to allow their emerging adult children more independence. One mother said about her daughter, "I now see her as an adult and trust the choices that she makes, but I still put in my two cents." Another mother said, "I try to respect my son and give him space now." A third mother commented, "I give her guidance and advice now instead of discipline."

The students' qualitative responses regarding their fathers were much different than their responses about their mothers. Many of the comments regarding autonomy indicated that students still perceived their fathers are trying to "control" them, but that their reactions to this has changed as emerging adults. For example, a female student said, "He still tries to tell me what to do, but now I see it as him just caring rather than being controlling." Another female student commented, "When he does get controlling, I now stand up for myself." A third female student said, "My relationship with my father is worse now because he wants to make decisions for me."

Most of the fathers chose to comment on autonomy rather than attachment in the open-ended section of the survey. These responses tended to indicate that fathers thought they were allowing greater autonomy in emerging adulthood as compared to adolescence, yet many of them still indicated a need to give "advice." For example, one father commented about his son, "He makes his own decisions, I only give advice." Another father said about his daughter, "I want to help

her make decisions but this is a conflict in our relationship." A third father said about his son, "He makes better decisions and listens to my advice now."

Summary of Findings

Based on the current study, there were 6 main findings. In the realm of Communication, the current research study found that both sons and daughters reported more communication with their mothers than fathers during adolescence and emerging adulthood. All participants agreed that communication improved as they progressed into emerging adulthood. In the realm of Attachment, the current research study found that both sons and daughters reported feeling closer to their mother than their father during adolescence and emerging adulthood. The participants described this as a shift toward "friendship" in their parent-child relationship. In the realm of Affection, the current research study found that both sons and daughters reported greater physical affection (hugs) with their mothers than their fathers in both adolescence and emerging adulthood. In the realm of Acceptance, the current research study found that mothers and daughters reported an increase in mutual acceptance during the transition of adolescence to emerging adulthood. In the realm of Autonomy, the current research study found that mothers were more likely to try to make decisions for their adolescent, while daughters, sons, and mothers agreed this decreased in emerging adulthood. Qualitative responses indicated fathers were more controlling than mothers during emerging adulthood. In terms of Conflict, the current research study found that parents reported more arguments with daughters during adolescence as compared to sons, while overall arguing was reported to decrease between mothers and children in emerging adulthood.

Future Research

A significant limitation to this study is that the findings speak only to the perceptions of the Emerging Adults and their parents rather than direct observations of relationship variables over the years, which would be preferable. Future research could also utilize face-to-face interviews of parents and Emerging Adults to elicit further detail on the relationship variables. Future studies should include larger sample sizes, and more males and racial diversity within the sample.

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Dual-Trauma Couples and Traumatic Stress

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Introduction

The aftermath of trauma has become a common facet in everyday life for many people (Siddiqui & Qayyum, 2017). Based on the research literature, the three types of trauma (psychological, unresolved, and secondary) involve symptoms which can impede an individual's ability to function on a regular basis following trauma experience (Siddiqui & Qayyum, 2017). Unresolved trauma occurs when an individual does not work through in therapy or on their own, their traumatic experience from the past which can impact their interactions with partners, how they parent, and how they function on a daily basis (Iyengar, Kim, Martinez, Fonagy & Strathearn, 2014).

Trauma can profoundly impact romantic relationships, often introducing significant stress and strain into the dynamics of a couple. Research indicates that trauma, whether experienced individually or collectively, can lead to relationship dissatisfaction, communication breakdowns, and increased conflict. A study by Monson and Fredman (2012) found that couples where one or both partners have experienced trauma, such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), often face challenges in intimacy and emotional connection. The symptoms of PTSD, including hypervigilance, avoidance, and intrusive thoughts, can erode relationship satisfaction and lead to a cycle of conflict and emotional distance (Monson & Fredman, 2012). Partners may struggle with understanding and empathy, as the trauma survivor's behaviors and emotional responses can be confusing and difficult to manage for their partner. Furthermore, research by Dekel and Ein-Dor (2012) emphasizes that trauma can affect relationship stability and satisfaction. Their study highlighted that trauma-related symptoms and stressors can lead to increased marital dissatisfaction and a higher likelihood of relationship dissolution. This is compounded by the fact that trauma can strain communication patterns, leading to misinterpretations and escalations in conflict (Dekel & Ein-Dor, 2012).

Dual-trauma couples form when both partners have experienced a traumatic experience that continues to impact the relationship (Nelson Goff, Irwin, Cox, Devine, Summers, & Schmitz, 2014). Previous research as shown that heterosexual dual- trauma couples have reduced relationship satisfaction, issues with intimacy, trust, and communication (Ruhlmann, Gallus, & Durtschi, 2018), as well as a lack of warmth and increase in anger and anxiety due to intimacy and communication issues (Marshall & Kuijer, 2017). Additionally, dual-trauma couples may experience a lack of emotional intimacy, resulting in feelings of insecurity and trust issues within the relationship resulting in unsupportive behaviors from partners (Guay et al., 2017; Yoo et al., 2014).

Purpose of Current Study

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study is to explore how dual-trauma couples perceive the impact of traumatic stress on their relationships. The theoretical framework of the

Family Stress Theory (Sullivan, 2015) was used to facilitate an understanding of this qualitative study on dual-trauma couples. This theory was originally introduced in 1949 by Reuben Hill as the ABCX Model (Sullivan, 2015). The model was explained as there being an event (A) which led to interaction with available resources (B) and meaning family assigned to event (C) which then led to creation of a crisis (X) depending on resources and perceptions (Sullivan, 2015). This theory attempts to explain why some families struggle with response to stressors and others thrive (Sullivan, 2015). When these stressors become frequent and or the system lacks supports and resources to manage a crisis could potentially lead to physical, emotional and or relational trauma (Families & Schools, 2017).

Research Questions

RQ1: What impacts of traumatic stress do dual-trauma couples identify?

RQ2: What coping mechanisms do dual-trauma couples identify for managing traumatic stress?

RQ3: Do dual-trauma couples perceive a difference in emotional intimacy between husbands and wives?

RQ4: What supportive behaviors are observed from couples discussing their dual-traumas? (Examples: holding hands, touching each other's hands, arm around spouse, verbal praise, hugging).

Significance of Study

The results of this study will have theoretical, clinical, and research implications. Theoretically this study supports Family stress theory's assumptions that resources and perceptions of stressors are necessary to manage stressful situations to reduce the risk of crisis (Sullivan, 2015). Clinically, the results of this study could be used by professionals to help empower dual-trauma couples and target emotional intimacy interventions through observed supportive and unsupportive behaviors. This study will advance research by exploring it as a systemic experience and including couples where both partners have experienced psychological, unresolved and/or secondary trauma.

Definition of Key Terms

Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) is a mental health condition which is developed from either experiencing and or observing a life frightening event. Possible symptoms include; exposure, intrusion, avoidance, negative changes in cognition and or/mood, and changes in arousal and, reactivity for more than 30 days (APA, 2013). Single-trauma couples are when one partner has a trauma history (Nelson Goff et al., 2014).

Trauma History is a person's experience with trauma (Bardeen & Benfer, 2018).

Unresolved trauma occurs when an individual does not work through in therapy or on their own, their traumatic experience from the past which can impact their interactions with partners, how they parent, and how they function on a daily basis (Iyengar, Kim, Martinez, Fonagy & Strathearn, 2014).

Research Methodology

Phenomenological approach was used to understand dual-trauma couples' experiences with traumatic stress (Alase, 2017). This method involves listening and observing to gain a deeper knowledge regarding that which is being studied. In this study the phenomena being studied was heterosexual dual-trauma couples, with a focus on their perceived experience of its impact on their families, their coping abilities, and gender differences in their emotional intimacy and observed supportive behaviors demonstrated by partners during semi-structured interviews. Interpretative phenomenological analysis was used to analyze the transcriptions which also included observations of the couples' behavior (Alase, 2017). The design consists of interacting with individuals to collect first-person experiences and the research questions are designed to assist with this end (Larkin & Thompson, 2012).

Population and Sample

The target were dual-trauma couples suffering from mental health issues. There were 10 Dual-trauma couples. Sample size small to due to best understand the phenomena as experienced by each. (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). The participants were least at least 18 years of age and married for at least one week. They were recruited from mental health clinics, Facebook, LinkedIn. A screening tools as part of inclusion to the research study, the researcher used the Life Event Checklist-5 to identify trauma history (LEC-5: Weathers, Blake, Schnurr, Kaloupek, Marx, & Keane, 2013) and the Post-traumatic stress checklist-5 (PCL-5: Weathers, Litz, Keane, Palmieri, Marx, & Schnurr, 2013). Confidentiality was maintained by discussing the need for appropriate consents to be signed by participants if information was to be shared with any third parties. Semi-structured interviews were video recorded after informed consent from the participants were obtained. Semi-structured interviews were video recorded and lasted between 45-60 minutes per couple. Semi-structured interviews allowed the interviewer the opportunity to interact with participants by asking them questions and observing their behaviors. Answers provided to the semi-structured interview questions and personal narratives were used to answer the identified research questions for the current qualitative research study.

Data Analysis

Researcher reviewed video-recordings and took field notes. Video recordings were transcribed and coded using interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) qualitative method. Field notes involve a working narrative with information about the interviews and participant observations of supportive behaviors, supportive behaviors counted. Supportive behaviors coded from the video recordings included verbal praise, warmth through hugging and holding hands.

Transcription of the verbal responses of the participants coded using three cycles described by Alase (2017) in IPA. The first coding cycle involves chunks of information taken and coded

where the researcher reviews the field notes and listens to recordings of the interview and/-or re-reads the transcripts. A color-coding system used on the transcripts to highlight important statements from the participants. The second coding cycle involves taking the chunks of information and breaking them down into individual words and shorter statements to explain "how" the experience happened (Alase, 2017). The third phase of coding involved the researcher writing an in-depth paragraph detailing the lived experience and how the participants experienced the phenomena (Alase, 2017). Overall, the current research study used the best practice of triangulation which is helpful by incorporating multiple sources of information such as field notes, semi-structured interviews, video-recordings and the participant's scores on the LEC-5 and PCL-5 assessments.

Research Findings

Research Question 1: What impacts of traumatic stress do dual-trauma couples identify?

The impacts of traumatic stress as identified in the interviews include difficulty coping with trauma, struggles in day-to-day activities such as work and managing relationships, avoidance, and participation in compulsive behaviors such as shopping and drinking of alcohol. Moreover, 8 out 10 couples reported no major crises day-to-day. Overall, the main qualitative theme that emerged from answering research question 1 was avoidance of discussing the trauma by each of the dual trauma couples.

Research Question 2: What coping mechanisms do dual-trauma couples identify for managing traumatic stress?

The research study found that dual trauma couples stated they tend to cope in variety of ways. Some of the adaptive coping methods reported by the participants involved leaning on their religious faith and family. For example, one participant stated "Family is very important and tends to be a focus to distract from issues." Another type of adaptive coping method used was humor where one participant stated "We tend to use humor or sarcasm with one another to cope." On the other hand, several participants also used maladaptive or compulsive behaviors such as drinking alcohol and/or shopping in order to manage the experience of dual trauma. Overall, the main overarching qualitative theme for answering research question 2 is that the majority of the dual trauma couples leaned on their family as a key adaptive coping mechanism or strategy.

Research Question 3: What are the differences in perceptions of emotional intimacy between husbands and wives with regards to dual-trauma couples?

Couples discussed for the most part the husbands and wives viewed emotional intimacy as a means to be a safe and supportive individual within the relationship. As an example, one couple stated "We lean on each other." Moreover, another one of the couples said, "we both know we can discuss our trauma experiences and can see how it has affected our relationship." Overall, the main overarching qualitative theme for answering research question 3 is that the majority of the dual trauma couples perceived emotional intimacy as a safe space in order to manage or cope with the trauma they experienced.

Research Question 4: What supportive behaviors are observed from couples discussing their dual-traumas?

In reviewing the video-recordings of the semi-structured interviews, the majority of dual trauma couples did not demonstrate physical contact during the interviews. On the other hand, verbal praise was apparent in many of the interviews and main theme. Couples in several interviews said," "I don't know where I'd be without them." A sub-theme identified was eye contact with eight out of ten couples tended to make eye contact during the semi-structured interviews.

Discussion

The results of this study did coincide with prior research in terms of partners experiencing trauma can affect individual and marriage and that support from partners helpful (Codrington, 2019). Participants stated that their spouses were also affected in different ways when either experienced traumatic stress which goes along with Family stress theory (Sullivan, 2015). Prior research indicated dual-trauma couples tend to struggle with negative interactions and lack in support and use maladaptive coping mechanisms (Alexander, 2014). The current study did not have the same findings and that a majority of couples expressed leaning on healthy supports. This aligns well with family stress theory's assertion on family's ability to cope versus live in crisis (Sullivan, 2015). In prior research, men have been found to not value emotional intimacy as much as women (Yoo et al., 2014). The current study found that both males and females equal focus. These couples can find some relief with the use of protective factors and social supports (Sullivan, 2015). Similar to prior research (Saltzman, 2016), dual-trauma couples in the current study discussed finding strength and resiliency in their relationships and abilities to manage traumatic stress. Family stress theory places an emphasis on us of healthy supports to try and reduce chances of distress/crisis (Sullivan, 2015).

Implications of the Research Study

Majority of participants stated they felt triggered at times but did not identify feeling out of control or that a crisis was on-going, this coincides with research by Jaffee et al. (2017) that supportive and safe environments tend to reduce distress. These couples do not necessarily lack in ability to manage traumatic stress and while anxiety and or distress may rise they have the supports to manage. The impact on the relationship was described as couples supporting one another. Findings add to existing information by changing some ideas about population. Differences from prior research maybe due to safety/support in majority relationships.

Moreover, family/faith/humor-results impacted by supportive partners. These couples do not necessarily exhibit anger or poor coping constantly and expressed warmth from their partners in coping. The current study has similar findings to prior research that couples and families need to bridge engagement with one another to help create a safe environment (Saltzman, 2016). During the interviews, many couples seemed to relax and began talking more about how they cope and joked with one another this may have affected and influenced the results of this study.

Current study found little to no differences between the connection, ability to problem-solve and communicate with their spouses. Prior research discussed Western cultures expect men to hide their emotions, be self-sufficient, be in control and operate as a single entity, while it is more socially acceptable for woman to express vulnerabilities (Gaia, 2013).

The research question addressed the idea of their being a lack of trust and support in these relationships as their being a strong connection between partners. Reasons for differences in findings maybe differences in maturity and or family of origin differences. Similar to prior research, dual-trauma couples in the current study discussed finding strength and resiliency in their relationships and abilities to manage traumatic stress (Saltzman, 2016), also Codrington (2019) found that distress amongst dual-trauma couples not uncommon and partner support necessary. The study found that these couples are more so the opposite of the study problem and that these couples provided verbal praise and or eye contact during interviews. Couples feeling safe and having an understanding of the expectations may have played a role in demonstrating the supportive behaviors.

Limitations

A key assumption of the study is that dual-trauma couples who struggle with traumatic stress often participate in negative interactions (Ruhlmann et al., 2018) which may not be fully disclosed in the semi-structured interviews. Moreover, the dual-trauma couple's experience trauma may have shared traumatic experiences but each member of the dual trauma couple may exhibit the different symptoms from each other (Nakamura & Tsong, 2018). The underlying rationale for all these assumptions being that trauma differentially impacts all areas of an individual's functioning (Ruhlmann et al., 2018). Moreover, participant memories may not be accurate when disclosing their experiences during the semi-structured interviews. To mitigate this the researcher respectfully sought clarification about the traumatic event and reminded participants that traumatic experiences are subjective. A final limitation of the study is that same sex couples were not part of the sample of participants in the study which greatly limits the generalizability of the results of the study beyond heterosexual couples.

Future Research

The plan for future research is using a larger and more diverse sample of dual trauma couple which would be helpful to see if findings will generalize to other samples from the target population. Future research can incorporate same sex couples' experiences of dual trauma that would also evaluate the generalizability of the results from the current research study

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The Link between Therapists' Social Class Attributions and Treating Clients of Low Socioeconomic Status

Dr. Dan Sharir

Introduction

Research indicates that individuals from low socioeconomic status (SES) backgrounds are at a higher risk for mental health issues, often due to chronic stressors such as financial instability, unemployment, and lack of access to healthcare (McLoyd, 1998). Prior research has established that social class attributions can shape how mental health therapists interact with low socioeconomic status (SES) clients, affecting the therapeutic alliance—the collaborative bond between therapist and client, which is crucial for effective psychotherapy (Kraus and Stephens, 2012). This may stem from prior research highlighting that lower SES may negatively impact the psychological health of an individual due to the increased stress associated with poverty (Meyer, Castro-Schilo, & Aguilar-Gaxiola, 2014). Indicators of lower social status include income level, education, and type of occupation (John-Henderson, Jacobs, Mendoza-Denton, & Francis, 2013). Additionally, middle-class and upper-class people may view individuals from a lower SES group as being less human, displaying less warmth and competence (Loughnan, Haslam, Sutton, & Spencer, 2014). Consequently, working with poor and low-income clients may present treatment challenges for therapists (Krupnick & Melnikoff, 2012).

Research by McLeod (2009) suggests that therapists' perceptions of clients' socioeconomic status can lead to biases that impact their approach to therapy. For example, therapists may unconsciously assume that low socioeconomic clients are less motivated or less capable of change, which can influence the therapist's level of engagement and support provided (McLeod, 2009). A study by Johnson et al. (2015) found that therapists who hold negative attributions about low socioeconomic clients are more likely to experience difficulties in building rapport and maintaining a therapeutic alliance. This is often due to underlying biases and stereotypes that can affect the therapist's empathy and understanding. For instance, therapists might believe that socioeconomic factors such as unemployment or financial instability are solely the result of personal failure rather than systemic issues, leading to judgments that undermine the client's sense of worth and progress in therapy (Johnson et al., 2015).

Therapists' own social class backgrounds can shape their views and interactions with low socioeconomic clients. Research indicates that therapists from higher social classes may struggle to relate to the lived experiences of low socioeconomic clients, leading to a disconnect in treatment approaches and therapeutic goals. A study by Gergen and McNamee (2008) highlights that therapists from higher social classes may inadvertently impose their own values and expectations on clients, failing to fully appreciate the impact of socioeconomic constraints on the client's life.

Additionally, therapists' social class backgrounds can influence their expectations for client behavior and progress. For example, higher-class therapists might expect clients to have a certain

level of resources or social support that is not available to low socioeconomic clients, potentially leading to frustration or disillusionment with the therapeutic process (Gergen & McNamee, 2008). This mismatch between therapist expectations and client realities can affect treatment effectiveness and client satisfaction.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this current study was to examine how therapists' social class attributions were linked to their experiences with working with low SES clients in actual clinical settings. The 2 overarching research questions for the current qualitative study are listed below:

1) How do therapists describe what it means to be poor?

2) How do therapists describe their experiences working with low SES people?

Theoretical framework of the study

The theoretical study framework was based on Fritz Heider's theory of attribution (Heider, 1958). Attribution theory states that people strive to control and predict their environments by understanding the causes of behaviors, which can be attributed to dispositional or situational factors (Haider-Markel & Joslyn, 2008). For example, prior research shows that therapists may unconsciously harbor dispositional attributions regarding clients from low SES backgrounds. These unconscious dispositional attributions can manifest as assumptions about clients' motivations, capabilities, and willingness to engage in therapy (Hodge et al., 2011). For instance, a therapist may assume that a low SES client is less committed to treatment or less capable of following through with therapeutic assignments, leading to a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Methodology

Semi-structured Interview questions

First three semi-structured interview questions below address the first overarching research question

- What does it mean to be poor in America?
- What do you think causes poverty?
- What do you think keeps a person in poverty and poor?

The last three semi-structured interview questions address the second overarching research question

- How do you perceive that social class impacts your relationship with the client?
- How do you perceive that social class impacts your work as a therapist?
- What are some of experiences of working with poor clients in your practice that characterizes your work with this population?

Setting of study

The study participants were recruited from various mental health clinics in the greater New York area. The researcher met with the participants individually in their private offices to conduct a semi-structured interview.

Participants Selection

The ten participants were selected by using purposeful sampling techniques of snowballing sampling and via networking. Network sampling was conducted using social media or other types of networks to recruit study participants. Snowballing sampling occurred when study participants lead the researcher to other potential study participants.

Data Collection

After making the initial contact with each of the participants in the study, the researcher met with the therapists individually in their private offices to conduct a semi-structured interview. Confidentiality was maintained by discussing the need for appropriate consents to be signed by participants if information was to be shared with any third parties. Semi-structured interviews were audio recorded after informed consent from the participants were obtained. All the interviews were audio recorded using the Sony ICD PX333 digital voice recorder. Semi-structured interviews were video recorded and lasted between ranged from forty-five minutes to about an hour and 20 minutes per therapist. Semi-structured interviews allowed the interviewer the opportunity to interact with participants by asking them questions. Answers provided to the semi-structured interview questions and personal narratives were used to answer the two overarching research questions for the current qualitative research study.

Data Analysis

The data analysis began with transcribing the digital recordings of the interviews. The data were coded according to themes and then the themes from the different interviews were compared to gather a consistency of themes across all the therapists interviewed in the current research study.

Results

Overarching Research Question 1 themes

In analyzing the 10 interviews, the main themes that emerged for the overarching research question 1 included Lacking Necessities, Marginality, Social Welfare, and Learned Helplessness. Study participants discussed the impact of poverty on **lacking access to necessities** such as food, education, a home, and resources. Study participants discussed the connection between the structure and focus of American society and issue of poverty which causes low SES patients to be **marginalized**. Study participants also discussed the impact of **social welfare programs** on the individual and the issue of poverty. Study participants also discussed the connection between **learned helplessness** and poverty. Some other ancillary themes that emerged from research

question 1 were focused on short-term goals of clients, clients lacking skills, the impact of addiction and mental illness on clients, and lacking hope expressed by their clients.

Overarching Research Question 2 themes

In analyzing the 10 interviews, the main themes that emerged for the overarching research question 2 included Perceptions of SES, Avoiding biases. Having empathy, Impact of client stress and poverty, Societal concerns, Exceptional Client Cases and Coping with Clients. The study participants discussed way they **perceive SES differences**, between them and clients and possible impact on therapy. Participants stated that they try to **avoid having biases** against their low SES clients. Participants also discussed way they dealt with issue of **empathy** for clients. Participants also discussed **impact of stress and poverty** on their relationship with their clients. Participants also discussed **societal issues** in working with low SES clients. The participants also pointed out **exceptional client cases** which were the low SES clients successful or inspiring in overcoming their various challenges while other participants discussed difficulties coping with clients. Some other ancillary themes that emerged from research question 2 were focused on the low SES clients feeling marginalized, therapy not valued, poor perception of self, impact of client education level to be successful in therapy, work ethic, engaging the client, and having an unpleasant work environment with the clients.

Interpretation of the Findings

The study confirmed prior findings by Balmforth (2009) and McLeod, (2009) that therapists who work with people from a lower SES feel both challenged and rewarded. The research study provided evidence that perception of poverty differs among mental health providers and that mental health provides perceived people living in poverty face unique obstacles that can impact the efficacy of entering mental health treatment. The findings concurred that some therapists might not understand the impact of poverty on clients (Dass-Brailsford, 2012; Vontress, 2011) and have negative stereotypes (Kim & Cardemil, 2012). The study extended current knowledge by showing that therapists differed in the attributions (dispositional or situational) assigned to poverty and being poor. Study extended current knowledge about the impact of therapists' social class on their perception of clients. Participants from a lower SES background were more empathetic to their clients, whereas therapists from a middle or high SES had more difficulties in understanding their clients concerns. Some of the participants focused on the difficulties of coping with their clients behaviors. The participants raised other issues that were divided into issues impacting their clients and difficulties they encountered working with clients.

Limitations

First, there were only ten study participants and consequently the study might not be generalized to other populations. Second, the study was only based on the researcher's interviews and observations with the sample of clinicians and there was no second rater for the qualitative data.

Future Research

Future studies could investigate difference in attributions between therapists from a low or middle class and those therapists from a high social class concerning the issue of poverty and working with clients from a low SES background. Second recommendation is to explore the ways that therapists perceive their difficulties in working with their clients from a lower SES background. Some therapists focused on the impact of poverty on clients' difficulties, whereas others focused on their own difficulties interacting with their clients.

Implications for Social Change

The first implication is that the study can result in greater awareness of the impact of poverty on clients, and this can be incorporated into training of students and therapists. Addressing the impact of social class attributions on therapeutic practice requires changes in professional training and practice. Incorporating training on social class and its effects on therapy can help therapists develop greater awareness and sensitivity to the socioeconomic factors influencing their clients. A study by Szymanski and Kocarek (2008) emphasizes the importance of including social class issues in therapist education programs to enhance cultural competence and reduce biases. Such training can help therapists recognize and challenge their own assumptions, fostering more equitable and effective therapeutic relationships.

Moreover, ongoing professional development and supervision can provide therapists with opportunities to reflect on their social class attributions and their impact on clinical practice. Supervision that includes discussions about social class and its implications for therapy can support therapists in developing more nuanced and empathetic approaches to working with low socioeconomic clients (Szymanski & Kocarek, 2008).

The second implication is that the study can result in reduced bias and misconceptions concerning the issue of poverty and working with clients from a lower SES background. In particular, previous research indicates that therapists from higher social classes may struggle to relate to the lived experiences of low socioeconomic clients, leading to a disconnect in treatment approaches and therapeutic goals. A study by Gergen and McNamee (2008) highlights that therapists from higher social classes may inadvertently impose their own values and expectations on clients, failing to fully appreciate the impact of socioeconomic constraints on the client's life.

Additionally, therapists' social class backgrounds can influence their expectations for client behavior and progress. For example, higher-class therapists might expect clients to have a certain level of resources or social support that is not available to low socioeconomic clients, potentially leading to frustration or disillusionment with the therapeutic process (Gergen & McNamee, 2008). This mismatch between therapist expectations and client realities can affect treatment effectiveness and client satisfaction.

Conclusion

Therapists' social class attributions play a critical role in shaping their experiences with low socioeconomic clients in clinical settings. These attributions can affect the therapeutic alliance, influence treatment approaches, and impact treatment outcomes. Addressing these issues through targeted training and professional development is essential for improving the effectiveness and equity of mental health care. By fostering greater awareness of social class dynamics and challenging biases, therapists can enhance their practice and provide more supportive and effective care for clients from diverse socioeconomic backgrounds.

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Words of Freedom: Evaluation of a Literacy Program Addressing Third Grade African American Struggling Readers

Dr. Denise Mayo Moore

Introduction

Early childhood literacy encompasses the development of skills related to reading, writing, and language comprehension from birth to age eight. These foundational skills are crucial as they set the stage for future academic achievement and cognitive development. Research by Whitehurst and Lonigan (1998) underscores the importance of early literacy experiences in shaping language development and cognitive abilities, which are fundamental to later academic and social outcomes.

Early literacy development fosters not only cognitive skills but also social-emotional competencies. According to the National Early Literacy Panel (2008), early literacy activities such as shared reading and language-rich interactions contribute to improved vocabulary, better language processing, and enhanced cognitive skills, all of which are linked to academic success and social behavior. These early skills can thus influence broader developmental outcomes, including the likelihood of engaging in criminal behaviors later in life.

One of the primary mechanisms through which early childhood literacy affects criminal behavior is its impact on academic achievement and school engagement. Children who develop strong literacy skills early in life are more likely to succeed academically, stay engaged in school, and develop positive attitudes toward learning. Research by Currie and Thomas (2001) highlights that early literacy is strongly correlated with later academic performance. Higher academic achievement and school engagement are associated with lower rates of school dropout and delinquent behavior (Patterson, DeBaryshe, & Ramsey, 1989).

Children who struggle with literacy are at a higher risk of academic failure, school dropout, and subsequent criminal behaviors. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2016), students with low reading proficiency are more likely to exhibit behavioral problems and engage in criminal activities. Students who do not read proficiently by the 3rd grade are 4 times likelier to drop out of school (Hernandez, 2011). One fourth of children in the United States grow up without learning how to read (Children's Defense Fund, 2012). Moreover, 2/3 of students who cannot read proficiently by the end of 4th grade will end up in jail or on welfare. Over 70% of inmates in the United States cannot read above a 4th grade level (Harlow, 2003, Hernandez, 2011). By improving early literacy skills, these risks can be mitigated, leading to better academic outcomes and reduced likelihood of engaging in criminal behavior.

Early literacy development also supports cognitive and emotional regulation, which are critical for preventing criminal behaviors. Literacy skills promote cognitive abilities such as problem-solving and critical thinking, which are associated with better decision-making and impulse control (Denham et al., 2012). Research by Blair and Razza (2007) found that early literacy and

language skills are closely linked to executive functioning, including working memory and self-regulation. Enhanced cognitive and emotional regulation can reduce the likelihood of engaging in impulsive or criminal behaviors.

The development of early literacy skills can enhance social skills and peer relationships, which are important factors in reducing criminal behavior. Early literacy activities often involve social interactions with caregivers, peers, and teachers, fostering communication skills and social competence (Berk & Winsler, 1995). Positive peer relationships and effective communication skills can act as protective factors against criminal behavior, as children with strong social networks are less likely to engage in delinquency (Patterson et al., 1989). Research by Walker, Colvin, and Ramsey (1995) emphasizes that social skills and peer relationships are critical in shaping behavior and preventing criminal activities. Early literacy experiences that promote social interactions and cooperative learning contribute to the development of these essential skills.

Problem Statement

A public school district located in New Jersey where 6,460 children enrolled was used for the current research study. Among the students enrolled in the school district, 6.8% were eligible for a free or reduced-price lunch. According to the New Jersey Report Card (NJDOE, 2012), 66.5 % of all third-grade students scored proficient using the New Jersey Assessment of Skills and Knowledge (NJ-ASK) The New Jersey Assessment of Skills and Knowledge (NJ-ASK) is a standardized test given to all New Jersey public-schooled students in grades 3-8. Before the implementation of the Literacy Program discussed in this archival research study, only 34.3% of the specific school district students attained the proficient benchmark on the New Jersey Assessment of Skills and Knowledge (NJ-ASK).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the current study is to investigate the effect that the Reading Success Program had on target school district on African American students' academic achievement in third grade before and after the implementation of the Reading Success Program based on archival data from 2011 and 2012.

Research Question & Hypotheses

Is there a difference in academic achievement between students who participated in the Reading Success Program and students who did not participate in the Reading Success Program?

H_1: Students who participated in the Reading Success Program will score higher in reading comprehension than students who did not participate in the Reading Success Program as measured by the New Jersey Assessment of Skills and Knowledge (NJ-ASK).

H_2: Students who participated in the Reading Success Program will score higher in reading fluency than students who did not participate in the Reading Success Program as measured by the New Jersey Assessment of Skills and Knowledge (NJ-ASK).

H_3: Students who participated in the Reading Success Program will score higher in instructional reading performance than students who did not participate as measured by the Dolch Sight Word assessment, DRA2.

H_4: Students who participated in the Reading Success Program will score higher in sight word recognition than students who did not participate in the Reading Success Program as measured by the Dolch Sight Word List.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the current research study is built on the theoretical underpinnings of Lev Vygotsky's social cognitive learning. Vygotsky considered peer and social relationships, culture, environment, and assessment as vital roles in the intervention and learning process for a child (Korepanova, & Saphronova, 2011, Kozulin, 2009)

Methodology

The participants in this study totaled 200 African American students. The criteria for being selected in the Reading Success Program was that the students had to be in the third grade and at least one grade level below their current grade in literacy. Half of the students were enrolled in the Reading Success Program and half of the participants were part of the non-intervention control condition. The research study was implemented as a pull-out intervention twice per week for 40 minutes for the target population of students over the school year. There were also two instructional support teachers who helped implement the pull-out intervention. The four dependent variables examined in the 2011 and 2012 archival data from public school district located in New Jersey included Reading comprehension, Oral reading fluency, Instructional reading level and Sight word recognition.

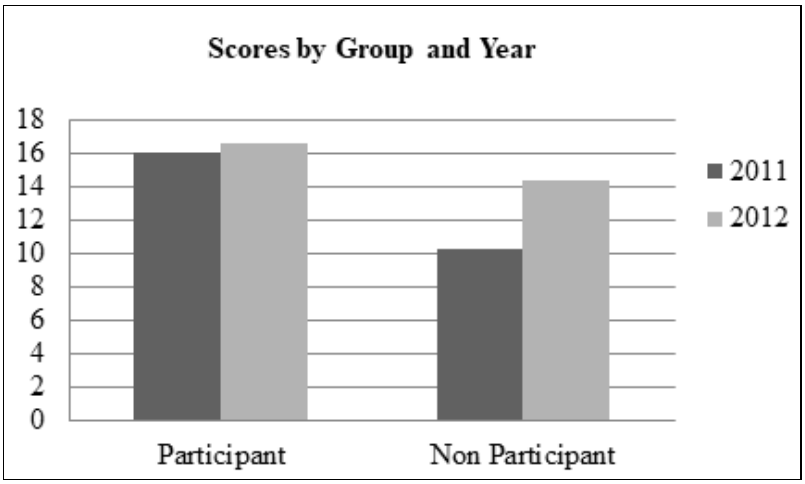
There were 2 validated instruments used in the study to measure literacy skills of the students. The New Jersey Assessment of Skills and Knowledge (NJ-ASK) is a standardized test given to all New Jersey public-schooled students in grades 3-8. This was used to measure reading comprehension than students, oral reading fluency, and instructional reading level. Moreover, the Dolch Sight Word assessment, DRA2 (Beaver, 2006; Vanalst, 2014) measures word recognition of 220 words representing the expected vocabulary of primary materials that encompasses over 50% of all words used in schoolbooks and other publications (preschool through third grade).

Results

The research study found that students who participated in the Reading Success Program scored higher in reading comprehension than students who did not participate in the Reading Success Program as measured by the New Jersey Assessment of Skills and Knowledge (NJ-ASK). The improvement in reading comprehension between the experimental and control conditions was more pronounced in the archival data from 2011 than in 2012 (see Figure 1 below).

Figure 1

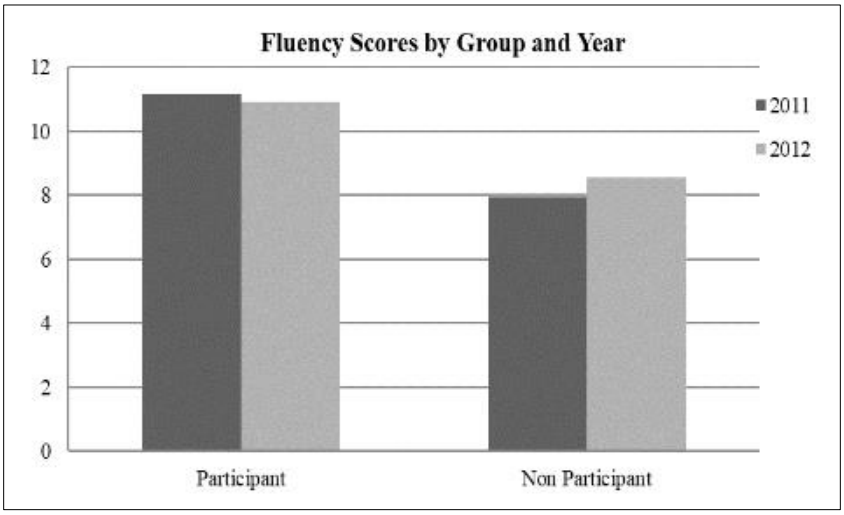
Reading Comprehension Scores by Group and Year



The research study also found that students who participated in the Reading Success Program scored higher in reading fluency than students who did not participate in the Reading Success Program as measured by the New Jersey Assessment of Skills and Knowledge (NJ-ASK). The improvement in reading fluency between the experimental and control conditions was documented in the archival data for both 2011 and 2012. See Figure 2 below.

Figure 2

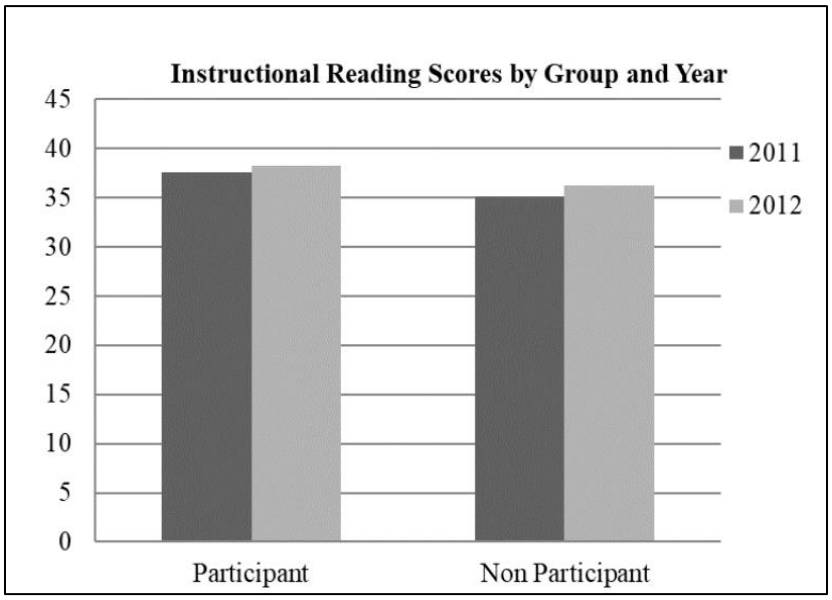
Reading Fluency Scores by Group and Year



In contrast, the research study found that students who participated in the Reading Success Program showed marginal differences in instructional reading performance compared to students who did not participate in the Reading Success Program as measured by the New Jersey Assessment of Skills and Knowledge (NJ-ASK). See Figure 3 below.

Figure 3

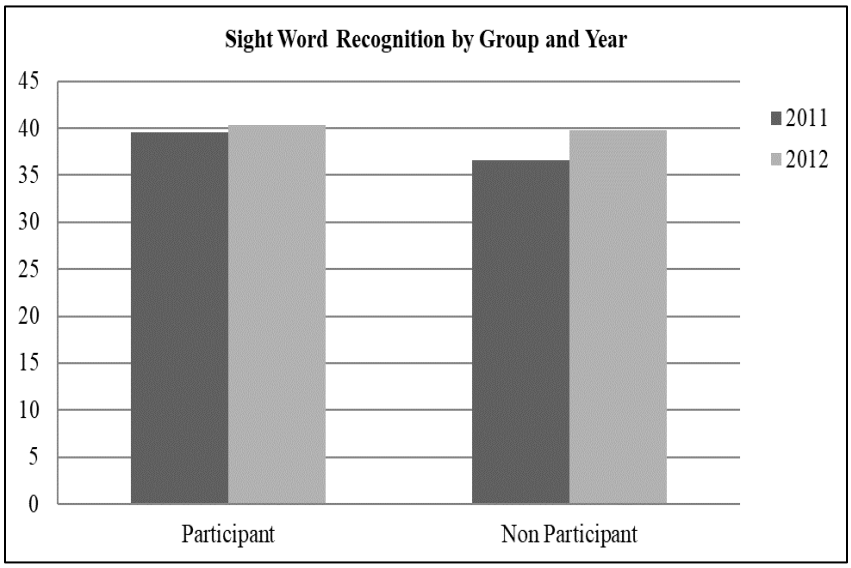
Instructional Reading Scores by Group and Year



Moreover, the research study found that students who participated in the Reading Success Program showed marginal differences in sight word recognition compared to students who did not participate in the Reading Success Program as measured by the Dolch Sight Word List based on the 2011 archival data. In fact, the 2012 archival data showed that the Dolch Sight Word List performance was no different between students who participated in the Reading Success Program compared to students who did not participate in the Reading Success Program. This means that the sight word recognition gains from 2011 carried over to 2012 (see Figure 4 below).

Figure 4

Sight Word Recognition by Group and Year



Discussion

The research study was surprising that such significant gains in literacy skills among African American students were found with a 40-minute intervention twice per week over the span of a school year. The Reading Success Program had a positive impact by improve the literacy skills of African American students which as a potential to ultimately reduce the dropout rate of high school students along with reducing the occurrences with the justice and social service systems.

The connection between early childhood literacy and reduced criminal behaviors has significant implications for policy and intervention strategies. Investing in early literacy programs can serve as a preventative measure to address risk factors associated with criminal behavior. Programs that focus on improving early literacy skills, such as Head Start and early reading initiatives, have been shown to produce positive outcomes in academic achievement and behavioral development (Barnett, 2011).

Early intervention programs that target literacy development in at-risk populations can be particularly effective. Research by Reynolds et al. (2001) found that early educational interventions, including literacy-focused programs, significantly reduce the likelihood of engaging in criminal behaviors among participants. These programs not only enhance literacy skills but also address broader developmental needs, including social-emotional support and family involvement.

Conclusion

Early childhood literacy plays a crucial role in shaping developmental trajectories and reducing the likelihood of criminal behaviors. By fostering academic achievement, cognitive and emotional regulation, and positive social interactions, early literacy contributes to long-term outcomes that reduce the risk of engaging in criminal activities. The research underscores the importance of investing in early literacy programs as a preventative measure and highlights the need for continued support and intervention strategies to address the broader developmental needs of children. Ensuring that all children have access to high-quality literacy experiences can contribute to healthier, more successful lives and reduced criminal behavior.

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Exploration of the Construction and Operationalization of Gender Roles within Millennial Relationships: An Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis

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Millennials, born between 1981 and 1996, have witnessed profound societal changes that challenge traditional gender roles in romantic relationships. Historically, gender roles have defined romantic relationships. Men were typically seen as providers, while women assumed nurturing roles. The feminist movements of the late 20th century began to disrupt these norms, allowing women to pursue careers and gain financial independence (Thorne, 1993). This shift laid the groundwork for a re-examination of partnership dynamics.

Currently, millennials are reshaping dating norms. The rise of online dating platforms has diversified how individuals meet, leading to various relationship structures. A survey by the Pew Research Center (2019) found that 30% of millennials prefer non-traditional relationship models, reflecting broader acceptance of LGBTQ+ relationships and cohabitation without marriage. Contemporary millennial relationships often feature shared decision-making and financial responsibilities. A study by Antoine (2020) reveals that 62% of millennial couples split financial duties equally, challenging the notion that men should be the primary providers. However, traditional expectations persist, especially regarding emotional labor, which disproportionately falls on women (Hochschild & Machung, 2012).

Emotional labor, defined as the management of emotions to fulfill relational expectations, plays a crucial role in romantic dynamics. Research indicates that women often bear the brunt of this labor, navigating their partners' emotional needs while managing their own (Hochschild, 1983). This imbalance can lead to stress and resentment, highlighting the need for equitable sharing of emotional responsibilities.

The framework for how a couple creates and maintains a relationship has been tied to preexisting gender norms built upon the widely accepted understandings of binary definitions and roles of male and female. The purpose of this qualitative study was to explore millennial couples' constructions of gender roles and how such roles influence and inform the development and maintenance of coupled romantic relationships. The key theoretical frameworks that helped conceptualize the current research study included Feminist theory (Allen & Jaramillo-Sierra, 2015). Social role theory (Miller, 2016) Gender role theory (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009) Attachment theory (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2012).

Research Methodology

A phenomenological approach was used to understand millennial experiences with gender roles within their relationship (Alase, 2017). This method involves listening and observing to gain a deeper knowledge regarding that which is being studied. Moreover, it assumes that experiences are social constructionist in nature (Burr, 2003). Interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) was used to analyze the transcriptions (Alase, 2017). The design consists of interacting with individuals to collect first-person experiences and the research questions are designed to assist with this end (Larkin & Thompson, 2012). Moreover, the IPA design also allows exploration of content versus process among the interviews conducted with the participants (Ravitch & Carl, 2016).

Research Questions

RQ1. How do millennial couples conceptualize gender roles within their relationship?

RQ2. How do millennial couples operationalize gender roles within their relationship?

RQ3: How do millennials relate to one another according to their construction of gender and relationships?

RQ4: How does the developing themes of millennial relationship experiences and functioning within the context of gender reconcile with the marriage and family therapy literature including the notion of the marital life cycle?

Population and Sample

There were 14 individuals who were aged 22 to 36 years old (i.e. born between 1981–1996) at the time of the research study. Sample size small to due to best understand the phenomena as experienced by each participant. (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). The researcher used passive recruitment to recruit participants for the current qualitative research study. Prior to interviewing the potential participants for the current study, a screener was used to verify the participants fit the inclusion criteria for the current research study before scheduling the face-to-face interviews. Confidentiality was maintained by discussing the need for appropriate consents to be signed by participants if information was to be shared with any third parties. Semi-structured interviews were recorded after informed consent from the participants were obtained. Semi-structured interviews were recorded and lasted 45 minutes per participant. Semi-structured interviews allowed the interviewer the opportunity to interact with participants by asking them questions and observing their non-verbal behaviors. Answers provided to the semi-structured interview questions and personal narratives were used to answer the identified research questions for the current qualitative research study.

Data Analysis

The assumptions about the participants being part of the current qualitative research study is that they are credible and trustworthy, they are comfortable discussing experiences, and they not limited in their sharing their attitudes and experiences about gender. Researcher reviewed recordings. Recordings were transcribed and coded using interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) qualitative method. Participants coded by a number and identified gender. All the data were stored on password protected encrypted Apple computer. Transcription of the verbal responses of the participants coded using three cycles described by Alase (2017) in IPA. The first coding cycle involves chunks of information taken and coded where the researcher reviews the field notes and listens to recordings of the interview and/-or re-reads the transcripts. A color-coding system used on the transcripts to highlight important statements from the participants. The second coding cycle involves taking the chunks of information and breaking them down into individual words and shorter statements to explain "how" the experience happened (Alase, 2017). The third phase of coding involved the researcher writing an in-depth paragraph detailing the lived experience and how the participants experienced the phenomena (Alase, 2017).

Results

RQ1: How do millennial couples conceptualize gender roles within their relationship?

Based on the gathered qualitative data, gender is an identifier, but not a rigid construct. In particular, there is a lack of rigidity with respect to the essence of gender and there is vacillation between organized and disorganized conceptualization. The participants clearly argued that Gender is socially constructed and reaffirmed in relational contexts. For example, one participant responded by saying "There's a lot of society shaping…they told me I was a girl." Another participant stated "Girls do this and boys do this…and that's how its structured and should be. Overall, the participants expressed resistance of gender shaping in favor of individual autonomy and uniqueness

RQ2. How do millennial couples operationalize gender roles within their relationship?

Based on the gathered qualitative data, gender scripts remain influential. Feminine and masculine traits are still observed and, in some cases, desired in relationships, but render roles are flexible and inclusive. For example, one participant responded by saying "We encourage each other to do what makes us happy." Moreover, a qualitative theme emerged that adoption and open expression of male and female traits were sometimes endorsed by same individual.

RQ3: How do millennials relate to one another according to their construction of gender and relationships?

Based on the gathered qualitative data, gender scripts are shifting with participants expressing the irrelevance of stereotypical framework, increase in egalitarian domestic roles and responsibilities, and financial equality in the relationship. Moreover, the participants expressed gender expectations are flattened with domestic roles are negotiated and emotionality is shared

more openly (i.e. abandonment of weakness stereotype). Moreover, flattened gender roles create connection and shared opportunities by abandoned scripts, which open up space for uniqueness in relationships. The participants also expressed that relationship e*xpectations based on people, not* gender. Overall, the participants expressed pragmatics of roles of couples are more important than gender roles.

RQ4: How does the developing themes of millennial relationship experiences and functioning within the context of gender reconcile with the marriage and family therapy literature including the notion of the marital life cycle?

Based on the gathered qualitative data, the participants expressed blurring of the fixed life stages and gender specific roles along with the abandonment of rigid, socially constructed life stages of progression. One participant even said that "We don't have to fit people in boxes". The qualitative data seems to indicate that Sequence that relates to life stages and gender specific roles may be the same, but timeline is not. This means that there is a removal of benchmark expectations throughout the lifespan along with the abandonment of socially constructed touchstone events connected to each life stage. In particular, the participants indicated that dating and getting involved in a long-term relationship is fluid and not rigid. Finally, the participants argued that step by step life stages are possible but not a felt mandate to follow these life steps.

Evaluation of the Findings

The research findings support Allen's (2016) assertion of gender construction intersectionality along with Robnett et al.'s (2018) assertion of males shifting away from traditional gender role prescriptions. The key findings conflicts with family life cycle rigidity which means that there is a significant shift among millennials away from previous generational scripts. Based on these findings, Marriage and Family Therapists (MFTs) should overtly attend to this shift in couples therapy. MFTs should be cautious to not inadvertently impose generationally informed gendered language or questions guided by generational norms. The MFTs should be mindful and respectful of the decreasing adherence of millennial clients to rigid gendered characteristics. As found in the research study, participants described acceptance of male expression of emotions and decrease in anger and aggressiveness behaviors among millennial men. Moreover, the research study also reported acceptance of traditionally female traits and domestic responsibilities among millennial men. As such, MFTs must suspend preconceived assumptions and take care in how they structure questions. This means that MFT should adopt a gender-neutral stance on career and household roles among the clients whom they treat. The findings of this study diverge from Halegeson's (2017) finding that females maintain higher burden of household duties. Again, MFTs must suspend preconceived assumptions about gender roles when working with clients and take considerable care in how they structure questions to reduce any gender bias. The research study also highlighted that relationship responsibilities in millennials are driven by interest, not by gender or life stages, relationship decisions are made based on individual interests, and power is shared in the relationship.

Overall, MFTs should re-consider the applicability of traditional relationship models to millennial clients (i.e. prescribed "normal" family functioning; gender based roles). MFTs should also examine the language they use when working with millennial clients along with examining their own bias/personal framework for understanding couples and families. For future research, the researcher recommends that there would be a further exploration of culturally specific experiences of millennials couples along with expanding or replicating the qualitative findings of the current student with a nationwide sample of millennial clients.

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Differential Impact of the Perception of Ethical Climates upon Job Satisfaction Among Different Types of Employees

Dr. Glenn A. Zimmerman

Introduction

An ethical climate includes several dimensions of self-interest, company profit, efficiency, friendship, team interest, social responsibility, personal morality, rules and standard operating procedures, and laws and professional codes (Trevino et.al., 2000). Just as ethical culture can be viewed as a subset of organizational culture, the ethical climate is an outgrowth of work done on organizational climate. Some studies show that an organizational ethical climate can have an inhibitory effect on employees' unethical behavior (Lee & Ha-Brookshire, 2018). However, existing research generally examined the organizational ethical climate in a holistic manner, but it is important to consider that differently-oriented organizational ethical climates would have differential effects on the unethical behavior of employees. As an important part of an organizational ethical climate, ethical climate rules focus on organizational rules and order and research findings have indicated that ethical climate rules have been able to restrain employees' unethical behaviors (Barnett & Vaicys, 2000).

To better understand the relationship between an organization's ability to create a positive ethical environment and how this environment would impact job satisfaction, there must first be an understanding of the various motivational variables and hygiene factors that were first introduced and documented by Frederick Herzberg during the late 1950's (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). The findings of Frederick Herzberg provide researchers with a more detailed understanding of the job satisfaction of employees by examining the motivational factors or variables that can satisfactorily motivate workers. This theory also identifies hygiene factors that also can be related to the non-satisfaction of workers and can lead to dissatisfied employees within an organization (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). By understanding both motivational factors and hygiene factors such as supervision, policy, and standards, there can be a better understanding of some of the complexities and variables of an ethical climate and how it can help to create job satisfaction among workers.

One of the earliest research studies examining the impact of the perception of an ethical climate in the workplace was conducted by Satish Deshpande in 1996. Research conducted by Deshpande (1996) tried to understand how an organization's ethical environment impacts worker job satisfaction. This prior study also develops a baseline understanding of what is considered an ethical climate as the variables of professionalism, caring, rules, instrumental, efficiency, and worker independence were examined in the research study. These variables create an understanding of an overall ethical environment. Job satisfaction for the study was identified by pay, promotion, worker, manager, and work satisfaction (Deshpande, 1996). Both ethical climate and job satisfaction variables identified in this research study provide a greater understanding of the types of ethical climates that often are established within any organization; a better standing of the different components that have to do with job satisfaction; and lastly how different

organizational ethical climate types and have a dramatic impact on job satisfaction (Deshpande, 1996). The main findings from this prior study showed that an ethical climate could have many varying types (Deshpande, 1996). The most referred type of ethical climate within the study by Deshpande's (1996) findings was around professionalism. In contrast, the most uncommon trait for an ethical climate appeared to be related to workplace or task-related efficiencies (Deshpande, 1996). Another important component that helps to understand an ethical climate and job satisfaction was the result that most managers found their work to be more critical to job satisfaction as compared to their salaries.

This prior study also concluded that having a code of conduct and ensuring that workers follow legal and ethical organizational requirements also play a profound impact in creating the ability for job satisfaction (Deshpande, 1996). Lastly, the most negative component related to a workplace or organizational climate identified was the understanding that an instrumental climate where workers feel they must protect their self-interests can often create poor job satisfaction within their workplace environment.

In a more recently published research study, Feng et al. (2018) established a better understanding of the impact of an organization's ethical environment by specifically examining if an organization's ethical climate has any impact on the creativity and innovation among their employees. The prior published study by Feng et al. (2018) surveyed 340 employees along with 32 leaders within 16 organizations that are focused on high levels of creative or innovative outputs. A total of 270 surveys were returned with a response rate of 86%, including over 60% of participants with jobs including researchers and managers (Feng et al., 2018). The research study showed that ethical leadership is positively related to employee creativity and innovation. Moreover, there is a curvilinear relationship between ethical leadership and employee creativity, whereby the positive relationship between ethical leadership and employee creativity will be weakened when ethical leadership is at a high level. Finally, employees' intrinsic motivation mediates the curvilinear relationship between ethical leadership and employee creativity (Feng et al., 2018).

In a more recently published research study, Ganji et al. (2021) sought to better understand the relationship between an ethical climate, the predictors leading towards an ethical climate along with how all of these variables can impact employee empowerment, employee turnover intention, and ultimately worker job satisfaction. Ganji et al. (2021) found that job satisfaction for a sample of 215 employees had a statistically significant negative linear relationship with the self-reported turnover intention among the aforementioned employees. Moreover, there was also a positive linear relationship between the predictor variables of employee empowerment, ethical climate, and perceived organizational support on the outcome variable job satisfaction along with the negative linear relationship between the predictor variables of ethical climate and perceived organizational support on the outcome variable of turnover intention among employees. The research results also support the statistically significant mediation of the variable of job satisfaction in the effect of predictor variables of ethical context and perceived organizational support on the outcome variable of turnover intention.

As stated earlier, the goal of the current research study is to examine if there are any differences between cis male versus cis female employees, managers versus non-managers, and full versus part-time employees in terms of their perceptions of organizational ethical climate and their self-reported job satisfaction. In terms of gender, prior research has shown mixed results in terms of the perception of ethical workplace climates between men and women. For example, Derry (1989) conducted a study that found no significant gender differences in the ethical reasoning used in work conflicts. Other research studies have also found no differences between male employees' and female employees' ethical attitudes in the workplace (ex. Fritzsche, 1988). In contrast, other research studies found that female employees self-report more ethical workplace attitudes than their male employee counterparts (Betz et al., 1989; Ruegger & King, 1992). As such, this research study examined this gender difference again but in the context of both their perception of ethical climate and their self-report of job satisfaction.

In terms of managers and non-managers, most of the prior research on ethical climates has focused on the perceptions of ethical climates by samples of subordinate employees in the workplace (Nedkovski, Guerci, De Battisti, & Siletti, 2017) along with the prior research being focused on the perception of subordinate employees the on the ethical leadership of managers or supervisors (Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoogh, 2011). The goal of the current research study is to also compare if there are any differences between managers and non-managers (i.e. subordinate employees) regarding their concurrent perception of workplace ethical climates and their current job satisfaction.

Finally, most of the published research on the topic of employee perceptions of ethical climates was previously focused on full-time employees **(**Wang & Hsieh, 2012, Wang & Hsieh, 2013) but there is little to no current research on the perception of ethical climates among part-time employees. As such, the goal of the current research study is to also compare if there are any differences between full-time employees and part-time employees regarding their concurrent perception of workplace ethical climates and their current job satisfaction. Based on the goals of the current research study, the four main research questions that were examined in the research study included:

Research Question 1: Are there significant differences between male and female employees on the outcome variables of the perceptions of workplace ethical climates and job satisfaction?

Research Question 2: Are there significant differences between manager/supervisor versus non-supervisor/subordinate employees on the outcome variables of the perceptions of workplace ethical climates and job satisfaction?

Research Question 3: Are there significant differences between full-time versus part-time employees on the outcome variables of the perceptions of workplace ethical climates and job satisfaction?

Research Question 4: Is there a significant linear relationship between the perception of workplace ethical climate and job satisfaction among all types of employees?

Methodology

Participants

The participants for this research project were 140 voluntary participants recruited from SurveyMonkey Audience. The sample was primarily comprised of currently employed employees who are managers (or supervisors) and non-managers (or subordinate employees), male and female employees, and full and part-time employees. The average age of the participants was 44.45 years old (SD=13.16). The average length of time working for the sample of participants was 84.19 months (SD=100.17) which is approximately 7 years. Out of 140 sample respondents, there were 95 Caucasian participants (69%), 18 Asian participants (13%), 14 Hispanic participants (10%), 9 Other participants (6%), and 4 African American participants (3%). Out of 140 sample respondents, 46 participants completed an undergraduate degree (33%), 27 participants completed some undergraduate college credits (19%), 25 participants completed a Masters or Doctorate degree (18%), 20 participants completed at least a high school education (14%), 11 completed some post-graduate credits (8%), and 11 completed a vocational degree (8%). Out of 140 sample respondents, there were 92 cis females (66%), 46 cis males (33%), and 2 identified as other (1%). Because two individuals did not identify as either male or female only 138 responses were utilized in the comparison between male and female employees in the results section of the current research study. Out of the 140 sample respondents, there were 48 managers (34%) and 92 non-managers (66%). Out of the 140 sample respondents, there were 111 full-time respondents (79%) and 29 part-time respondents (21%).

Research Instrument

The method chosen for this research project was an online survey questionnaire. As part of the survey questionnaire, demographic questions were asked for each participant's gender, age, length of time working (measured in months), education level, employment status (full-time versus part-time), and employment level (manager or supervisor versus non-manager/non-supervisor). The demographic information was used to assist in giving more insight into the relationship between demographic variables upon their perception of the ethical climate in their workplace and their current job satisfaction. After completing the demographic questionnaire, the participants in the study completed the validated Ethical Climate Questionnaire previously developed by Cullen, Victor, and Bronson (1998) and the validated Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire that measures job satisfaction that was developed by Weiss, Dawis, and England, (1967).

The Ethical Climate Questionnaire developed by Cullen, Victor, and Bronson (1998) asks a series of 26 questions that are all related to one of five specific ethical categories which are identified by the perceptions experienced by organizational members as to what the right and wrong behaviors or behavioral standards within any organization should be. One category of "Caring" is identified within seven specific questions that are directly related to concern for the organization and its workers. The category of "Law and Code" is identified with four specific questions that are directly related to following professional standards. The category of "Rules" is identified with four specific questions that are directly related to company standards and procedures. The category of "Instrumental" is identified with seven specific questions that are

related to self or company interests. Lastly, the category of "Independence" is identified with four specific questions that are related to a worker's personal beliefs regarding ethics in the workplace. Each of the 26 items on the Ethical Climate Questionnaire by Cullen, Victor, and Bronson (1998) was rated by participants on a 6-point Likert scale (0= Completely False, 1= Mostly False, 2= Somewhat False, 3=Somewhat True, 4=Mostly True, and 5=Completely True). An overall score is computed based on participant responses on all 26 items on the Ethical Climate Questionnaire.

Finally, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was originally designed by Weiss, Dawis, and England (1967) to measure an employee's satisfaction with their current employment. Three forms of the measure included two long forms (the 1977 version and the 1967 version) and a short form. This study used the short-form version with 17 items. The 17 questions are all related to job satisfaction and are identified as either intrinsic job satisfaction or extrinsic job satisfaction. Intrinsic job satisfaction often stems from factors such as being respected, having challenging work, or being trusted, and are directly related to how a worker achieves job satisfaction. Extrinsic job satisfaction often stems from variables such as working conditions, pay, benefits, or supervisor behavior. Overall job satisfaction in general is a combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. The responses on each of the 17 items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (5=Very Satisfied means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job, 4=Satisfied means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job, 3=Neutral means I can't decide whether I am satisfied or not with this aspect of my job, 2=Dissatisfied means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job, 1=Very Dissatisfied means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job). The MSQ is also useful in generating information about the relevant job-related rewards which are meaningful to workers (Weiss Dawis, & England, 1967). The MSQ can be administered to groups or to individuals and is appropriate for use with individuals who can read at the fifth-grade level or higher. The computed Cronbach's alpha for the sample of 140 participants responses on all the items on the MSQ in this study was 0.912 which reflects the high internal reliability of the 17 questions on the MSQ survey used in the current research study.

Procedure

The participants for this study were recruited from SurveyMonkey Audience. The secure online SurveyMonkey platform technical ensured the privacy and integrity of information collected among the participants in the research study. The SurveyMonkey audience members are volunteer participants who are minimally compensated for participating in the research study. The participants were reminded that the entire online survey would take between 25-30 minutes to complete.

Data Analysis

Male versus Female Employees

Inferential statistics were utilized to calculate if there were statistical differences in the mean scores for both the perception of workplace ethical climates and self-reported job satisfaction results between cis males and cis female employees. Based on inferential statistical analyses,

there were no statistical differences in the perception of workplace ethical climates between the female employees (M=78.17, SD=19.64) and male employees (M=79.02, SD=13.81), $t(136)=2.129$, $p=.794$. Moreover, the self-reported job satisfaction was not statistically different between the female employees (M=64.16, SD=12.18) and male employees (M=63.67, SD=11.17), $t(136)=-0.262$, $p=0.822$.

Manager versus Non-manager Employees

Inferential statistics were also utilized to calculate if there were statistical differences in the mean scores for both the perception of workplace ethical climates and self-reported job satisfaction results between Managers versus Non-managers. As a result of statistical analysis, the perception of ethical climate was statistically higher among managers (M=82.75, SD =20.71) as compared to non-managers/subordinate employees (M=76.10, SD=15.67), $t(138)=2.129$, $p=.035$. The self-reported job satisfaction was also statistically higher among managers (M=67.21, SD =11.28) as compared to non-managers/subordinate employees (M=62.25, SD=12.01), $t(138)=-2.364$, $p=.019$.

Full versus Part-time Employees

Inferential statistics were again utilized to calculate if there were statistical differences in the mean scores for both the perception of workplace ethical climates and self-reported job satisfaction results between full-time and part-time employees. As a result of statistical analysis, there was no statistically significant difference between full-time (M=78.87, SD=16.90) and part-time workers (M=76.48, SD=21.00) on the perception of workplace ethical climates, $t(138)=-0.201$, $p=0.521$. Moreover, there was no statistically significant difference between full-time (M=64.05, SD=12.19) and part-time workers (M=63.55, SD=11.20) on self-reported job satisfaction, $t(138)=-0.501$, $p=0.841$.

Linear regression between the Perception of Workplace Ethical Climates and Self-Reported Job Satisfaction

The linear regression analysis showed that there was a statistically significant linear relationship between the independent variable of the perception of workplace ethical climates and the dependent variable of self-reported job satisfaction among all the participants in the survey, $F(1,139)=32.45$, $p<0.001$. Overall, the research project found an R-square value of 0.19 which means that 19% of the self-reported job satisfaction scores are predicted by the variance in the perception of workplace ethical climates scores of the participants. The slope of 0.24 indicates that there is a positive linear relationship where there is a corresponding increase in self-reported job satisfaction scores among participants alongside the increasing perception of workplace ethical climates scores of the participants.

Further analyses of the linear regression between the independent variable of the perception of workplace ethical climates scores and the dependent variable of self-reported job satisfaction scores among female employees only, $F(1,91)=19.94$, $p<0.001$, and among male employees only, $F(1,45)=12.69$, $p=0.001$, were both statistically significant. The overall R-square value of

0.18 or 18% predictive value of the self-reported job satisfaction scores predicted by the variance in the perception of workplace ethical climates scores among the female participants is not that different from the R-square value of 0.22 or 22% predictive value of the self-reported job satisfaction scores predicted by the variance in the perception of workplace ethical climates scores among the male participants.

Moreover, analyses of the linear regression between the independent variable of the perception of workplace ethical climates scores and the dependent variable of self-reported job satisfaction scores among full-time employees only, $F(1,110)=25.86$, $p<0.001$, and among part-time employees only, $F(1,28)=6.68$, $p=0.015$, were both statistically significant. The overall R-square value of 0.19 or 19% predictive value of the self-reported job satisfaction scores predicted by the variance in the perception of workplace ethical climates scores among the full-time participants is not that different from the R-square value of 0.20 or 20% predictive value of the self-reported job satisfaction scores predicted by the variance in the perception of workplace ethical climates scores among the part-time participants.

Finally, analyses of the linear regression between the independent variable of the perception of workplace ethical climates scores and the dependent variable of self-reported job satisfaction scores among managers or supervisors only, $F(1,47)=18.41$, $p<0.001$, and among non-managers or non-supervisors only, $F(1,91)=12.49$, $p=0.001$, were both statistically significant. The overall R-square value of 0.29 or 29% predictive value of the self-reported job satisfaction scores predicted by the variance in the perception of workplace ethical climates scores among the managers or supervisors is over double from the R-square value of 0.12 or 12% predictive value of the self-reported job satisfaction scores predicted by the variance in the perception of workplace ethical climates scores among the non-managers and non-supervisor participants.

Discussion

Overall, the current research study provides additional evidence for the statistically significant predictive effect regarding the perception of workplace ethical climates scores upon the self-reported job satisfaction scores across all participants regardless of gender, employment status (full-time and part-time employees) and employment level (managers/supervisors and non-managers/subordinate employees). The research finding that stands out in the current research study is the self-reported job satisfaction scores predicted by the variance in the perception of workplace ethical climates scores among the managers or supervisors (R-square value 0.29 or 29%) is over double from the predictive value of the self-reported job satisfaction scores predicted by the variance in the perception of workplace ethical climates scores among the non-managers/subordinate employees (R-square value of 0.12 or 12%). This indicates that workplace managers or supervisors perceive a significantly higher impact of their own self-reported job satisfaction scores predicted by the variance in their perception of workplace ethical climates scores as compared to their non-managers/subordinate employee counterparts. This may be explained by how much the managers or supervisors strongly value the importance of workplace ethical climates in workplace settings.

The results from this research study also found no significant statistical differences in the responses of cis male and cis female employees on their perception of workplace ethical climates and self-reported job satisfaction as indicated by prior research (Betz et al., 1989; Ruegger & King, 1992; Yucel & Ciftci 2012). The specific findings that this current research showing significant statistical differences in the responses of managers/supervisors versus non-managers/subordinate employees on their perception of workplace ethical climates and self-reported job satisfaction is also indicated by prior research (Anupama & Kumari, 2014). In contrast to prior research by Anupama and Kumari (2014) that highlighted how there were "gray areas" or perceptions in how managers/supervisors responded to many ethical workplace situations, the current research study highlighted that managers/supervisors have higher ratings regarding their workplace ethical climates as compared their non-manager/subordinate employee counterparts. Finally, another key finding from the study is that there were no statistically significant differences in the perception of workplace ethical climates and self-reported job satisfaction between full-time and part-time employees. Overall, all these research findings can be critical information and knowledge for any professional organization within any industry to understand how different perspectives and perceptions on ethical climates can ultimately impact the employees' self-reported job satisfaction. The knowledge gathered in the current research study could help organizations to better understand how to successfully meet the needs of all workers regarding workplace ethical considerations along with achieving high levels of employee job satisfaction, productivity, and retention of talent.

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