

**THE EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL DIVERSITY
MANAGEMENT APPROACH ON POTENTIAL APPLICANTS'
PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONS**

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Presented to
The Academic Faculty

by

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To Miho and our children.

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“And whatsoever ye do in word or deed, do all in the name of the Lord Jesus, giving thanks to God and the Father by him” (Colossians 3:17).

“Now thanks be unto God, which always causeth us to triumph in Christ, and maketh manifest the savour of his knowledge by us in every place” (2 Corinthians 2:14).

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AA	Affirmative Action
AAA	Affirmative Action Attitudes
ASA	Attraction-Selection-Attrition
<i>B</i>	Unstandardized Regression Weight
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CRT	Conditional Reasoning Test
CSE	Core Self-Evaluations
df	Degrees of Freedom
DM	Diversity Management
DV	Dependent Variable
EEO	Equal Employment Opportunity
<i>F</i>	<i>F</i> -Test Statistic (in regression or analysis of variance)
FFM	Five Factor Model (of Personality)
GPA	Grade Point Average
HLM	Hierarchical Linear Modeling
IAT	Implicit Association Test
MBA	Master in Business Administration
<i>N</i>	Sample Size
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares
<i>p</i>	<i>p</i> -Value; Significance Level
P-J Fit	Person-Job Fit

P-O Fit	Person-Organization Fit
PWE	Protestant Work Ethic
R	Correlation Coefficient
R^2	Squared Correlation Coefficient; Proportion of Variance Accounted for
r_{WG}	Within-Group Agreement Statistic (applied within-subject in this dissertation)
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SD	Standard Deviation
SE	Standard Error
t	t -Statistic (in HLM or from a t -test of mean differences)
US	United States
α	Cronbach's alpha; reliability coefficient
β	Standardized Regression Weights
ΔR^2	Change in R^2
σ^2	Variance
χ^2	Chi-Square Fit Statistic

SUMMARY

Scholars suggest that organizational diversity management (DM) programs are useful not only to satisfy legal requirements or social demands, but also to further the achievement of business objectives. However, much is still to be learned about the effects of such programs on individuals' perceptions of the organization. After reviewing the relevant literature on organization-level DM programs, I present a theoretical framework using recent literature that takes a strategic perspective on DM. This research classifies organization-sponsored DM programs into qualitatively different categories. Using the typology, I develop a model that proposes person-organization fit perceptions and attributions as mechanisms driving the relationship between DM programs and organizational attractiveness. I describe two experimental studies designed to test the proposed relationships between organizational diversity perspectives and applicants' perceptions of organizations. The first follows a two-phase between-subject design, while the second uses a within-subject policy-capturing methodology. Results, implications, and conclusions are discussed.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Diversity may be conceptualized in terms of any dimension or characteristic. In fact, Milliken and Martins (1996: 402) point out that diversity “simply means ‘variety’ or a ‘point or respect in which things differ’ (*American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, 1993; *Webster’s Dictionary of the English Language*, 1992).” Thus, as Harrison and Klein (2007) note, it makes little sense to refer to diversity without also specifying the dimension on which the diversity occurs. This dissertation primarily addresses demographic diversity—specifically diversity with respect to sex, racioethnicity,¹ and nationality—but it is important to realize that demographic differences are often cited as proxies for deeper and more significant differences in thought and perspective (Ely & Thomas, 2001).

Reviews of workforce diversity research have reported mixed findings for the effect of demographic diversity on organizational outcomes (Milliken & Martins, 1996; Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007; Williams & O’Reilly, 1998). Many diversity researchers have used an approach based on research in social categorization theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; J. C. Turner, 1985) and similarity-attraction theory (Byrne, 1971) to predict a negative effect of diversity on performance through increased conflict.

¹ While the term “race” refers to a categorization based on biological characteristics, “ethnicity” refers to more culture-based categorizations (Miller, 2002). Some researchers have combined the two dimensions, terming it “racioethnicity” (e.g., Cox, 1993; Elsass & Graves, 1997; Martins, Milliken, Wiesenfeld, & Salgado, 2003). I likewise adopt this term for the purposes of this paper, because it facilitates the integration of research investigating race (e.g., Black versus White) and ethnicity (e.g., African-American versus European-American).

Meanwhile, a number of scholars have taken the view that employee diversity increases the knowledge, perspectives, and ideas that are available as inputs into creative processes and decision-making, thereby enhancing performance (see K. Y. Williams & O'Reilly, 1998 for a discussion). However, many researchers have come to suggest that both processes play an important role in the diversity-to-performance relationship (e.g., Van der Vegt & Bunderson, 2005; Van Knippenberg, De Dreu, & Homan, 2004). These and other researchers suggest that contextual variables, including society-level factors (DiTomaso, Post, & Parks-Yancy, 2007; Van der Vegt, Van de Vliert, & Huang, 2005), time (Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998; Harrison, Price, Gavin, & Florey, 2002), and managerial or organizational approaches to diversity (Cox & Blake, 1991; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Joshi & Roh, 2009; Richard, 2000) are major moderators in the diversity-to-performance relationship.

Thus, although organizational scientists have a great deal of work ahead of them to fully understand these phenomena, there is likely a relationship between demographic diversity and performance that can be favorable or unfavorable, depending on a number of moderators. This is consistent with a recent study by the Diversity Research Network, which largely concluded that proper management of diversity is key to realizing the benefits of having a diverse workforce (Kochan et al., 2003). Such research has two major ramifications. The more explicit ramification is that a diverse workforce must be managed effectively. Otherwise, the probability of realizing diversity's positive effects will decline as the probability of experiencing negative effects will rise. The more implicit ramification is that workforce diversity can serve to contribute to a competitive advantage, as some researchers have suspected (e.g., Cox & Blake, 1991; Pfeffer, 1994).

This means that attracting and retaining a diverse workforce is of great importance in today's business environment.

DM programs in the United States are typically constructed to create an organizational environment that facilitates the positive effects of diversity and inhibits or dampens the negative effects. Such programs often incorporate activities such as mentoring, coaching, and sensitivity training to promote the careers of individuals in traditionally underrepresented demographic categories (i.e., women and minorities) and to increase awareness of diversity-related issues among men and the White majority (Rynes & Rosen, 1995). In reality, the motivation behind such programs may vary from organization to organization. While some organizations may implement DM programs to capitalize on diverse human resources as discussed to this point, others may do so simply to satisfy legal requirements or to fulfill a perceived moral obligation (Ely & Thomas, 2001; D. A. Thomas & Ely, 1996).

DM programs may also be used to create a favorable external image to attract a diverse pool of applicants (Smith, Wokutch, Harrington, & Dennis, 2004). A large and diverse pool of applicants allows the organization to build a workforce that is both demographically diverse and highly qualified. Drawing on signaling theory (Spence, 1973), research has indicated organizations signaling their diversity management efforts to potential applicants draw some individuals while simultaneously repelling others (Martins & Parsons, 2007; Smith et al., 2004; Walker, Feild, Giles, Bernerth, & Jones-Farmer, 2007). As will be discussed in detail in the next chapter, research has found these effects to be somewhat unsystematic, with mixed results even within race and sex groups (Bell, Harrison, & McLaughlin, 2000; Harrison, Kravitz, Mayer, Leslie, & Lev-Arey,

2006; Konrad & Hartmann, 2001; Kravitz et al., 1997; Truxillo & Bauer, 2000). However, as will also be discussed in the next chapter, recent research has begun to uncover more complex relationships involving individual attitudes and beliefs that may help management scholars and practitioners understand how organizations with DM programs are perceived (e.g., Martins & Parsons, 2007). One goal of the current paper is to further such research by exploring the mechanisms that drive these relationships.

More importantly, however, is that this dissertation proposes and tests a framework by which scholars and practitioners can more effectively conceptualize DM programs and understand how signals about these programs affect individuals' perceptions of the organization. Organizations' DM efforts have traditionally been differentiated along a quantitative continuum—from zero or minimal DM to extreme or proactive DM. However, as will be discussed in Chapter 2 and developed in Chapter 3, recent work suggests that DM efforts differ on multiple dimensions. Whereas the traditional approach to DM has made differentiations by asking “to what extent” or “how much,” this new dimensionalization will encourage scholars and managers to ask “what kind” and “for what reason.” Chapter 4 will apply this conceptualization and draw on research in person-organization (P-O) fit (e.g., T. A. Judge & Cable, 1997; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Schneider, 1987) and attributions in work situations (e.g., Crocker, Voelkl, Testa, & Major, 1991; Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Heilman, Lucas, & Kaplow, 1990; Major & Crocker, 1993; Major, Feinstein, & Crocker, 1994) to develop a model about how potential applicants perceive organizations' signals about DM.

Chapters 5 and 6 will describe the design and results of two studies that test the ideas and hypotheses developed in the preceding chapters. The first study (Chapter 5)

will test for general trends in how signaling different DM approaches affects potential applicants' perceptions of organizations. It will also explore individual-level moderators of the relationship between these signals and individuals' organizational perceptions. The second study (Chapter 6) will provide an additional test of some of the same concepts using a within-subject policy-capturing design that has not often been applied in this line of research. Finally, Chapter 7 will outline the implications of the results and make a number of recommendations for practice and future research. First, however, Chapter 2 will begin with a review of the DM literature that will serve as a background for my theory and hypothesis development.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, I discuss the research that will serve as a backdrop for later model development. I first provide the definition of diversity management (DM) and discuss its basic applications. Next, I briefly discuss affirmative action (AA) and equal employment opportunity (EEO) programs, prominent forms of DM. I then conduct a review of recent research on DM as it is applied in various human resource management practices.

Researchers have noted the prevalence of case studies and qualitative work in this area (e.g., Curtis & Dreachslin, 2008). I focus primarily on studies using quantitative methods, so as to highlight more generalizable findings, and draw on the case study research as appropriate. I present greater depth when discussing DM as it applies to the recruitment context, since this dissertation focuses on the effect of DM signals on organizational attractiveness. Finally, I discuss a number of frameworks that have been used to examine different rationales behind and approaches to managing diversity.

Diversity Management Defined

A widely cited definition of “diversity management” is put forth by Thomas (1990: 112), who states that DM involves “enabling every member of [the] work force to perform to his or her potential.” Alternatively, Ivancevich and Gilbert (2000: 77) define DM as “the commitment on the part of organizations to recruit, retain, reward, and promote a heterogeneous mix of productive, motivated, and committed workers including people of color, whites, females, and the physically challenged.” Richard and Kirby (Richard & Kirby, 1999: 110) define such programs more in terms of performance as “voluntary programs initiated by organizations in an effort to assure that people from

differing backgrounds are able to work together in such a way that they are productive individually and as a group.” These definitions differ in the level of specificity with which they mention management practices and diversity dimensions. They also differ with respect to whether they imply a relationship between diversity and organizational outcomes. As will be discussed in detail in this chapter, such differences in definitions are obviously important in determining how an organization “manages diversity.”

It is important to recognize that diversity among individuals in a workforce can lead to both positive and negative group processes, resulting in both positive and negative organizational outcomes. This is true of diversity on both observable and unobservable characteristics (Milliken & Martins, 1996; Van Knippenberg et al., 2004; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Therefore, it behooves organizational leaders to manage the diversity-process-outcomes relationship in such a way that minimizes the harmful processes and effects and maximizes the beneficial processes and effects. Indeed, researchers have proposed that an organization's management of diversity influences the nature of the diversity-to-performance relationship (Cox, 1993; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Konrad & Linnehan, 1995b; Richard & Johnson, 2001; Thomas & Ely, 1996; Thomas, 1990). Consistent with this logic, Cox (1993: 11) defines “managing diversity” as

planning and implementing organizational systems and practices to manage people so that the potential advantages of diversity [e.g., enhanced creativity, innovation, and decision-making] are maximized while its potential disadvantages [e.g., increased conflict and decreased cohesion] are minimized... [T]he goal of managing diversity [is to] maximiz[e] the ability of all employees to contribute to organizational goals and to achieve their full potential unhindered by group identities such as gender, race, nationality, age, and departmental affiliation.

Cox (1993) explains that leaders of organizations can have different motives for managing diversity. He categorizes these largely into three types: moral, ethical, and

social responsibility motives; legal obligations; and economic performance motives (Cox, 1993). Others have also pointed out the different motives, reasons, or justifications for exerting effort to manage diversity (e.g., Cox & Blake, 1991; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Richard & Kirby, 1997, 1998, 1999; Thomas & Ely, 1996), as will be discussed in depth throughout this paper.

Thus, scholars have defined and conceptualized “diversity management” in several ways. Further, organizations may in fact implement varying definitions, depending on managerial views of the value and function of diversity in the workplace, as will be discussed later. I integrate these various views to define “diversity management” based on the use of the term in the literature and organizational practice in the area, as the utilization of human resource management practices to:

- (1) manage the variation in human capital on some given dimension(s), and/or
- (2) ensure that variation in human capital on some given dimension(s) facilitates the achievement of organizational objectives, and/or
- (3) ensure that variation in human capital on some given dimension(s) does not hinder the achievement of organizational objectives.

I propose that organizations implementing DM programs operationalize their efforts in terms of one or more of these three aspects. DM programs may therefore be constructed to increase workforce diversity (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995a) and create an organizational environment that facilitates the positive effects of diversity while reducing the negative effects (Cox & Blake, 1991). Such programs can target virtually any human resource management practice, including recruitment, selection, mentoring/coaching, training, compensation/benefits, and work design to promote the attraction and retention

of individuals in traditionally underrepresented demographic categories (e.g., women and minorities) and to increase awareness of diversity-related issues among the demographic majority (Barry & Bateman, 1996; Crosby, Iyer, & Sincharoen, 2006; Johnson & O'Mara, 1992; Kravitz et al., 1997; Morrison, 1992; Richard & Johnson, 2001; Rynes & Rosen, 1995). Next, I discuss AA and EEO programs, forms of DM commonly implemented in organizations.

Affirmative Action and Equal Employment Opportunity Programs

A large proportion of the literature on DM has focused on affirmative action (AA) and equal employment opportunity (EEO) programs. These programs are important parts of organizational DM efforts, and are generally in place as a response to legal or regulatory concerns (Richard, Fubara, & Castillo, 2000), one of the motivators noted by Cox (1993). Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was a major step toward creating equal employment opportunities for women and minorities in the US (Ledvinka & Scarpello, 1991; Wolkinson, 2008). This law, as well as subsequent legislation and case law, has enabled individuals and groups to bring lawsuits against employers who are believed to have engaged in discriminatory practices. Discriminatory practices include those that may be unintentional but have led to an adverse, or disparate, impact on a protected group. If an employment practice has led to underrepresentation of a particular group, the employer must establish that its practices are of business necessity. If the court finds an employer to have participated in discriminatory practices, the employer may be monitored and required to implement human resource management practices that will remedy the situation. Similarly, Executive Order 11246, issued by President Johnson in 1965, requires all employers with federal contracts to demonstrate that they are taking

“affirmative action” to eliminate discriminatory practices (Ledvinka & Scarpello, 1991; Wolkinson, 2008).

Therefore, federal contractors and employers under court orders must exhibit human resource management practices that are aimed toward the elimination of discrimination and the inclusion of women and minorities. In a survey of human resource executives, Konrad and Linnehan (1995a) found that organizations under such legal pressures were more likely to implement proactive DM programs characterized by close monitoring and implementation of proactive hiring and promotion plans for women and minorities.

AA programs form the basis of many organizations’ DM efforts. Kravitz and colleagues (1997) point out that while EEO simply entails provision of the same treatment and therefore the same opportunities to every individual, AA is a more proactive measure that requires federal contractors to ensure EEO. As mentioned above, AA programs involve close monitoring of the demographic makeup of the workforce. They also involve goal-setting and the establishment of timetables to eliminate problems in representation due to discriminatory practices (Kravitz et al., 1997). An organization with an EEO policy, on the other hand, may simply involve elimination of a discriminatory practice once it is detected, without any significant expense to seek out such practices (Crosby et al., 2006).

Kravitz and colleagues (1997), Crosby, Iyer, and Sincharoen (2006), and Harrison and colleagues (2006) provide detailed reviews of the substantial body of work that has examined AA research from a psychological perspective. I include such research in this paper when it is directly relevant to the current discussion of organization-sponsored DM

programs, but those interested in a more in-depth look at this literature should refer to the reviews mentioned above.

Effects of Diversity Management Programs

In this section, I review the recent literature on DM and its effects on various organizational outcomes. Within the literature on DM efforts, the areas of recruitment, selection, training, and development have received the most amount of research attention. Given the focus of this dissertation, I provide greater depth on the research conducted in the recruitment context, but all of these areas will be discussed in turn.

Recruitment and Selection

Consistent with their intended purpose, AA programs have generally been associated with greater female and minority representation (Kalev, Dobbin, & Kelly, 2006; Konrad & Linnehan, 1995a; Leonard, 1990; Naff & Kellough, 2003), but many scholars have examined the effects of other types of DM programs as well. Researchers have also focused their attention on processes by which individuals react to the use of DM in recruitment and selection procedures, particularly with regard to how these programs affect potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness and fairness.

Recruitment and Organizational Attractiveness

The recruitment literature has often drawn on Spence's (1973) signaling theory to describe how potential applicants evaluate organizations based on various organizational characteristics (e.g., Allen, Mahto, & Otondo, 2007; Erhart & Ziegert, 2005; Rynes, 1991; Rynes, Bretz, & Gerhart, 1991; Turban & Greening, 1996). Signaling theory essentially

states that individuals or organizations attempt to relate information to others with the desire to receive some type of investment (Spence, 1973). Signals may or may not be indicative of reality, and their interpretation is dependent in part upon characteristics of the recipient (Spence, 1973). Nonetheless, potential applicants without complete information about an organization must rely on signals to reduce the uncertainty surrounding an organization's unknown characteristics (Rynes, 1991).

Scholars have proposed that descriptions of organizations' DM programs send signals that may work to attract or repel applicants (Smith et al., 2004; M. L. Williams & Bauer, 1994). While an important line of research exists on the effect of workforce diversity itself on potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness (e.g., Avery, 2003; Avery, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2004; Avery & McKay, 2006; Perkins, Thomas, & Taylor, 2000; K. M. Thomas & Wise, 1999; Umphress, Smith-Crowe, Brief, Dietz, & Watkins, 2007), the focus of this dissertation lies on the effect of DM signals on organizational attractiveness perceptions.

In a scenario-based study, Williams and Bauer (1994) examined the effects of two types of DM programs on undergraduates' perceptions of organizational attractiveness. Based on actual recruitment brochures, the researchers constructed two conditions: a control condition which simply stated that the organization was an AA/EEO employer after a description of the company, and an experimental condition that further described the company's commitment to diversity and its DM efforts. These manipulations can be found in Table 1.

The authors found that, as hypothesized, the DM condition was more attractive to applicants in general. A hypothesized interaction in which women and minorities would

Table 1: Diversity Management Manipulations Used in Prior Research

Study and Condition	Manipulation Text
Williams & Bauer (1994: 300)	
Control	CaryCorp is an affirmative action/equal opportunity employer.
Experimental	One of CaryCorp’s most abiding beliefs is respect for the individual—respect for the dignity and rights of each person. To that end, CaryCorp has moved aggressively to assure that women and minority group members, as well as handicapped individuals and Vietnam-era veterans, not only have equal access to employment but also get equal consideration for advancement. CaryCorp is a company that values the contributions of a diverse work force, and we have implemented programs that help teach all employees to recognize the strengths that individuals from diverse backgrounds can bring to CaryCorp. This enables us to achieve even greater levels of competitiveness today and in the future. CaryCorp is an affirmative action/equal opportunity employer.
Smith et al. (2004: 81)	
Affirmative Action Policy	[The university is] an Affirmative Action/Equal Opportunity institution... Women, disabled and/or racio-ethnic minority persons are encouraged to apply.
Managing-Diversity Policy	[The university operates with the] abiding belief in respect for the individual as well as respect for the dignity and rights of each person... HU is a university that values the contributions of a diverse student body and workforce, and we have implemented programs that help teach everyone to recognize the strengths that individuals from diverse backgrounds can bring to HU.
Richard & Kirby (1999: 113-114)	
High Procedural Justice (Marketing Justification for Diversity)	The human resource manager tells you that you were hired for the product development division because the company recently instituted a nationally recognized program, Diversity 2000. Diversity 2000 was designed to recruit qualified women and minorities into entry level positions within the firm in order to assure that the company remains competitive. Diversity is especially critical in the product development division because a large segment of the market consists of women and minorities and recent research has shown that successfully implemented diversity programs increase a firm’s competitive advantage in these markets. Therefore, you were the applicant chosen to fill this particular position.

Table 1 (Continued)

<p>High Procedural Justice (Creativity Justification for Diversity)</p>	<p>The human resource manager tells you that you were hired for the product development division because the company recently instituted a nationally recognized program, Diversity 2000. Diversity 2000 was designed to recruit qualified women and minorities into entry level positions within the firm in order to assure that the company remains competitive. Diversity is especially critical in the product development division because of the need for innovation. Diversity of perspectives and less emphasis on conformity to norms of the past improves the level of creativity and recent research has shown that successfully implemented diversity programs increase a firm's competitive advantage. Therefore, you were the applicant chosen to fill this particular position.</p>
<p>Low Procedural Justice (No Justification for Diversity)</p>	<p>The human resource manager tells you that you were hired for the product development division because the company recently instituted a nationally recognized program, Diversity 2000. Diversity 2000 was designed to recruit qualified women and minorities.</p>
<hr/> <p>Martins & Parsons (2007: 867); Olsen et al. (2008)</p>	
<p>Low Level of Diversity Management</p>	<p>The company's mission statement says that it is dedicated to recruiting and retaining a highly qualified, diverse workforce and to maintaining a working environment that values diversity and benefits from it while encouraging all employees to become highly competent in their jobs.</p>
<p>High Level of Diversity Management</p>	<p>This company has extensive diversity programs for women such as mentoring programs, career counseling, company-sponsored support groups, financial support for women to travel to conferences, executive shadowing (attending to a 'day in the life' of an executive), female employee caucus groups, personal leadership coaches for women, special network functions for women to meet upper management, evaluation systems that hold upper-level managers accountable for developing female candidates for promotion, and incentives for increasing the number of suppliers that are owned by women.</p> <hr/>

favor the DM condition to a greater degree than Whites and men was not supported, but unhypothesized main effects for race and sex were present. Women and minorities favored both conditions more than their male and White counterparts. These main effects are certainly interesting, but they accounted for 1% and 2% the total variance in organizational attractiveness, respectively. One may therefore question whether these effects, though statistically significant, account for enough variance to be of significance to practitioners.

In contrast, Rau and Hyland (2003) found that White men generally tended to find an organization more attractive when it had low emphasis on cultural diversity. Among racial minorities and women, an organization's emphasis on cultural diversity was generally positively related to organizational attractiveness, though minority women reacted similarly to White men. The authors explained that minority women, who are beneficiaries of DM programs on two dimensions (i.e., race and gender), may be more likely to attach the potential of stigma to these programs (Rau & Hyland, 2003), an effect that I discuss in more detail below.

Smith et al. (2004) attempted to build upon Williams and Bauer's (1994) study by using a within-subject design. Further, the authors suggested that the historical context of Williams and Bauer's (1994) study was characterized by a "honeymoon" stage in which public opinion was highly supportive of the relatively new (at that time) concept of DM, especially when compared to the more established AA policies. They proposed that reactions to DM may be less positive, given the realization that DM can consist of such a wide range of organizational efforts. Further, the authors suggested that people may have feelings of resentment toward DM programs, since many of these programs require a

significant amount of individual effort and attitudinal change when compared to an often superficial AA policy. Results of their study showed that as hypothesized, the condition with the AA policy was generally more attractive to their sample of 343 undergraduate and graduate students than that with a DM policy. The experimental manipulations are reproduced in Table 1.

Smith et al.'s (2004) study had a notable limitation, however, stemming from the design of its manipulations. Citing Winer (1999), the authors stated that since students have had little or no real-world job experience, student samples pose a threat to external validity. They attempted to address the purported weakness in their sample choice by changing the context of the experimental manipulations from that of a job application situation to that of a college application situation. The researchers explained that the latter would be more familiar to the undergraduate and graduate students in their sample and would therefore address Winer's (1999) criticism. Ironically, in an attempt to increase the study's external validity, Smith et al. (2004) have actually further threatened it. Smith et al. (2004) showed that AA policies were preferable among potential applicants to *college degree programs*, rather than to *job positions*. Scholars have noted the possibility that AA programs may be more attractive in an educational context than in a work context, though research on this is inconclusive (Kravitz et al., 1997).

In response to the mixed findings in studies of reactions to DM programs like those described above, some scholars have called for more research on within-sex and within-race differences (Bell et al., 2000; Harrison et al., 2006; Konrad & Hartmann, 2001; Kravitz et al., 1997; Truxillo & Bauer, 2000). A few scholars have responded by exploring the effects of non-demographic individual differences on people's perceptions

of DM programs and organizations with such programs. For example, with a sample of almost 200 Master in Business Administration (MBA) students, Chen and Hooijberg (2000) demonstrated that an individual's intolerance for ambiguity generally decreases his/her support for DM efforts, regardless of sex or race.

A study by Martins and Parsons (2007) showed reactions to DM efforts to be affected by interactions between demographic characteristics and other individual differences. Specifically, the authors showed attitudes toward AA, gender identity centrality, and beliefs about discrimination in the workplace to interact with sex and the level of gender DM programs to impact organizational attractiveness. They used two manipulations of gender DM programs, presented in Table 1, and two levels of female representation among top executives to simulate diversity efforts. Their findings suggest that women find organizations with proactive diversity efforts less attractive when the women are less supportive of AA programs, have low gender identity centrality, and believe to a lesser extent that discrimination exists in the workplace (Martins & Parsons, 2007). This study will be discussed in further detail later in this dissertation.

In addition to these individual-level moderators of the relationship between DM programs and organizational perceptions, however, I propose that an organization's approach to DM may have varying qualities that evoke different reactions. Table 1 displays experimental manipulations used in several of the studies discussed thus far. Examination of these manipulations reveals that studies by Williams and Bauer (1994), Smith et al. (2004), and Martins and Parsons (2007) compare reactions to a control or low DM condition with reactions to a proactive or high DM condition. The manipulations vary in the level of specificity with which the organization presents its DM programs and

are therefore likely to vary in the degree to which they signal an overall value for obtaining and maintaining workforce diversity. However, these manipulations do not present variation in the rationale or philosophy that drives these programs.

The review of the literature revealed one study, however, that explored effects of different characteristics of the DM programs on organizational attractiveness. Williamson, Slay, Shapiro, and Shivers-Blackwell (2008) presented participants with recruitment brochures for a fictitious organization. The results showed that racial minorities tended to find identity-conscious organizations (i.e., those recognizing employees' demographic differences via such practices as targeted recruitment of women and racial minorities and diversity training [Konrad & Linnehan, 1995b]) more attractive than a control condition. This effect was reversed for Whites. Further, Whites tended to rate organizational attractiveness highly for a business-related justification for diversity if they had experienced high levels of discrimination in the past, but they rated organizations more highly for a moral justification if they had experienced little discrimination. Blacks, on the other hand, tended to be more attracted to organizations with moral, rather than business, justification if they had prior discrimination experience, while Blacks with little discrimination experience rated both justifications equally attractive. Uniquely, for Asians, prior discrimination experience seemed to negatively correlate with organizational attractiveness perceptions in general, though this negative relationship was strongest when faced with a moral justification (Williamson et al., 2008).

Later in this chapter, I further explain different approaches to DM that exist among organizations. An organization's DM approach refers to the justification and strategy underlying the organization's efforts to manage diversity. I characterize a DM

approach as a cultural construct. Thus, it may be initially defined by organizational founders or leaders, but it is then shaped by the shared experiences of organizational members and subsequent leaders, often in response to new problems or situations (Schein, 1984). I discuss research that suggests that variation in DM approaches is an important determinant of individual-level outcomes. This work forms an important foundation for the contribution of the current paper, as I will later build the argument that DM approaches may vary on multiple theoretically derived dimensions, each of which may significantly impact individuals' perceptions of the organization.

Selection and Stigma

A number of scholars have explored the effects of DM efforts in selection systems on individuals' attitudes and perceptions of fairness. Of special note is the extensive research that has been performed on the "stigma effect." Non-beneficiaries of AA and EEO efforts (i.e., Whites and men) tend to view such programs as unnecessary and/or harmful (Kravitz et al., 1997), and scholars have even found individuals to perceive a stigma with being beneficiaries (i.e., racial minorities and women) of AA or DM programs (e.g., Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Konrad & Linnehan, 1995b; Major et al., 1994; M. E. Turner, Pratkanis, & Hardaway, 1991).

Heilman and her colleagues have conducted numerous studies to understand individuals' reactions to situations of preferential selection. For example, women, but not men, evaluate themselves negatively when they are preferentially selected for a task because of their sex and are not provided with information about their qualifications. If provided with information that emphasizes their qualifications, however, they have a positive self-view, regardless of whether or not they are placed in a preferential selection

condition (Heilman et al., 1990). The self-evaluations resulting from these selection decisions can even result in women's choice of a more demanding versus a less demanding task (Heilman, Rivero, & Brett, 1991). Further, women generally evaluate themselves more negatively when they know others are aware of the fact that they are a beneficiary of preferential selection. In those cases in which preferentially selected women are confident about their ability to perform a job, they generally feel the need to prove themselves to anyone who is aware of the conditions of their selection (Heilman & Alcott, 2001). This suggests that even if preferential selection does not affect a person's self-view, it may still evoke the fear of being stigmatized.

Not only have Heilman and her colleagues explored individuals' reactions to being placed into a preferential selection, but they have also explored the reactions of observers of such situations. For instance, in one study, 129 undergraduates were asked to evaluate a number of job applications. Applicants who were women or racioethnic minorities were evaluated more negatively if they were marked as being associated with an AA program (Heilman, Block, & Lucas, 1992). Another study reported similar results in terms of general impressions and performance expectations (Heilman & Welle, 2006). Yet another reported that undergraduate men tended to have negative perceptions of women when they were selected for a task over equally qualified men (Heilman, McCullough, & Gilbert, 1996). These studies suggest that there is some legitimacy to an individual's fear of being stigmatized by becoming a beneficiary of such programs. A study by Heilman, Battle, Keller, and Lee (1998) provides some actionable advice to practitioners with regard to these effects. Results of this study suggest that when implementing AA programs, perceptions of the stigma effect among both beneficiaries

and nonbeneficiaries of the programs can be substantially reduced (though not entirely eliminated) by emphasizing the importance of merit. In another article to be discussed later in this chapter, Konrad and Linnehan (1995b) reported findings and implications that were consistent with those of Heilman et al. (1998) using managers, rather than undergraduates.

Turner et al. (1991) pointed out that the women participants in Heilman and colleagues' studies assumed their own lack of competence when they were selected on the basis of their sex. The men in these studies who were preferentially selected, however, did not seem to make this assumption. Based on Eagley's (1987) discussion of sex roles, Turner et al. (1991) sought to further delve into this phenomenon. These authors hypothesized that because leadership is seen by many as a more masculine role, women who are preferentially selected for leadership positions would make the assumption mentioned above and display lower self-evaluations. Men in such a condition would not display such negative self-evaluations, because they assume that they are naturally qualified for leadership. Using this logic, the authors also hypothesized that women would not display this negative effect on self-evaluations if they were selected on the basis of sex for a feminine role, but that men would exhibit more negative self-evaluations in this case. With a lab study of 192 undergraduate men and women, the authors tested this theory by creating two roles—the more masculine decision-maker and the more feminine counselor (which actually involved two different descriptions of the same tasks). Counter to their hypotheses, women tended to exhibit negative self-evaluations when they were beneficiaries of preferential selection for either role, while no such effect existed for men (M. E. Turner et al., 1991).

Citing work in learned helplessness and threats to self-esteem (e.g., Dweck, Davidson, Nelson, & Enna, 1978; Nadler & Fisher, 1986), the authors explained that this may be due to historical and societal factors. Over time, women have developed an attribution style in which they attribute failure or a need for help (e.g., preferential selection) to their lack of ability. Men, on the other hand, tend to attribute failure or this need for help to a lack of effort. Thus, self-evaluations of ability or competence would be negative for women in a preferential selection situation but not for men (M. E. Turner et al., 1991). Major and colleagues (1994) made a similar argument, delving even more into the processes underlying attributions of racioethnic minorities and women. This will be discussed further in Chapter 4.

Many women and racial minorities therefore understandably fear being stigmatized in an organization that they think is trying to achieve quotas or some ideal demographic makeup. Building on this research on stigma, scholars have explored the effects of different types of rationales or justifications for DM programs on individuals' perceptions of selection decisions. Richard and Kirby (1997, 1998, 1999) conducted a series of studies examining the effects of business-related rationales on individuals' attitudes toward selection decisions under various DM conditions. Their results suggested that, in general, individuals react more positively to hiring decisions when justification for the DM effort is provided than when no justification is provided.

Additionally, in two laboratory experiments, Gilbert and Stead (1999) found that women and racial minorities were viewed less favorably when hired under DM programs with a legal/regulatory focus than when hired under DM programs rationalized with a business case (Gilbert & Stead, 1999). Richard and colleagues (2000) conducted a

laboratory study presenting participants with a scenario in which they had been selected for a position on the basis of their race or gender. While the researchers did not find a significant effect on fairness perceptions surrounding DM programs for the presence or absence of a social responsibility or business rationale, they did find that beneficiaries generally have expectations of coworkers' negative perceptions of them when no rationale is provided (Richard et al., 2000). Similarly, a scenario-based study of White managers and professionals by Kidder, Lankau, Chrobot-Mason, Mollica, and Friedman (2004) showed that Whites exhibited more negative attitudes toward legal rationales for DM than toward business rationales.

Summary

DM programs do seem to affect individuals' perceptions of organizations in a recruitment or selection context. However, these effects seem to be more complex than previously asserted; perceptions of organizational attractiveness and fairness are most likely a function of demographic characteristics, within-group individual differences (Chen & Hooijberg, 2000; Martins & Parsons, 2007; Williamson et al., 2008), and characteristics of the DM programs (Gilbert & Stead, 1999; Kidder et al., 2004; Richard et al., 2000; Richard & Kirby, 1997, 1998, 1999; Williamson et al., 2008). Noteworthy is the absence of studies in the US that consider diversity on the dimension of nationality. I address this issue by including nationality as a variable of interest in the model and studies described later in this dissertation.

Training and Development

Another frequently examined area in DM focuses on the effectiveness of diversity-related training and development programs. Scholars have examined both

attitudinal and behavioral outcomes of diversity training, and research on diversity-related employee development has primarily focused on the effectiveness of mentoring programs for female employees.

Diversity Training

In a survey of human resource professionals, Rynes and Rosen (1995) found that training programs were more successful with mandatory attendance for managers, long-term training evaluation programs, supportive top management, managerial rewards for diversity-related goals, and a broad definition of diversity (i.e., in terms of skills and ideas, rather than simply demographic characteristics). Using a sample of both working professionals and MBA students, Bush and Ingram (2001) found that trainees viewed cultural diversity training as more necessary when they were less confident in their ability to predict others' behaviors in multicultural settings. Moreover, this relationship was stronger when trainees viewed diversity as important to the organization. After a simulation of a multicultural interaction, the authors found that trainees were generally less confident in their cross-cultural skills. The authors proposed that such simulations may be useful in helping individuals to understand the importance of diversity and the need to develop cross-cultural skills for multicultural situations. They therefore suggested that these simulations could be used as pre-training exercises to encourage employees to take diversity training seriously (Bush & Ingram, 2001).

Hanover and Cellar's (1998) quasi-experiment in a Fortune 500 firm found that diversity training can increase the awareness of the importance of effective DM practices among managers. While there was no significant difference in opinions between a control group and a group of trainees before diversity training, the trainees reported significantly

greater importance for DM after the training (Hanover & Cellar, 1998). On the other hand, Sanchez and Medkik (2004) also conducted a quasi-experiment in which government workers who attended a one-day diversity awareness training session generally had positive reactions to the program. However, the training was not significantly related to cultural awareness of the trainees. Also unexpectedly, coworker ratings of the trainees' differential treatment of racial minorities approximately one year after the training session were lower than coworker ratings of non-trainees' differential treatment, meaning that trainees seemed to exhibit more discriminatory attitudes and behaviors and/or struggled more in their interactions with racial minorities. The authors explained that trainees may have seen their selection for this program as punishment or remediation, thereby causing them to assume they were nominated to attend by a minority coworker and leading them to treat such coworkers negatively (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004). Similarly, a study of bank branches by Ely (2004) did not reveal significant main effects for participation in diversity training on performance or moderation effects on the diversity-to-performance relationship, with one exception. On one dimension of performance (customer referrals), the researcher found that participation in diversity training unexpectedly led to lower performance in gender-diverse work settings (Ely, 2004).

Kulik, Perry, and Bourhis (2000) conducted an experiment in which business undergraduate students were shown a diversity training video and asked to rate three job applicants according to their video resumes. Results showed that participants who watched a video instructing them to suppress age effects and who were placed under additional cognitive demands rated the oldest applicant significantly lower than

participants in other conditions. Thus, the diversity training video had effects opposite of those intended when participants were put under additional demands and when the video was specific (i.e., mention of age), rather than broad (i.e., mention of various demographic characteristics). This suggests that a broad definition of diversity in training is favorable to a narrow definition when participants are expected to be cognitively “busy” while applying knowledge obtained from training (Kulik et al., 2000).

Roberson, Kulik, and Pepper (2001) found that more experienced trainees benefited more (in terms of knowledge and skill gained) from being in racially homogeneous groups in diversity training. This is supposedly due to the fact that these individuals’ prior training experience has likely equipped them with awareness of demographic and individual differences, and that they now benefit from processes by which they can hone their skills with other members of similar race (Roberson et al., 2001). In another study, these authors (Roberson, Kulik, & Pepper, 2009) found that attitude- and knowledge-based learning did not significantly relate to changes in the way diversity trainees did their work, but that skill-based learning was significantly related. Further, racial minorities tended to transfer their training more than did Whites. However, counter to the hypothesized relationship, the proportion of racial minority coworkers/supervisors did not lead to more transfer of training (Roberson et al., 2009).

Holladay, Knight, Paige, and Quiñones (2003) found that the most favorable reactions to diversity training occurred when the training program was titled in a straightforward manner (i.e., “Diversity Training,” rather than “Building Human Relations”) and focused on broader issues (i.e., racial, gender, lifestyle and personality differences), rather than just racial differences. Further, men generally had more negative

reactions to diversity training than women, but men's reactions were most negative when the programs were narrowly focused on racial issues and were in place for remedial purposes (i.e., because this organization was behind others in the industry and needed to catch up, rather than utilizing diversity training because this organization was more progressive in the industry than others). However, when the programs were narrowly focused, women reacted more positively when they were in place for remedial purposes. The authors proposed broadening the focus of the programs in order to eliminate these differential reactions between men and women (Holladay et al., 2003).

Mentoring Programs

Finally, studies by Burke and McKeen (1997) and Neumark and Gardecki (1998) suggested that many mentoring programs designed for women have very little effect on their performance outcomes. Burke and McKeen (1997) found that while mentored women reported significantly more positive career prospects and a greater number of working hours, effects on turnover intentions and job satisfaction were only marginally supported in paired comparisons. In addition, these effects disappeared when all independent variables were considered in the analysis (Burke & McKeen, 1997). Neumark and Gardecki (1998) conducted a study of female economics graduate students that showed no support for the hypothesized beneficial effect of mentoring by female faculty. Neither the hiring of female faculty in the department nor the presence of female dissertation chairs had any significant effect on the job placement of the female graduate students (Neumark & Gardecki, 1998).

Summary

As with research on DM in the recruitment and selection contexts, the diversity

training and development research suggests interactive effects on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Specifically, race and gender seem to interact with characteristics of training programs (Kulik et al., 2000; Roberson et al., 2009; Rynes & Rosen, 1995). Additionally, research suggests that many individuals become more accepting of diversity training when they are first made aware of its importance via simulations or personal experience (Bush & Ingram, 2001; Hanover & Cellar, 1998; Roberson et al., 2001). Further, while a great deal of this research has focused on evaluative and/or self-reported outcomes, the little research that exists on behavioral outcomes is not encouraging, revealing detrimental (Ely, 2004; Kulik et al., 2000; Sanchez & Medkik, 2004), and potentially long-term (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004), effects on behavior. The effectiveness of mentoring programs for women has been called into question (Burke & McKeen, 1997; Neumark & Gardecki, 1998), though more research is needed in this area before a definitive statement can be made.

Other Efforts to Manage Organizational Outcomes

Focusing on the challenges of maintaining a high-performing and diverse workforce, several studies have addressed the impact of DM efforts on such individual-level outcomes as performance, absenteeism, and turnover, as well as attitudes and intentions related to these outcomes. Research has also examined outcomes at the group and organization levels.

Individual-Level Outcomes

Gilbert and Ivancevich (2001) conducted a field survey in two Fortune 100 companies. One of the organizations had a demographically diverse top management team and proactive DM programs. The second organization had a highly homogeneous

(White male) top management team, few DM programs, and a focus on AA compliance. The researchers found that in the first organization, racial minorities exhibited lower self-reported absenteeism; all racial and gender groups exhibited higher work group attachment; and men, women, and racial majority members exhibited higher organizational commitment.

Building on Gilbert and Ivancevich's (2001) results, Avery, McKay, Wilson, and Tonidandel (2007) conducted a study of full-time employees in various industries. They found that while Black employees tended to report higher absenteeism than White employees, this difference was greater when the organization was perceived to place little value on diversity. The difference was even more pronounced when this low value on diversity existed despite the presence of a same-race supervisor. The authors explained that because racial minorities expect a high value on diversity when their supervisors are also minorities, any discrepancy will likely cause extreme reactions (Avery et al., 2007). Additionally, in a large field study, McKay and colleagues (2007) found that perceptions that an organization was conducive to diversity negatively related to turnover intentions among employees in general. This relationship was mediated by organizational commitment and was strongest for Black employees, followed by White and Hispanic employees.

Linnehan, Konrad, Reitman, Greenhalg, and London's (2003) study of White and Asian-American students showed that the degree to which Asian-Americans identified with their race positively affected their attitudes toward integration-promoting behaviors, while this relationship did not exist among Whites. The authors suggested that an integrative, rather than assimilative, approach to diversity (to be discussed later) is

especially important to members of traditionally underrepresented groups who strongly identify with their group membership, because such an approach allows them to retain their cultural identities (Linnehan et al., 2003). Consistent with this idea, Linnehan, Chrobot-Mason, and Konrad (2006) found that minority employees held more positive attitudes toward and norms regarding diversity-promoting behaviors similar to those examined by Linnehan et al. (2003) when they had a strong ethnic identity and a minority supervisor (Linnehan et al., 2006).

DM efforts can also play an important role as a contextual factor by which organizational events are interpreted by individuals. Mollica (2003) found that the context created by an organization's DM programs can differentially affect the reactions of White men and racial minorities to layoff situations. White men reported lower fairness perceptions for layoffs disproportionately impacting Whites when proactive DM programs were prevalent than when the organization was relatively inactive in its DM programs. In these same scenarios, the effect of DM was reversed for minorities. However, minorities' perceptions of fairness surrounding a disproportionate layoff of minorities did not differ significantly according to the DM context; fairness perceptions were relatively low in both contexts (Mollica, 2003).

DM efforts have also been linked to individual performance. Noting prior research on the gap between the mean job performance of racial minority and White employees (e.g., McKay & McDaniel, 2006; Roth, Huffcutt, & Bobko, 2003), McKay, Avery, and Morris (2008) conducted a large field study to determine circumstances in which this gap may be minimized. The authors found that stores with work environments perceived as conducive to diversity attenuated the advantage of White employees over

their Black and Hispanic counterparts. In some cases, environments highly conducive to diversity allowed Black employees to outperform White employees (McKay et al., 2008).

Group and Organization Outcomes

Some research has also explored the effect of general DM efforts on group and organizational performance. Wright, Ferris, Hiller, and Kroll's (1995) study suggested a benefit to stock price valuation for organizations recognized for their effective DM programs over those experiencing problems with discriminatory practices. Additionally, Richard (2000) showed that while there was no significant main effect of workforce diversity on organizational performance, racial diversity interacted with the organization's business strategy to affect performance. Specifically, the study suggested that organizations with a growth strategy realize performance benefits from racial diversity while organizations with a downsizing strategy seem to experience detrimental effects on performance from racial diversity. The author explained that racial diversity contributes the enhanced creativity and flexibility required in a growth strategy, but that coordination costs associated with a more diverse workforce are detrimental to organizations seeking to downsize (Richard, 2000).

A multi-study research project (Kochan et al., 2003) added support to the idea that DM efforts moderate the relationship between workforce diversity and group-level performance. Consistent with Richard's (2000) results, but at the group level, these researchers found little support for a main effect of diversity on performance. Further, results suggested that DM efforts may promote such beneficial group processes as creativity while reducing such detrimental processes as conflict, thereby enhancing performance outcomes (Kochan et al., 2003).

Relating also to the previous discussions of recruitment, selection, training, and development, one organization-level study reviewed, by Kalev and colleagues (2006), examined the effects of various types of DM programs on proportions of women and racial minorities in managerial positions. The study showed that DM programs that have an explicit AA plan increased these proportions somewhat, though the assignment of responsibility for diversity initiatives to a diversity committee, task force, manager, or department tended to have substantial positive effects on proportions of female and Black managers. Diversity training and development programs had less impressive and often mixed effects on different groups, corroborating the ambiguity mentioned in the previous section on such programs. Finally, the inclusion of feedback on diversity-related objectives in managers' performance evaluations was somewhat effective in increasing the proportion of White women in management, but approximately equally effective in *decreasing* the proportion of Black men. Further analyses suggested that training, development, and evaluation programs tended to have more positive effects when combined with responsibility-related structures such as the use of AA plans and diversity managers. Such results emphasize the importance of structures that establish and maintain accountability for the accomplishment of explicit diversity goals (Kalev et al., 2006).

Summary

Consistent with findings reported in prior sections of this paper, a review of the effects of DM on work-related attitudes and behaviors reveals complex relationships potentially involving multiple moderators. Employees' reactions to DM efforts seem to vary not only according to whether they are beneficiaries of these programs, but also

according to within-group individual differences and specific characteristics of the DM programs in question (Avery et al., 2007; Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2001; Kalev et al., 2006; Linnehan et al., 2006; Linnehan et al., 2003; McKay et al., 2008; McKay et al., 2007; Mollica, 2003). Importantly, studies performed at the group and organization levels suggest that DM efforts *can* be beneficial to organizational performance (Kochan et al., 2003; Richard, 2000; Wright et al., 1995).

Dominant Diversity Management Typologies

Whereas much of the literature on DM has focused on specific practices, some scholars have posited that organizations take different overarching approaches to diversity and DM programs, eliciting different effects (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Konrad & Linnehan, 1995a, 1995b; Richard & Johnson, 2001; Thomas & Ely, 1996). Consistent with the research findings discussed above (Kochan et al., 2003; Richard, 2000; Wright et al., 1995), these scholars propose that the diversity-to-performance relationship is contingent on the context resulting from an organization's overall DM approach. From my review of the literature, I have identified three dominant DM typologies—those based on the organization's underlying justification for DM (Cox & Blake, 1991), the organization's use of identity-blind versus identity-conscious practices (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995a, 1995b), and the organization's diversity perspective (Ely & Thomas, 2001; D. A. Thomas & Ely, 1996). I discuss each of these in turn.

Justification for Diversity Management Programs

One of the most comprehensive discussions of reasons for investing in DM programs has been put forth by Cox and Blake (1991) in their conceptual article about using diversity as a competitive advantage. They argue that other than social

responsibility, there are six advantages to properly managing a diverse workforce. First, they note that effective DM practices might reduce costs among women and racioethnic minorities, such as those associated with turnover and absenteeism. Second, in a labor market that is characterized by increasing proportions of women and minorities, organizations would be at a disadvantage to exclude potentially high female and non-White performers. Third, diverse organizations are better equipped in their marketing efforts, because they not only can understand and target consumers in a diverse range of markets, but they are also more likely to have access to diverse consumers via diverse marketing and sales representatives. Fourth, variation among employees can lead to variation in ideas, which in turn can lead to more creative and innovative organizational outcomes. Fifth, and similar to the previous point, variation in thought processes will increase the number of alternatives available for problem-solving, leading to enhanced decision-making capabilities for the organization. Finally, and related to the previous two points, a diverse workforce can provide more flexibility to the organization via the openness to change that is inherent in its establishment of broad practices to accommodate various employees (Cox & Blake, 1991).

As discussed in the previous chapter, empirical research testing some of these arguments (e.g., Richard et al., 2000; Richard & Kirby, 1997, 1998, 1999) suggests that the presence of a rationale behind DM efforts generally leads to more positive reactions among both beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries. Further, these rationales may promote more accurate attributions about DM practices, reducing the stigma effect (Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Konrad & Linnehan, 1995b; Major et al., 1994; M. E. Turner et al., 1991) that was discussed above.

Identity-Blind and Identity-Conscious Practices

Konrad and Linnehan (1995a, 1995b) proposed a typology of formalized practices that are meant to eliminate discrimination in a diverse workforce. The goal of “identity-blind” practices is to eliminate discrimination by being blind to group membership and considering only individual merit in employment decisions. Under such an approach, more holistic human resource practices would be put into place and applied equally across all individuals in the workforce. “Identity-conscious” practices, on the other hand, take group membership into consideration, though individual merit is also of great importance in employment decisions. Group membership is a factor in these practices for the purpose of reversing current discriminatory practices, remedying injustices of the past, and/or achieving fair representation in the upper levels of the organization. An organization implementing identity-conscious practices is likely to involve close monitoring of the proportions of various groups within the organization. The organization will then make comparisons among these groups in terms of representation, attitudes, and work outcomes, and special hiring and promotion programs will be established for members of protected groups if needed. Further, an identity-conscious organization is expected to be able to benefit from the different perspectives available in a diverse workforce, because it recognizes employee differences and allows the expression of identity-based perspectives (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995a, 1995b).

In their study of 138 human resource executives, Konrad and Linnehan (1995a) found organizations were more likely to incorporate identity-conscious structures when they were government contractors, had a history of equal employment-related lawsuits, and/or were the subject of equal employment-related compliance reviews, though they

found no significant association with identity-blind structures. The authors also found that being a government contractor and/or being subject to compliance reviews was positively related to the percentage of women employed and in managerial positions. Equal employment lawsuit experience was not significantly related to the proportions of women in the workforce, but it was significantly negatively related to percentage of minority employees. Identity-conscious structures positively related to the number of female and minority managers, but identity-blind structures did not. Finally, the human resource executives' perceptions of managers' attitudes toward AA/EEO programs were positively related to the number of minorities employed. In sum, the authors conclude that identity-conscious structures are more effective facilitators of workplace diversity than are identity-blind structures and that government intervention is a fairly effective way to encourage identity-conscious practices (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995a).

In a separate study, Konrad and Linnehan (1995b) obtained survey responses from 242 employees of four organizations in different industries. They hypothesized that due to the perceived conflict of self-interest, Whites and men would favor identity-conscious practices less than racial minorities and women. However, the authors also predicted that because of the stigma associated with such practices, women and racial minorities would prefer identity-blind practices to identity-conscious ones, albeit not as strongly as Whites and men. Using 26 common human resource practices identified in the study reported previously (1995a), the authors asked the employees about the degree to which they favored or opposed the practices. Each practice had been previously categorized by expert raters as either identity-blind or identity-conscious. Thus, the researchers were able to determine the degree to which respondents agreed with each

approach. As expected, race and sex were not significantly associated with attitudes toward identity-blind practices, but women and racial minorities found identity-conscious practices more favorable than White men. Further, racial minorities favored these practices more than White women. However, also as predicted, all groups, regardless of race or sex, tended to prefer identity-blind practices over identity-conscious ones. Although the authors had also predicted that different demographic groups would exhibit different levels of organizational commitment and perceptions of career opportunities based on the percentage of identity-conscious practices existing in the organization, no support was found for this hypothesis. Because identity-conscious practices seem to increase workforce diversity (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995a), the authors suggest that there is a need to reduce the stigma associated with these practices and to emphasize the continuing importance of merit (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995b).

Drawing on Konrad and Linnehan's (1995a, 1995b) work, Richard and Johnson (2001) contrasted identity-blind structures with their own conceptualization of a "diversity orientation." A diversity orientation involves the coordination of employee training/development, work design, staffing, and compensation to promote diversity. The authors argue that all of these activities must simultaneously focus on the promotion of diversity in order to overcome certain "social traps," or situations in which a particular practice might provide short-term benefits at significant long-term costs, or in which a practice might benefit one group of individuals at the expense of other groups (Barry & Bateman, 1996). Preferential treatment in hiring and promotion based on minority status would be an example of such a practice, since it benefits minority racial groups at the cost of majority members. Use of such a practice could therefore be detrimental to long-

term organizational performance. However, proactive recruitment of minorities might be coupled with other programs like diversity training to ensure that the entire workforce is well-informed about diversity-related issues and the potential benefits of diversity. The authors propose that such a multi-pronged approach would maximize the advantages of having a diverse workforce, because traditional minorities would feel valued, diverse views and perspectives could be utilized, and traditional majority members would come to understand the benefits of diversity (Richard & Johnson, 2001).

Diversity Perspectives

Informed by both their research and their experience with practitioners, Thomas and Ely (1996) presented a framework for how groups and organizations approach diversity. They labeled these approaches “diversity perspectives” and later elaborated upon their original conceptualization with a rigorous qualitative study (Ely & Thomas, 2001). According to these scholars, a diversity perspective consists of “group members’ normative beliefs and expectations about cultural diversity and its role in their work group” (Ely & Thomas, 2001: 234). In other words, a group or organization’s diversity perspective provides its members with a set of beliefs and norms to guide them in how they strive toward, preserve, and react to diversity in the workplace. Through their research and consulting work, Ely and Thomas (2001; D. A. Thomas & Ely, 1996) have identified three types of diversity perspectives: discrimination-and-fairness, access-and-legitimacy, and integration-and-learning (originally known as learning-and-effectiveness in Thomas and Ely’s [1996] first conceptualization).

An organization with a discrimination-and-fairness perspective emphasizes the belief that all individuals should be treated fairly and without prejudice. A diverse

workforce is a signal that the organization is compliant with society's moral standards, laws, and regulations. The organization seeks to eliminate discrimination and provide equal employment opportunities to its job applicants and employees. An organization with a discrimination-and-fairness perspective will therefore use recruitment and retention goals to monitor and signal its progress toward this objective (Ely & Thomas, 2001).

Inherent in holding a discrimination-and-fairness perspective is the recognition of a moral or ethical responsibility to treat all individuals equally. However, where this perspective differs from the other two is its lack of an explicit link between diversity and work processes or performance. In other words, this perspective does not necessarily articulate a business value in diversity. Rather, workforce diversity is an end, rather than a means, resulting from the achievement of justice and equality. Some may even see a diverse workforce as a symbol that the organization has managed to overcome the past wrongs of society (Ely & Thomas, 2001). It should be noted that career development and training opportunities may be extended to members of traditionally underrepresented groups, and diversity training efforts may also be present in discrimination-and-fairness organizations. However, the primary objective of such programs is to recruit and retain a diverse workforce, rather than to capitalize on employee differences or facilitate the exchange of different ideas (D. A. Thomas & Ely, 1996). Moreover, Ely and Thomas (2001) suggest that reference to group-based differences are often discouraged under a discrimination-and-fairness perspective, since organizations with this perspective tend to expect all members, including women and minorities, to assimilate to the dominant (usually White male) culture.

While the discrimination-and-fairness perspective sees a diverse workforce as a desirable end-state, the access-and-legitimacy perspective goes a step further. Although such organizations are likely to recognize the importance of diversity from a legal or moral standpoint, they also recognize that a diverse employee base can provide a competitive advantage. In today's business environment, the organization must be able to effectively deal with a diverse set of customers and suppliers. By hiring employees of various demographic and cultural backgrounds, the organization obtains access to these important groups and individuals. Further, a workforce that "mirrors" the organization's environment helps it to establish legitimacy among various stakeholders. In order to maximize access to diverse customers and suppliers, the organization must monitor, recruit, and retain diverse employees, especially when filling positions that have frequent contact with customers and suppliers. For example, the organization might "match" an employee with a set of customers based on a particular demographic characteristic, like ethnicity. Further, the organization may maximize its legitimacy by filling especially visible positions with employees that mirror its constituents and communities (Ely & Thomas, 2001).

An organization holding the access-and-legitimacy perspective recognizes and attempts to access various views and ideas by hiring and retaining the individuals who hold them. However, the organization does not make an explicit attempt to understand these views or to incorporate them into the organization's knowledge base. Further, the organization is likely to make an active attempt to ensure adequate representation for more peripheral and visible positions in the organization, but there is no guarantee that functional or managerial positions will be so actively monitored and filled. As a result,

employees in many access-and-legitimacy organizations may be expected to adhere to a static organizational culture that has been set by a relatively homogeneous group of leaders (Ely & Thomas, 2001).

Ely and Thomas (2001) maintain that most organizations seem to take the discrimination-and-fairness and access-and-legitimacy perspectives, but they argue that the integration-and-learning perspective is most likely to lead to positive outcomes, as will be discussed later. Like the access-and-legitimacy perspective, the integration-and-learning perspective recognizes the potential contribution of a diverse workforce to achieving business objectives. However, an organization with such a perspective does not see diversity only as a means to accessing customers and establishing legitimacy. Rather, an integration-and-learning organization holds the view that:

the insights, skills, and experiences employees have developed as members of various cultural identity groups are potentially valuable resources that the work group can use to rethink its primary tasks and redefine its markets, products, strategies, and business practices in ways that will advance its mission (Ely & Thomas, 2001: 240).

Thus, the integration-and-learning organization sees demographic and cultural diversity as a means by which it can access underlying ideas to inform all aspects of the business. Organizational members are encouraged to draw upon and share ideas rooted in their cultural backgrounds. Such an organization must have an environment that fosters this exchange and learning. The structure of the organization must also be conducive to communication across levels and flexible enough to implement the resulting ideas. Because recognition of cultural and demographic differences is a necessary step in sharing views rooted in these differences, the assimilative nature of the discrimination-and-fairness perspective would actually be detrimental to work processes in an

integration-and-learning organization. The integration-and-learning perspective allows the organization to be flexible and adaptive in a dynamic business environment. Leaders of integration-and-learning organizations wishing to gauge their success in workforce diversification cannot do so simply by monitoring proportions or constituent representation. Instead, integration-and-learning organizations must assess the degree to which traditionally underrepresented individuals have the power to make changes and the degree to which groups traditionally in power are willing to allow change to occur (Ely & Thomas, 2001).

To summarize, several typologies have been introduced in the DM literature to capture the various DM programs that organizations employ. An organization may justify its DM efforts based on a number of justifications (Cox & Blake, 1991), take an identity-blind or identity-conscious approach to human resource management (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995a, 1995b), and/or exhibit a dominant “diversity perspective” (Ely & Thomas, 2001). In the following chapter, I propose that these conceptualizations, as well as the prior literature reviewed above, may be integrated into a theory-driven dimensionalization of DM. This new conceptualization offers a new perspective on existing DM research, integrates the various typologies discussed in this chapter, and provides a better understanding of the mechanisms through which various DM practices may affect potential applicants’ perceptions of organizational attractiveness.

CHAPTER 3

A NEW FRAMEWORK FOR DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

As scholars have noted, organizational diversity management (DM) approaches can vary in several ways (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Konrad & Linnehan, 1995a, 1995b; Richard & Johnson, 2001; Thomas & Ely, 1996). In this chapter, I present a theory-based typology of DM using cross-cultural psychological research on acculturation strategies (Berry, 1984a; Cox & Finley-Nickelson, 1991) and social psychological research on instrumental and terminal values (Rokeach, 1973). Figure 1 illustrates the new dimensionalization and the DM approaches that organizations may hold. I discuss each dimension in turn before integrating them into a typology of DM approaches.

Acculturation Strategies

According to Berry and his colleagues (Berry, 1984a; Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987), acculturation refers to the process through which cultural changes occur as a result of continuous contact between cultural groups. At the individual level, the term can refer to the changes in one's attitudes and behaviors due to contact with another cultural group (Berry et al., 1987). Berry (1984a) proposes four modes of acculturation: assimilation, separation, marginalization, and integration. In assimilation, cultural change is one-sided; non-dominant cultural groups conform to the norms and values of the dominant group. In separation, cultural groups tend to minimize interaction, compartmentalizing themselves into their own subcultures. Marginalization involves an unwillingness and/or inability to adhere to any particular culture. People in this mode of acculturation are often

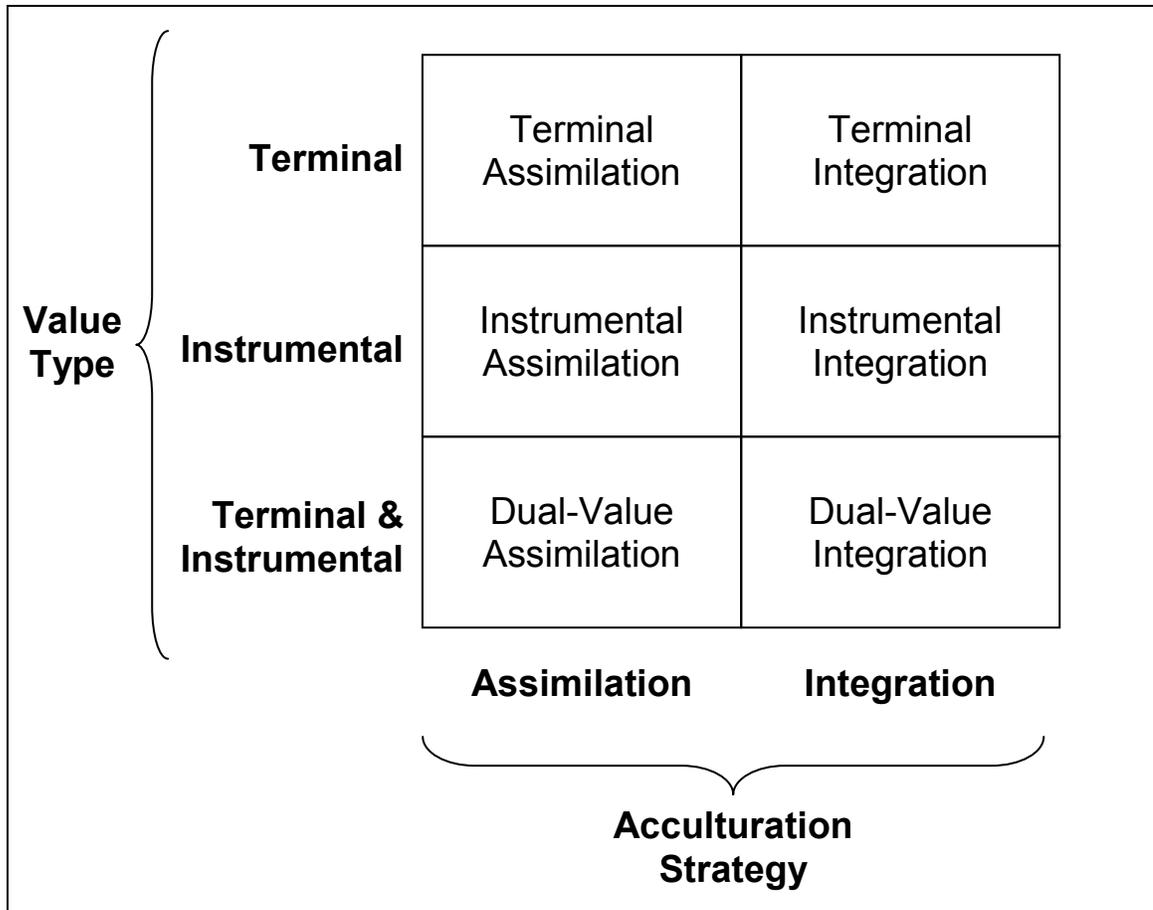


Figure 1: A Typology of Approaches to Diversity Management

geographically separated from their own cultural group and unwilling to conform to the dominant culture. Finally, integration involves cultural change on the part of all parties. Cultural groups may conform on certain dimensions but they are also likely to retain substantial pieces of their own cultures (Berry, 1984a).

Cox and Finley-Nickelson (1991) proposed that in managing diversity, the organization will follow an acculturation strategy based on one of the four acculturation modes to integrate the various groups of individuals comprising its workforce. These scholars point out that an organization seeking to establish a strong culture (i.e., one in

which core values and norms are clear and well-established among organizational members) will utilize strategies based on either assimilation or integration.

Marginalization and separation may be characteristic of some organizations with weak cultures (i.e., those in which core values or norms are unclear and/or not entrenched among organizational members) or organizations with low levels of interdependence among various employees (Cox & Finley-Nickelson, 1991). However, such organizations are not likely to be the norm, and certain forms of these strategies are even illegal (e.g., segregation). Thus, organizations seeking to establish a strong culture for diversity will likely follow either an assimilation or an integration strategy in doing so.

An organization utilizing an assimilation strategy for DM may recognize and express respect for demographic differences at certain points of employment, but policies, practices, and procedures generally standardize behaviors, encouraging conformity to the dominant culture. In contrast, organizations adopting an integration strategy for DM recognize the importance of individuals' cultural identities and are able and willing to change even the core aspects of the organization's culture to accommodate a variety of cultural identities (Berry, 1984a; Cox & Finley-Nickelson, 1991; Ely & Thomas, 2001).

Konrad and Linnehan's (1995a, 1995b) typology of identity-blind and identity-conscious practices can be conceptualized in terms of acculturation strategies. Many assimilative organizations consider demographic characteristics in staffing and promotion practices (via AA programs, for example), utilizing identity-conscious practices.

However, as Richard and Johnson (2001) have also noted, expectations of behavioral and attitudinal conformity under an assimilation strategy are more consistent with identity-blind practices; employees are expected to assimilate to a single organizational culture.

Any reference to cultural or demographic differences is usually discouraged in favor of a work environment that strives to avoid conflict (Ely & Thomas, 2001). Meanwhile, purely identity-conscious organizations seek to draw on employee differences to further their business objectives (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995a, 1995b), compatible with an integration acculturation strategy. In sum, organizations utilizing an assimilation strategy for DM selectively implement both identity-blind and identity-conscious practices, while organizations utilizing an integration strategy implement primarily, if not entirely, identity-conscious practices.

Instrumental and Terminal Values

DM approaches may be further categorized based on the type of value an organization places on diversity. A value is defined as “an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence” (Rokeach, 1973: 5). Rokeach (1973) argues that two broad types of values exist: instrumental and terminal. Instrumental values are those that guide behavior in such a manner as to attain some desirable end-state. In other words, instrumental values prescribe certain behaviors because they are believed to be an effective means to an end. Terminal values refer to the desirable end-states themselves, which individuals strive to achieve (Rokeach, 1973). This theory implies that organizations expressing a “value for diversity” may do so in very different ways—diversity as an instrumental value, diversity as a terminal value, or both.

Consistent with Cox and Blake’s (1991) discussion of rationales for DM and Ely and Thomas’s (2001) conceptualization of diversity perspectives, employee diversity may

be leveraged toward the achievement of business-related outcomes, via not only the facilitation of relationships with diverse customers and suppliers, but also the enhancement of creativity, decision-making, and problem-solving processes. Organizations that recognize such effects implicitly or explicitly embrace diversity as an instrumental value, since diversity is viewed as instrumental in achieving business success. In contrast, many organizations focus primarily on the establishment and/or preservation of a work environment characterized by fairness and equality (Cox & Blake, 1991; Ely & Thomas, 2001). These organizations often view a diverse workforce itself as a sign of success in the achievement of such a workplace, implicitly or explicitly holding diversity as a terminal value. Organizations following this view frequently implement DM practices with the aim of being responsive to legal/regulatory requirements and/or fulfilling a social responsibility (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995a; Richard et al., 2000; D. A. Thomas & Ely, 1996). Thus, diversity here is equivalent to Rokeach's (1973: 28) terminal value of "[e]quality (brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)."

Further, organizations may hold diversity as *both* a terminal *and* an instrumental value. Prior typologies have not addressed this idea, but preliminary qualitative research for this dissertation revealed that a significant number of organizations make statements to the effect that "diversity is good for business" and "diversity is the right thing to do." I refer to such organizations as having a "dual value" for diversity, because they express diversity as both a terminal and an instrumental value.

Crossing Acculturation Strategies with Value Types: A New Typology

The two dimensions of DM discussed above can be crossed to form a new typology of DM approaches. Because I have defined the acculturation strategy dimension

at two levels (assimilation versus integration) and the value type dimension at three (terminal versus instrumental versus dual), I now discuss six approaches to DM produced by the crossing of the dimensions. I refer to these dimensions as terminal assimilation, instrumental assimilation, instrumental integration, terminal integration, dual-value assimilation, and dual-value integration, as illustrated in Figure 1.

Terminal Assimilation

An organization with a terminal assimilation approach to DM is likely to emphasize equal opportunities for women and minorities, possibly utilizing identity-conscious practices for recruitment, selection, and promotion. However, it is likely to encourage identity-blind practices during day-to-day activities and for other decisions. All employees will be subjected to the same performance expectations, working conditions, benefits programs, etc. In other words, while the organization with a terminal assimilation approach to DM may implement AA plans in recruitment, selection, and promotion systems, it will discourage any further mention of or allusion to demographic differences in order to prevent the possibility or suspicion of discrimination. Thus, a terminal assimilation organization will emphasize deep-level similarities despite surface-level differences. This approach is consistent with Ely and Thomas's (2001) discrimination-and-fairness diversity perspective, which focuses on avoiding discrimination and emphasizing equal treatment to comply with legal and regulatory requirements and/or social pressures. For example, Heinz states on its website:

Heinz believes that its employees should be employed and advanced on the basis of their ability to do the job. It is therefore the continuing policy of Heinz to afford equal employment opportunities to all qualified employees and applicants. In accordance with this policy, all personnel decisions, including, but not limited to, those relating to recruitment, hiring, training, promotion, compensation, and benefits, will continue to be made based solely upon an employee's or applicant's

qualifications, skills, and abilities and without regard to any condition or characteristic that is not job-related. In addition, every Heinz location is required to have a policy prohibiting illegal discrimination, including harassment, and an accompanying set of policies establishing a procedure for reporting and investigating complaints, prohibiting retaliation, and providing for appropriate disciplinary action for violations (Heinz, 2009).

This excerpt is characterized by a legalistic tone (e.g., references to “equal employment opportunities” and “policies”), signaling a terminal value for diversity. In addition, the multiple references to global or company-wide (e.g., “every Heinz location”) adherence to policies and disregard of “characteristic[s] that [are] not job-related” signal an assimilation acculturation strategy.

Instrumental Assimilation

Organizations with an instrumental assimilation approach to DM recognize diversity as an instrumental value, but they still expect employees to conform to policies, practices, and procedures rooted in the dominant culture’s norms and values.

Organizations demonstrating the access-and-legitimacy perspective discussed by Ely and Thomas (2001) tend to follow a strategy closer to assimilation than to integration, because although they recognize demographic differences, they use these differences primarily to achieve the business goals of market access and the establishment of legitimacy. Beyond this, members are generally expected to conform to the dominant culture, because, as mentioned previously, these organizations do not draw substantially on cultural differences to inform core business objectives and processes. For example, the following statement from P&G’s website signals an instrumental assimilation approach:

Everyone at P&G is united by the commonality of the Company's values and goals. We see diversity as the uniqueness each of us brings to fulfilling these values and achieving these goals. Our diversity covers a broad range of personal attributes and characteristics such as race, sex, age, cultural heritage, personal background and sexual orientation. By building on our common values and goals,

we are able to create an advantage from our differences (P&G, 2009).

This paragraph emphasizes employees' "common values and goals" (assimilation), while recognizing diversity as a means toward "creat[ing] an advantage from [employees'] differences" (instrumental value).

Instrumental Integration

An instrumental integration approach may utilize women and minority employees for access to markets, but it will also draw on the ideas and backgrounds of various employees to enhance the organization's capabilities for creativity, decision-making, problem-solving, and flexibility. Thus, the instrumental integration organization will emphasize the importance of expressing deep-level differences. For example, Eric Schmidt, Chairman and CEO of Google, states the following on the company's diversity website:

Our products and tools serve an audience that is globally and culturally diverse -- so it's a strategic advantage that our teams not only encompass the world's best talent but also reflect the rich diversity of our customers, users, and publishers. It is imperative that we hire people with disparate perspectives and ideas, and from a broad range of cultures and backgrounds. This philosophy won't just ensure our access to the most gifted employees; it will also lead to better products and create more engaged and interesting teams (Google, 2010).

The emphasis on deep-level differences (i.e., "disparate perspectives and ideas" and "a broad range of cultures and backgrounds") signals an integration acculturation strategy. Further, the statement expresses the belief that diversity will "lead to better products," among other benefits, signaling an instrumental value for diversity. The instrumental integration approach corresponds to Ely and Thomas's (2001) integration-and-learning diversity perspective, because it encourages individuals to draw on their differences in informing the business at all levels of the organization, allowing them also to maintain

and express their various backgrounds and group memberships (Ely & Thomas, 2001).

Terminal Integration

A terminal integration approach to diversity entails the view that diversity is a desirable end-state, but that requiring non-dominant groups to assimilate to the dominant culture is not a socially responsible strategy for achieving diversity. An organization taking this approach instead emphasizes integration as an ethical principle, requiring equal consideration of all cultural groups. The focus of this approach is therefore on the moral obligation to treat *cultures*, in addition to individuals, equally. I was unable to find any mention of such an approach or perspective in my review of the literature, but an examination of organizational diversity statements suggests that it does exist in practice. It can perhaps more commonly be observed among international non-profit and religious organizations. For example, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) notes on its employment web page,

For UNESCO, the preservation and the promotion of cultural diversity goes hand-in-hand with respect for the fundamental rights of each individual and the sharing of knowledge (UNESCO, 2009).

This statement explicitly couples multiculturalism (integration) with the moral imperative to respect human rights (terminal value). Another international organization, Religions for Peace, states in a job posting,

Religions for Peace strives toward diversity within its staff team, reflecting its global nature. Currently the Arab, Central Asia and Eastern Europe regions are under-represented. Candidates with the background and ability to contribute in meaningful ways to Religions for Peace's continuing commitment to religious and cultural diversity, pluralism, and individual differences are encouraged to make application (World Conference of Religions for Peace, 2009).

This organization strives not only for workforce diversity, but more specifically for the appropriate representation of particular cultural groups. While this may be in line with an

AA approach (which is often found among organizations with a terminal assimilation approach), the organization makes explicit mention of its commitment to “pluralism” (integration). Such organizations therefore express a terminal integration approach to diversity.

Dual-Value Assimilation

Organizations with a dual-value assimilation approach to DM uphold the fair treatment of individuals for the sake of satisfying moral, social, or legal responsibilities. In this regard, the dual-value assimilation organization resembles the terminal assimilation approach. Both approaches emphasize the terminal value in an assimilative way—stressing equal opportunities and identical treatment for all individuals, while strongly discouraging actions that may be seen as discriminatory. Unlike terminal assimilation organizations, however, these organizations also value the business case for diversity. Like the instrumental assimilation organization, management structures and human resource practices in these organizations are set up to take advantage of diversity for marketing, customer service, and public relations purposes.

Though this is a new DM approach from a theoretical standpoint, expression of the dual-value assimilation approach has existed (though previously without such a label) in practice. For example, Bethany Christian Services, a non-profit organization dedicated to providing adoption services and care for orphans, states the following on its website:

Bethany believes that ethnic and cultural diversity is taught and commanded by God and that as Christians, we have a responsibility to reach out to each other across racial, cultural, and ethnic boundaries, to further his Kingdom.

In addition, we believe that cultural diversity and cultural competence within our staff and boards are strengths that protects children, empower individuals to grow, and helps Bethany achieve excellence (Bethany Christian Services, 2009).

This statement unequivocally emphasizes a specific set of values and beliefs (i.e., Christianity) to which its members seem to conform (note the words, “as Christians, we...,” indicating assimilation). This set of beliefs entails “a responsibility to reach out to each other across racial, cultural, and ethnic boundaries” (terminal value). However, the organization also recognizes that “cultural diversity... [is a] strength” toward the organization’s goals, and that it “helps Bethany to achieve excellence” (instrumental value). Thus, this organization expresses a dual-value assimilation approach to DM. Ely and Thomas’s (2001) framework would group this DM approach into the access-and-legitimacy perspective, along with the previously discussed instrumental assimilation approach. However, my framework makes the distinction between these two approaches by recognizing the co-existence of diversity as a terminal value in the dual-value assimilation approach.

Dual-Value Integration

Dual-value integration organizations resemble their instrumental integration counterparts in practice. However, they also communicate the moral, legal, or social responsibility aspect of their value for diversity. For example, CVS Caremark states on its website:

Because diversity makes good business sense and good common sense. Our industry today is rapidly changing and increasingly complex. In this environment, having a broad range of ideas and viewpoints through a diverse workforce increases our chances of success with the customer. Diversity is consistent with our values of respect and openness, and we believe it is the right thing to do (CVS Caremark, 2009).

The reference to “ideas and viewpoints,” as well as the value of “openness” indicates an integration acculturation strategy that focuses on the importance of deeper-level differences, rather than deep-level similarities despite surface-level differences. Further,

this organization states that diversity is important because it both “increases [its’ chances of success with the customer” (instrumental value) and “is the right thing to do” (terminal value). Thus, this organization expresses a dual-value integration DM approach. Under Ely and Thomas’s (2001) prior typology, this approach would likely be classified as an integration-and-learning perspective, as was the case with the instrumental integration approach. However, under the current typology, the distinction between these two approaches is clear; the dual-value integration approach maintains diversity as a terminal value where the instrumental integration approach does not.

In the next chapter, I integrate work in person-organization (P-O) fit (e.g., T. A. Judge & Cable, 1997; O’Reilly et al., 1991; Schneider, 1987) and attributions in work situations (e.g., Crocker et al., 1991; Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Heilman et al., 1990; Major & Crocker, 1993; Major et al., 1994) to investigate the underlying mechanisms driving potential applicants’ perceptions of organizations signaling their DM approaches.

CHAPTER 4

THE RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

In this chapter, I describe a research model and derive several hypotheses to explain how an organization's signaled DM approach affects potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness. I draw on work on person-organization (P-O) fit (e.g., O'Reilly et al., 1991; Schneider, 1987) and attributions in work situations (e.g., Crocker et al., 1991; Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Heilman et al., 1990; Major & Crocker, 1993; Major et al., 1994) to link the previously described DM dimensions to an important perceptions of organizational attractiveness. The research model is presented in Figure 2.

Person-Organization Fit

Early work on person-organization (P-O) fit suggested that individuals tend to select organizations that expressed values that were congruent with their own personalities (Tom, 1971). Schneider's (1987) attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework built upon such notions and is often cited in this literature as an underlying mechanism that determines the degree of fit, attraction to an organization, and certain outcomes—particularly turnover. The theory essentially posits that individuals will be attracted to organizations with which they share similarities. Likewise, organizations will tend to select similar individuals. Dissimilar individuals who manage to enter the organization are likely to leave. These processes lead to a certain degree of consistency or homogeneity among organizational members, and characteristics of these similar members define the organization. Further, ASA recognizes that a high degree of homogeneity is actually often undesirable. For example, this would be the case in a

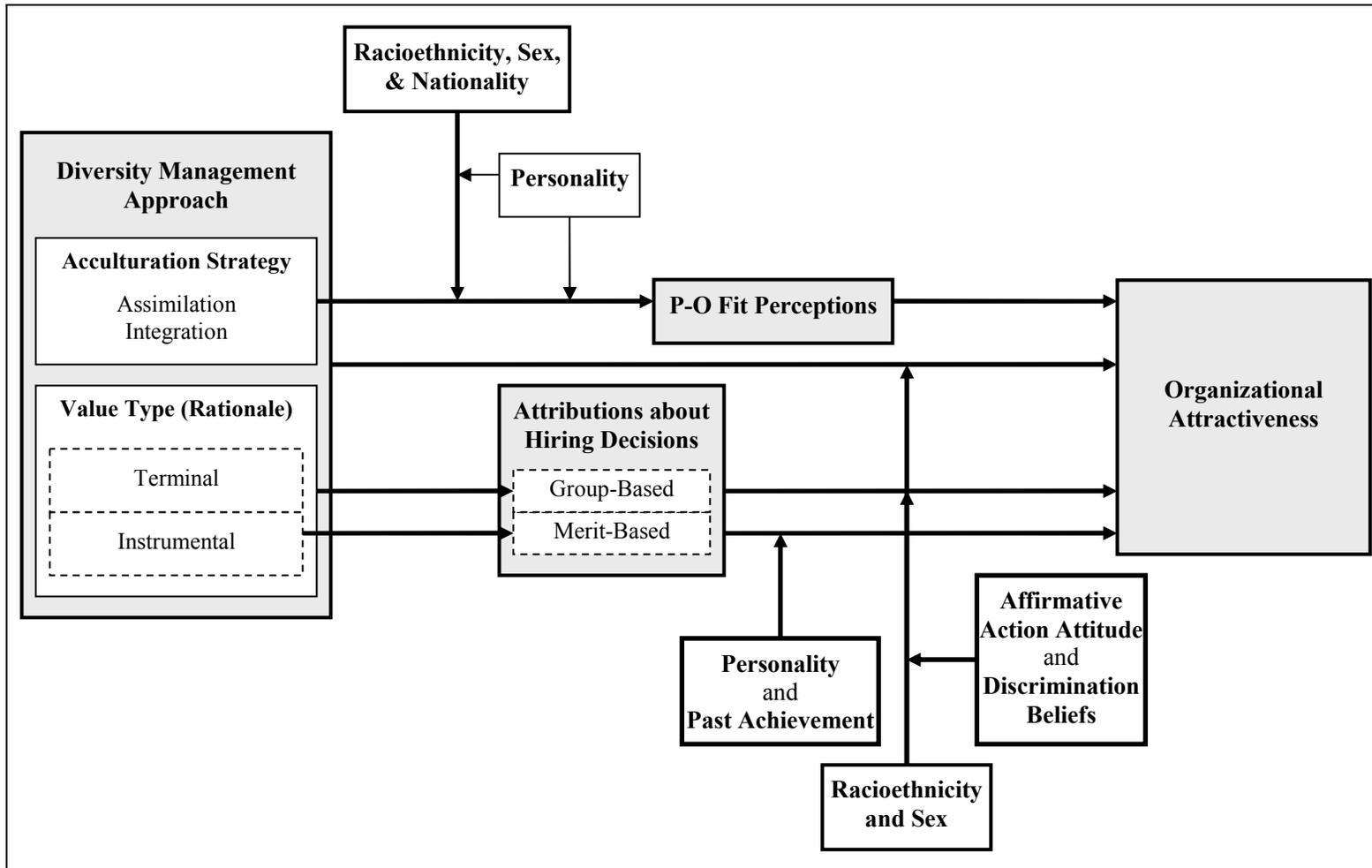


Figure 2: The Research Model

All relationships will be tested in study 1. Bold arrows indicate relationships that will be tested in both studies 1 and 2.

dynamic environment that requires constant adaptation (Schneider, 1987). Interestingly, ASA theory serves as an argument for the proactive recruitment of minorities in such cases. The theory predicts that organizations naturally become more and more homogeneous, requiring special effort to obtain and maintain a diverse workforce (Milliken & Martins, 1996).

Drawing largely on Schneider's (1987) ASA framework, the majority of P-O fit research has focused on value congruence (e.g., O'Reilly et al., 1991), which has become the standard conceptualization of P-O fit (Kristof, 1996). Borrowing Chatman's (1989: 339) definition, P-O fit is "the congruence between the norms and values of organizations and the values of persons." Meta-analyses examining the numerous studies on P-O fit suggest its positive effects on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance, as well as decreases in turnover (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2002), making P-O fit a construct of substantial interest to scholars and practitioners.

P-O fit is typically operationalized via use of the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP), an instrument that is designed to measure and compare the values of an organization and the values of an individual (O'Reilly et al., 1991). However, some researchers (Cable & Judge, 1996; Cable & Parsons, 2001; Cable & DeRue, 2002) have also measured perceived P-O fit, which tends to show stronger correlations with organizational attitudes. Scholars have noted that these stronger correlations may be due largely to common method bias, but that perceptions are indeed more proximal to many outcomes than are objective comparisons of value profiles (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). However, such comparisons do not take

into account the weights individuals place on different characteristics (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Muchinsky and Monahan (1987) pointed out that fit could be conceptualized in two ways—as complementary fit and supplementary fit. In a supplementary fit model, individuals achieve fit when they are similar to their environment. An example of this approach is the methodology described previously in which value profiles for the organization and the individual are compared. In such models, similar profiles would indicate good fit. In complementary fit models, fit is achieved when the person satisfies the needs of the environment (e.g., an employee has abilities and skills that the organization requires) and vice versa (e.g., the organization helps satisfy an employee’s physiological needs via a salary) (Kristof, 1996; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). While research in person-job (P-J) fit has predominantly followed a complementary fit model, P-O fit researchers have generally followed a supplementary fit approach (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Some researchers have found the effects of organizational values on applicant attraction to be mediated by value congruence and perceptions of P-O fit (Dineen, Ash, & Noe, 2002; Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997; Tom, 1971). Scholars cite Schneider’s (1987) ASA framework and Byrne’s (1971) similarity-attraction theory to propose that individuals are attracted to people, groups, and organizations that are similar to themselves. Thus, work in P-O fit is quite important to organizational attractiveness and recruitment research. It is posited to form an underlying mechanism for how potential applicants perceive different DM approaches, specifically with regard to organizations’ acculturation strategies.

The Effect of Acculturation Strategy Signals on Perceptions of P-O Fit and Organizational Attractiveness

Cox (1993) notes the importance of considering P-O fit in determining the organizational outcomes of having a diverse workforce. He suggests that Whites and men have historically been the holders of power in organizations and have therefore shaped the cultures of their organizations. As a result, the majority members in these organizations are likely to experience high value congruence, while traditionally underrepresented members are likely to experience low value congruence. Understanding the relationship between P-O fit and organization-relevant outcomes, some could interpret this as an argument *against* diversity, since including traditionally underrepresented individuals would equate to including individuals who will inherently have poor fit. However, Cox (1993) notes the complexity of the diversity-to-performance relationship. He notes that because fit is a function of both the person and the organization, multicultural organizations that value flexibility and inclusion may prove to be a good fit for a more diverse set of individuals than would a more “traditional” organization (Cox, 1993).

As Cox (1993) also points out, majority and minority members’ perceptions of fit have important implications with regard to organizational outcomes such as performance, satisfaction, and turnover. However, these perceptions are also important in the context of recruitment, which is the focus of this paper. An organization can signal either an assimilative or integrative acculturation strategy by describing its efforts to obtain and/or maintain workforce diversity. Assimilation in the organizational context involves the suppression or elimination of cultural differences so that all employees follow norms,

values, and practices established by the dominant organizational culture. Integration, though likely to involve a few core organizational values, allows members to express and share their own cultures (Berry, 1984a; Cox & Finley-Nickelson, 1991). An organization that explicitly values employee differences should signal acceptance of a wider range of individuals than would an organization that seeks to suppress employee differences or one that does not signal its acceptance of differences. Thus, the integration strategy is more likely to evoke high perceptions of fit among a more diverse set of individuals than the assimilation strategy or the absence of an explicit strategy, because it allows individuals to maintain their group and personal identities while at work. Further, the assimilation strategy, with its emphasis on conformity, is likely to evoke lower perceptions of fit than among a wide range of individuals than a lack of an explicit strategy. Based on the research discussed above, these perceptions of fit are expected to positively relate to perceptions of organizational attractiveness. I therefore hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1. Organizations signaling an acculturation strategy of integration will evoke potential applicants' higher perceptions of (a) P-O fit and (b) organizational attractiveness than organizations signaling no acculturation strategy, while organizations signaling a strategy of assimilation will evoke more negative perceptions than organizations signaling no acculturation strategy.

Additionally, based on work mentioned earlier that links P-O fit to organizational attractiveness, I propose that DM practices attract applicants in part through applicants' perceptions of P-O fit. With higher fit perceptions, potential applicants will evaluate the organization more highly in terms of organizational attractiveness. As I will point out

later in this chapter, other mediating processes are also expected to be at work, so I present a hypothesis of partial mediation as follows:

Hypothesis 2. P-O fit perceptions will partially mediate the effect of acculturation strategy on potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness.

Moderators of the Effects of Acculturation Strategy Signals

Prior research suggests a number of individual-level factors may moderate the effect of DM signals on organizational perceptions (e.g., Bell et al., 2000; Harrison et al., 2006; Konrad & Hartmann, 2001; Martins & Parsons, 2007; Smith et al., 2004; Williams & Bauer, 1994). Some of these and other moderating effects may be explained using a framework rooted in ASA and P-O fit. The current study will examine the demographic characteristics of racioethnicity and sex and several personality characteristics. As illustrated in Figure 2, these moderating relationships are expected to occur between the independent variable and the mediator (i.e., first-stage moderation).

Racioethnicity and Sex

As discussed in the previous chapter, attitudes toward DM programs have been posited and often shown to vary by racioethnicity and sex. To summarize the mainstream argument, racioethnic minorities and women, as the beneficiaries of DM programs, are generally thought to evaluate these efforts more positively than Whites and men (e.g., Konrad & Hartmann, 2001; Kravitz & Platania, 1993; K. M. Thomas & Wise, 1999). As was also discussed previously, a stigma effect does seem to exist in many cases, in which minorities and women are actually averse to such programs due to the possibility that they may be perceived as being less qualified and as having received an unfair advantage over Whites and men (Heilman et al., 1992; Heilman et al., 1998; Heilman & Welle,

2006; Konrad & Linnehan, 1995a). However, this stigma effect is thought to be the result of a combination of demographic characteristics and other individual differences and contextual factors (Martins & Parsons, 2007; Olsen, Parsons, Martins, & Ivanaj, 2008), some of which are to be discussed as moderators of the attributions-to-attractiveness perceptions relationship later in this chapter. Using a P-O fit framework, however, I submit that the beneficiary/non-beneficiary effect is the general case, to be moderated by other variables.

As described earlier, Cox (1993) proposed general differences in value congruence between majority group members and minority group members, based on their historical roles in the organization and their influence in shaping organizational cultures. A study by Lovelace and Rosen (1996) can be interpreted as an empirical test of this idea, though the hypothesis development used a different but arguably related line of logic. These authors proposed that racioethnic minorities and women are likely to vary from Whites and men with regard to interests, career goals, personality traits, communication styles, and other characteristics. They further argued that mentors and role-models for these individuals may be more scarce. The authors therefore hypothesized that women and racioethnic minorities would generally perceive lower P-O fit than Whites and men. Using 366 MBA program alumni of several institutions, the authors showed some support for this argument. While Black individuals perceived significantly lower fit than Hispanics and White men, White women and Hispanics did not perceive significantly lower fit than White men (Lovelace & Rosen, 1996). However, the direction of the effect for sex was as hypothesized, and some other studies have found differences in attitudes toward certain types of DM programs (Kravitz et al., 1997; Smith

et al., 2004). Additionally, as will be explained later, mechanisms other than evaluations of fit are expected to underlie perceptions of these programs, so it is possible that these unmeasured variables are partially responsible for different findings.

Thus, consistent with the suggestions of a number of other scholars (e.g., Bell, Harrison, & McLaughlin, 2000; Harrison et al., 2006; Konrad & Hartmann, 2001; Kravitz et al., 1997; Martins & Parsons, 2007; Truxillo & Bauer, 2000), I expect demographic characteristics to affect the relationship between an organization's DM approach signals and potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness. In particular, I expect these individual differences to act as first-stage moderators (Edwards & Lambert, 2007) as they alter the relationship between DM efforts and perceptions of P-O fit. I hypothesize that traditionally underrepresented individuals such as racioethnic minorities, women, and foreign nationals will appreciate the integration strategy even more than Whites, men, and US citizens (respectively), since such a strategy requires the least amount of attitudinal and behavioral change. Additionally, these traditionally disadvantaged groups should find an assimilation strategy especially unattractive, because it requires them to conform to the dominant (usually White US male) culture. Therefore, I generally expect that:

Hypothesis 3. Racioethnicity will moderate the relationship between an organization's signaled acculturation strategy and potential applicants' perceptions of (a) P-O fit and (b) organizational attractiveness. Specifically, the relationship will be stronger among racioethnic minorities than among Whites.

Hypothesis 4. Sex will moderate the relationship between an organization's signaled acculturation strategy and potential applicants' perceptions of (a) P-O

fit and (b) organizational attractiveness. Specifically, the relationship will be stronger among women than among men.

Hypothesis 5. Nationality will moderate the relationship between an organization's signaled acculturation strategy and potential applicants' perceptions of (a) P-O fit and (b) organizational attractiveness. Specifically, the relationship will be stronger among foreign nationals than among US citizens.

Personality

A number of personality characteristics are expected to moderate the relationship between an organization's DM approach and individuals' perceptions of fit and organizational attractiveness. While it is conceivable that many different personality traits could play a role in individuals' perceptions of organizational DM approaches, I will discuss those that seem to be most relevant using the present P-O fit perspective.

Specifically, I draw on several broad and narrow traits of the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992), as well as the trait of flexibility (Lee & Ashton, 2004). Broad traits were chosen based on a study by Judge and Cable (1997), which showed P-O fit perceptions to be a function of personality (using the FFM) and organizational culture. Building on this idea, a DM approach may be conceptualized as a facet of an organization's culture. Thus, as an extension to Judge and Cable's (1997) study, a number of more narrow traits were chosen. In particular, because a diverse workforce requires interpersonal interactions among different groups, I hypothesize that such traits as openness to values and actions and flexibility will be especially relevant.

Although it is not without its criticisms (e.g., Block, 1995; James & Mazerolle, 2002), the FFM is arguably the most pervasive model of personality in organizational

research (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Digman, 1990). Costa and McCrae's (1992) conceptualization of the model consists of the five broad characteristics of neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. These researchers also describe narrow traits within each broad trait, some of which are explored in this paper.

Neuroticism involves a tendency to experience negative emotions and difficulties with adaptation (Costa & McCrae, 1992). In a study of 158 job-seeking college students, Judge and Cable (1997) showed that job-seekers who are high on neuroticism are less attracted to organizations valuing innovation. They explained that this is because an innovative culture requires risk-taking and the exploration of different ideas—activities that are likely to evoke feelings of fear and insecurity among neurotic individuals. Similarly, I propose that such individuals will perceive the organization signaling an integration acculturation strategy to be ever-changing and thus potentially unstable. This hypothesis relies on a complementary fit conceptualization, since it is need satisfaction, rather than value congruence, that is most relevant here. The neurotic, or emotionally unstable, person is likely to seek a stable environment, which he/she is unlikely to see in the organization signaling an integration strategy. Organizations signaling an assimilation strategy or no acculturation strategy are unlikely to emphasize flexibility and change, and are therefore unlikely to be perceived as ever-changing or unstable. Thus,

Hypothesis 6. Neuroticism will moderate the relationship between an organization's signaled acculturation strategy and potential applicants' perceptions of (a) P-O fit and (b) organizational attractiveness. Specifically, individuals high on neuroticism will view organizations signaling an integration

strategy less favorably than individuals low on neuroticism, but this effect will not exist for other organizations.

According to Costa and McCrae (1992), extraverted individuals are generally sociable, assertive, active, talkative, upbeat, energetic, and optimistic. Judge and Cable's (1997) study showed that extraverts are generally attracted to team-oriented organizational cultures. I propose that the integration strategy provides extraverts with more opportunities to express themselves and to interact freely with others, because they are not constrained by assimilative norms. Although unlikely to be opposed to the assimilation strategy, extraverts are unlikely to have as positive perceptions of fit or organizational attractiveness as they would under an integration strategy. However, because many organizations have historically involved an assimilation strategy (Ely & Thomas, 2001), I expect that the integration strategy will be especially appealing to extraverted racioethnic minorities, women, and foreign nationals, since it provides such a unique opportunity to express their group identities at work. I therefore propose that

Hypothesis 7. Perceptions of (a) P-O fit and (b) organizational attractiveness will be predicted by three-way interactions among an organization's signaled acculturation strategy, demographic characteristics ([i] racioethnicity, [ii] sex, and [iii] nationality), and extraversion. Specifically, extraverted individuals will have more favorable perceptions of the organization with an integration strategy than all other organizations, and this relationship will be stronger for racioethnic minorities, women, and foreign nationals.

Individuals high on openness "are willing to entertain novel ideas and unconventional values" (Costa & McCrae, 1992: 15). Of particular interest in this broad

trait are the facets of openness to actions and openness to values. The narrow trait of openness to actions involves one's preference for novel activities, places, and foods. Individuals who are low on this characteristic prefer familiarity over novelty (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Meanwhile, openness to values refers to one's "readiness to reexamine social, political, and religious values" (Costa & McCrae, 1992: 17). Individuals who are not open to values prefer tradition and usually hold conservative beliefs. Not surprisingly, Judge and Cable (1997) found that job-seekers high on openness are attracted to innovative organizational cultures. I hypothesize that such individuals, regardless of race, sex, or nationality, will perceive higher fit and organizational attractiveness for organizations signaling an integration acculturation strategy. More specifically, such organizations provide high openness individuals with opportunities to explore new ideas and to consider the ideas and views of others, which is why the two narrow facets are expected to predict perceptions of the organization. In other words,

Hypothesis 8. Openness to actions and openness to values will moderate the relationship between an organization's signaled acculturation strategy and potential applicants' perceptions of (a) P-O fit and (b) organizational attractiveness. Specifically, high openness individuals will perceive the organization signaling an integration strategy more favorably than all other organizations, while low openness individuals will perceive it less favorably than all other organizations.

Agreeable people are generally trusting of and helpful to others. They are likely to be cooperative and are more apt to feel sympathy (Costa & McCrae, 1992). It is therefore logical that Judge and Cable (1997) found such individuals to be attracted to team-

oriented and supportive organizational cultures. Agreeable people (though by definition unlikely to strongly *oppose* any acculturation strategy) are expected to exhibit more favorable perceptions toward organizations signaling an integration strategy. This strategy explicitly recognizes the value of all organizational members in contributing to all aspects of the business. The agreeable person's tendency to view human nature as inherently good and to be trusting of his/her peers will align well with such an organizational approach. Further, flexibility is a narrow trait of agreeableness borrowed from the six-factor HEXACO model of personality (Lee & Ashton, 2004). The authors define it as "one's willingness to compromise and cooperate with others" (Lee & Ashton, 2004: 335). Highly flexible individuals are likely to be accommodating of others, even if they disagree, so they are well-equipped for organizations embracing an integration strategy. They are unlikely to exhibit strong opposition to an assimilation strategy signal or the absence of a DM signal but will likely show a preference for the integration strategy. Inflexible individuals, on the other hand, are likely to be comparatively repelled by the integration strategy, as they are less likely to prefer circumstances in which they may need to compromise or cooperate with unlike individuals. Flexibility is likely to be the most relevant facet of agreeableness for the purposes of predicting the effects of signaled acculturation strategies, so I expect to find the following:

Hypothesis 9. Flexibility will moderate the relationship between an organization's signaled acculturation strategy and potential applicants' perceptions of (a) P-O fit and (b) organizational attractiveness. Specifically, high flexibility individuals will perceive the organization signaling an integration strategy more favorably than all other organization, while low flexibility individuals will perceive it less

favorably than all other organizations.

It should be noted that in this paper, conscientiousness, the fifth trait of the FFM, is not hypothesized to moderate the relationship between signaled organizational acculturation strategies and perceptions of P-O fit. However, it is incorporated into a later hypothesis for its role in the attribution process that mediates the relationship between an organization's signaled value type and organizational attractiveness. This construct will therefore be defined and discussed in a later section of this chapter.

P-O fit as a Partial Mediator

Finally, as with the main effects described earlier, higher P-O fit perceptions are expected to lead to organizational attractiveness, consistent with previous work by Judge and Cable (1997) and Dineen and colleagues (2002). Thus, the above effects on organizational attractiveness are expected to be partially mediated by P-O fit perceptions.

Hypothesis 10. The two- and three-way interaction effects on potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness will be partially mediated by perceptions of P-O fit.

Attributions

Crocker and Major (1989; Major & Crocker, 1993) point out that women and racioethnic minorities are often faced with ambiguity when making attributions about positive or negative outcomes. A negative supervisor evaluation, demotion, or failure to obtain a job, for example, may be attributed either to low performance/competence or to discrimination. Further, these individuals may attribute positive outcomes to either high levels of performance/competence, sympathy on the part of White or male decision-makers, or the desire of Whites and males to avoid being perceived as discriminatory

(Crocker & Major, 1989; Major & Crocker, 1993; Major et al., 1994). Consistent with work described in the previous chapter (e.g., Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Heilman et al., 1990; Heilman et al., 1991), DM and AA programs may serve to heighten the ambiguity in attributions for positive outcomes (Major & Crocker, 1993; Major et al., 1994).

The work of Heilman and colleagues on the stigma effect of AA programs rests on the idea that women and racioethnic minorities in preferential selection conditions attribute the selection decision to their lack of competence (Heilman et al., 1990; Heilman et al., 1991; Heilman & Alcott, 2001). This research suggests that many women and minorities fear being stigmatized in an organization that they think is trying to achieve quotas or some ideal demographic makeup. Major, Feinstein, and Crocker (1994) suggested and empirically supported the idea that members of stigmatized groups feel less positive affect with good outcomes when they attribute the outcomes to decisions made on the basis of group membership (e.g., racioethnicity or sex), rather than merit (e.g., performance on a test or presence of job-relevant skills). In a study of 90 undergraduates, the authors used three experimental manipulations to evoke group- and merit-based attributions (one condition for each, and one combining the two). Participants were told they were selected for a leadership position on a task based on either a (bogus) test score, their sex (to achieve equal proportions of men and women), or both. Not surprisingly, when asked about their attributions with regard to the selection decision, participants in the sex-based condition made the highest attributions to sex, participants in the combined condition made the second highest attributions to sex, and participants in the merit-based condition made the lowest attributions to sex. Interestingly, however, both the merit-based and combined conditions scored highly on the merit-based

attributions, with no significant difference between the two. Thus, though likely correlated to some degree, merit- and group-based attributions are not two sides of the same coin, and both may simultaneously occur at high levels (Major et al., 1994).

The Effect of Value Signals on Attributions and Perceptions of Organizational Attractiveness

Implications of this work can extend to the recruitment context. Upon reading a recruitment announcement, individuals are expected to form impressions in part about their fit (discussed previously) and in part about how they would be evaluated and selected (or rejected) by the organization. The work of Heilman and colleagues and Major and colleagues described above has implications for this second set of processes. I propose that expectations about how hiring decisions are made may be formed on the basis of a recruitment announcement. An emphasis on the value of diversity, whether instrumental or terminal, should make the relevance of demographic characteristics salient to potential applicants. Therefore, individuals will likely expect these characteristics to play a larger role in the hiring decision for organizations emphasizing their DM efforts. Such organizations should evoke high group-based attributions for expected hiring decisions (i.e., decisions based largely on demographic characteristics). Thus, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 11. Organizations signaling diversity as a value (whether terminal or instrumental) will evoke higher group-based attributions about hiring decisions among potential applicants than organizations that do not signal diversity as a value.

In addition, I expect differences in the degree to which potential applicants make

attributions to merit based largely on whether diversity is framed as a terminal or instrumental value. The instrumental approach views group membership as meritorious and therefore valuable, while the terminal approach views group membership as relevant to monitoring and achieving a workforce that appropriately represents society, the market, suppliers, etc. By describing diversity as a terminal value, the organization signals workforce diversity as a legal, moral, and/or social responsibility. By describing diversity as an instrumental value, however, an organization sends the signal that it values the achievement of business objectives. Therefore, by framing diversity as an instrumental value, the organization should be able to increase potential applicants' attributions of hiring decisions to merit-based factors as well. On the other hand, by framing diversity as a terminal value, organizations may downplay the importance of business-related outcomes, potentially causing lower expectations of merit-based hiring practices. Consistent with work on attributions and work-related perceptions (e.g., Major et al., 1994), when organizations are expected to base hiring decisions on merit, they are also expected to be more attractive. So in sum,

Hypothesis 12. Organizations signaling diversity as an instrumental value will evoke higher (a) merit-based attributions about hiring decisions among potential applicants and (b) perceptions of organizational attractiveness than organizations that do not signal diversity as an instrumental value.

Hypothesis 13. Merit-based attributions will partially mediate the effect of signaling diversity as an instrumental value on perceptions of organizational attractiveness.

Moderators of the Effects of Value Signals

I propose that after forming attributions about hiring decisions, individuals will evaluate them according to their personal demographic characteristics, attitudes about AA programs, discrimination beliefs, and personality traits. As shown in Figure 2, these interactions are expected to occur between the mediator and the dependent variable, constituting second-stage moderation effects (Edwards & Lambert, 2007).

Racioethnicity, Sex, Affirmative Action Attitudes and Discrimination Beliefs

Scholars have proposed that proactive DM programs should have more positive effects on the perceptions from traditionally underrepresented individuals, because these individuals are the potential beneficiaries of the programs (Konrad & Hartmann, 2001; Kravitz & Platania, 1993; K. M. Thomas & Wise, 1999; Tougas & Beaton, 1992). On the other hand, men and non-minorities may perceive group-based recruitment efforts as potentially harmful and thus unattractive. However, as mentioned in Chapter 2, Martins and Parsons (2007) showed that the relationship is more complex than reactions based on demographic group membership. These researchers showed attitudes toward AA to be involved in a three-way interaction with sex and the level of gender DM programs to impact organizational attractiveness. Drawing on some of the literature described above (e.g., Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Heilman et al., 1992), the authors explained that women with less supportive attitudes toward AA (low AA attitudes) may have perceptions of a stigma effect associated with these programs. This led to a negative relationship between the extent of DM programs and organizational attractiveness among these individuals. At the same time, women with with more supportive attitudes toward AA (high AA attitudes) felt positively about organizations with extensive DM programs. Men did not exhibit differences nearly as drastic as those of women. Further, the researchers did not find

gender discrimination beliefs (i.e., beliefs about the extent to which gender discrimination exists in the workplace) to be a significant moderator of the effect of DM programs on organizational attractiveness. However, they did find a similar moderating effect for the relationship between gender composition of the top leadership team and perceptions of attractiveness. The authors proposed that individuals who believe gender discrimination to exist in the workplace to a great degree perceive organizations to be attractive when there is evidence of the success of traditionally disadvantaged individuals (Martins & Parsons, 2007).

I posit that the effects reported by Martins and Parsons (2007) are due not so much to differences in how individuals make attributions in response to DM efforts, but rather primarily to differences in how they *evaluate* the attributions they have made. Racioethnic minorities and women are generally seen as the beneficiaries of DM programs, but if they hold unfavorable attitudes toward AA efforts and/or believe that discrimination is not a substantial problem, they are likely to perceive these programs to be harmful, with concerns about potential stigmatization. These individuals essentially feel that hiring decisions based on group membership labels beneficiaries as incompetent or under-qualified in the eyes of their peers (Heilman & Alcott, 2001). Fear of stigmatization will lead to lower perceptions of attractiveness toward organizations assumed to have group-based hiring decisions. On the other hand, racioethnic minorities and women with high AA attitudes and/or strong beliefs that discrimination in the workplace is a problem are likely to feel that group-based hiring decisions are justified. Thus, all of these individuals are likely to make similar or identical attributions, as hypothesized above, but they are likely to evaluate these attributions very differently.

AA attitudes and discrimination beliefs may have similar effects among Whites and men in terms of direction, but the effects are expected to be dampened as compared to those observed among racioethnic minorities and women. With regard to self-interest, the stakes are simply not as high for Whites and men. They are unlikely to be stigmatized in any case, and are not going to be direct beneficiaries. Consistent with Martins and Parsons's (2007) findings, general feelings toward AA and discrimination beliefs are expected to be less influential in how these individuals perceive DM programs to serve or oppose their own interests. In sum,

Hypothesis 14. Perceptions of organizational attractiveness will be predicted by three-way interactions among group-based attributions, demographic characteristics ([a] racioethnicity and [b] sex), and AA attitudes. Specifically, racioethnic minorities and women with high AA attitudes will exhibit a more positive effect for group-based attributions. Racioethnic minorities and women with low AA attitudes will exhibit a more negative effect for group-based attributions. Whites and men will exhibit weaker effects that are similar in direction.

Hypothesis 15. Perceptions of organizational attractiveness will be predicted by three-way interactions among group-based attributions, demographic characteristics ([a] racioethnicity and [b] sex), and discrimination beliefs. Specifically, racioethnic minorities and women who strongly believe discrimination to exist will exhibit a more positive effect for group-based attributions. Racioethnic minorities and women who do not believe substantial discrimination to exist will exhibit a more negative effect for group-based

attributions. Whites and men will exhibit weaker effects that are similar in direction.

I refrain from stating a hypothesis as to such an effect for nationality in this section. The legal and regulatory environment of the US is unique in its emphasis on equal employment (Ledvinka & Scarpello, 1991; Wolkinson, 2008). Further, patterns in reactions to DM programs have been shown to vary across cultures (Olsen et al., 2008). Such evaluations of attributions may be unique to individuals from individualistic or performance-oriented societies, like the US (Hofstede, 1980; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Thus, while group-based attributions are expected to be predictors of organizational attractiveness perceptions among US nationals, I do not expect to see such a consistent relationship among foreign nationals. A host of other predictors, such as the characteristics of individuals' cultural backgrounds, are likely to come into play. Examination of such relationships, though important, is beyond the scope of this dissertation.

Personality

Several traits were previously predicted to play a role in the relationship between signaled acculturation strategies and perceptions of P-O fit and organizational attractiveness. Personality is also expected to influence the relationship between attributions and organizational attractiveness. Specifically, I hypothesize effects for achievement striving (Costa & McCrae, 1992), Protestant work ethic (PWE; Blood, 1969; Weber, 1958), past achievement, and core self-evaluations (CSE; T. A. Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003; T.A. Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997) because they play a role in how individuals feel about the importance of one's merit and hard work in determining

one's success and advancement.

Conscientiousness has been found to be the most job-related of the FFM traits (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001). According to Costa and McCrae (1992: 16), conscientious individuals are “purposeful, strong-willed, and determined.” In a study mentioned previously, Judge and Cable (1997) found conscientiousness to predict attraction to outcome-oriented organizational cultures. Using a P-O fit framework, they explain that ambition and achievement-orientation are directly congruent with outcome-orientation. I propose that in the present model, this trait is more likely to play a role in the attribution evaluation process, rather than the P-O fit perceptions process. Further, I propose that the narrow facet of achievement striving is of particular relevance here. As the name suggests, this narrow trait refers to one's drive to work hard toward the accomplishment of his/her goals (Costa & McCrae, 1992). As Judge and Cable (1997) point out, individuals focused on achievement are drawn to organizations that focus on outcomes. These individuals are therefore likely to be especially drawn to organizations with merit-based hiring decisions. Thus,

Hypothesis 16. Achievement striving will moderate the relationship between merit-based attributions and potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness. Specifically, the positive relationship will be stronger for individuals high on achievement striving.

Protestant work ethic (PWE) refers to a general disposition toward working hard and the tendency to evaluate one's worth by the amount of work he/she accomplishes in life (Blood, 1969; Weber, 1958). These individuals are also expected to evaluate merit-based hiring decisions highly, because they will view such decisions as rewarding hard

work. Thus, I similarly predict that

Hypothesis 17. PWE will moderate the relationship between merit-based attributions and potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness. Specifically, the positive relationship will be stronger for individuals high on PWE.

In an attempt to obtain a deeper understanding of the role of achievement-related constructs, I will also test the hypothesis that past achievement moderates the relationship between merit-based attributions and perceptions of organizational attractiveness.

Individuals who have demonstrated a high level of achievement are likely to have the desire to be recognized and rewarded for such behavior. They will therefore exhibit more favorable evaluations of merit-based hiring decisions. These individuals will also be more likely to evaluate organizations unfavorably if they are not perceived to consider merit.

Thus,

Hypothesis 18. Past achievement will moderate the relationship between merit-based attributions and potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness. Specifically, the positive relationship will be stronger for individuals with high past achievement.

A personality trait termed core self-evaluations (CSE) is defined as “a basic, fundamental appraisal of one’s worthiness, effectiveness, and capability as a person” (T. A. Judge et al., 2003: 304) and is proposed to positively relate to such outcomes as job satisfaction and performance (T. A. Judge et al., 2003; T.A. Judge et al., 1997). Research suggests that the stigma effect associated with preferential selection can be dampened by high self-views, because they feel they are qualified regardless of the selection method

(Major et al., 1994). Because these individuals are less concerned with being perceived as under-qualified or incompetent, their evaluations of merit-based attributions are less relevant in their perceptions of organizational attractiveness.

Hypothesis 19. CSE will moderate the relationship between merit-based attributions and potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness. Specifically, the positive relationship will be weaker for individuals high on CSE.

The following four chapters describe the methodology and results of two studies designed to test the model depicted in Figure 2 and the hypotheses derived above. The final concluding chapter of this dissertation discusses the results and their implications.

CHAPTER 5: STUDY 1

Methodology

Design and Procedure

Study 1 has been designed to be a between-subject experimental test of all hypotheses. It follows a 2×3 experimental design (two acculturation strategies and three value types), with the addition of a control (no DM approach) condition, for a total of seven conditions. Participants were provided with links to online surveys and were therefore able to respond from any computer with Internet access. In order to reduce the potential influence of common method bias, the study took place in two phases. Consistent with the methodology used by Umphress, Smith-Crowe, Brief, Dietz, and Watkins (2007), the first phase measured participants' individual differences (personality, attitudes, beliefs, and demographic characteristics). The second phase of this study, administered two to four weeks later, presented participants with one of the seven randomly-assigned recruitment announcements (described below) for a fictional organization. The assigned recruitment announcements were designed to signal a DM approach, except for the control condition, which did not mention DM. After reading the announcement, participants were presented with the manipulation checks, P-O fit perceptions, organizational attractiveness perceptions, and expectations about how the organization is likely to make its hiring decisions (merit- and group-based attributions). Each survey took approximately 15-30 minutes to complete.

Sample and Data Collection

Participants for the study were recruited via two methods. The first recruitment

method drew upon undergraduate students enrolled in introductory human resource management and organizational behavior classes at a major Southeastern university for course credit. This method yielded 402 participants. For the second recruitment method, I approached individuals via club/organization activities and classes not associated with those involved in the subject pool described above. This opportunity was also extended to students of other universities in the area. As an incentive to consider participation in the study via this second recruitment method, entry into a drawing for \$100 cash prizes was offered to individuals who visited the online study's website. For each phase of the study, participants were entered into a drawing for one prize. This recruitment method yielded 39 participants. Of the initial total of 441 participants, 44 (approximately 10%) did not complete the second part of the study, leaving 397 participants for whom both independent and dependent variables were available.

Because two methods were employed in recruiting study participants (subject pool and prize drawing entry), I tested for differences in the dependent variable (organizational attractiveness) and mediators (P-O fit perceptions, group-based attributions, and merit-based attributions) between the two samples. No significant differences were found, so all subjects were combined for further analyses.

Finally, an examination of response patterns allowed me to identify nine subjects who had suspiciously low variance across constructs. These subjects also generally had unusually quick survey completion times, leading me to suspect that they quickly selected their answers across constructs without reading the items. Thus, I eliminated these nine individuals from further analyses. In addition, an examination of subject leverage and Cook's distance regression diagnostics led me to eliminate one subject as an

outlier. The final sample therefore consisted of 387 individuals. Demographic characteristics of the final sample were as follows: 28.2% minorities (11.1% Black or Hispanic), 38.8% females, 7.5% foreign citizens, average age of 20.54 years ($SD = 1.71$), and average full-time work experience of .72 years ($SD = 1.42$).

In their study of organizational attractiveness, mentioned in chapter 2, Smith et al. (2004) cite Winer (1999) in explaining that the use of student samples in organizational research is problematic when trying to generalize results to organizational populations. Although criticisms regarding the use of student samples are often valid, they should not be applied globally to organizational research. A sample should be chosen in order to most appropriately answer the research question at hand. In this case, I seek to explore the effects of DM programs on the perceptions of potential job applicants. To maximize the external validity of a study exploring these effects, one would need to choose a sample from the population of potential job applicants in the “real world.” Further, to make prescriptions that would be of interest to practitioners, one might further limit the population to potential job applicants who would be of interest to recruiters. Samples of students at major academic institutions are quite reasonable, if not ideal, for such studies. Although one should exercise caution in generalizing results to upper-level positions, these samples represent a population of potentially high-quality entry-level recruits. This sample therefore contributes to the external validity of this study.

Experimental Manipulations

In order to construct fictional but realistic diversity statements as the experimental conditions, I sampled and analyzed actual statements from organizations’ websites. First, I randomly sampled the online diversity statements of 30 Fortune 500 companies, 5 non-

profit organizations (randomly selected from from CharityNavigator.org), and 5 government organizations in the US (randomly selected from USA.gov's list of Federal government departments and agencies, as well as local municipal governments of randomly generated zip codes).

A set of rules was used to find a diversity statement on each organization's website. If there was a link labeled "diversity" on the organization's homepage, it was accessed. Otherwise, I pursued links to "careers" (or similar) pages. If such a link was unavailable, I pursued any "corporate information" or "about us" pages in search of diversity-related information. Additionally, if the organization was a holding company or large conglomerate, subsidiary pages were not pursued; diversity information was only included if it was available in the parent organization's webpage. Further, under the assumption that the information had to be of some level of substance in order to express any particular perspective, a statement was required to be at least two sentences in length in order to be included. This rule evolved during the sampling process, as some organizations seemed to express the value of diversity (e.g., "We believe that it is important to have a diverse workforce") without providing any rationale for the value (e.g., "A diverse workforce provides us with the benefit of..."). Short statements without elaboration may support any of the proposed DM approaches, as all approaches involve valuing diversity. In order to bound the search, diversity information satisfying the requirements was to be found in five clicks. Otherwise, the organization was not included. If a particular organization did not meet the above criteria, another was randomly selected, until 40 diversity statements were obtained.

Next, because organizations varied in the amount and form in which they

presented diversity-related information, I followed a set of rules for what text to use as a reference in this project. For example, some organizations had multiple webpages about diversity (including employee, supplier, and customer diversity, for instance). Further, some organizations provided statements by the CEO and/or a diversity officer. The objective of this effort was to include employment-related diversity information, as opposed to supplier- or market-related diversity information. Thus, headings and links dealing with workforce diversity were pursued, while those dealing with supplier diversity were not. General statements about diversity were also included, even if it appeared on multiple pages. CEO/director statements within diversity pages were included if they seemed to address the general public and/or potential applicants (rather than current employees) and explicitly discuss workforce diversity.

All relevant text was copied and pasted into a text file. Each statement was assigned a number before it was stripped of all information that could allow anyone to identify the organization. Additionally, the text formatting was standardized across all statements.

Next, I selected an individual with a master's degree who is familiar with qualitative and quantitative research to rate the diversity statements. I trained the rater with regard to the proposed theory-driven dimensions. After allowing for discussion and questions about the theory and procedure, the rater and I then rated each diversity statement on the acculturation strategies (integration and assimilation) and value types (terminal and instrumental), using 7-point Likert scales. Thus, each rater rated each statement on four characteristics.

Upon completion, I calculated an r_{WG} score (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984) for

each characteristic on each statement. The initial average r_{WG} score for the independent ratings was .73. However, the raters subsequently discussed any statement with an average r_{WG} score of below .80. The results of these discussions yielded a better understanding of the statements' characteristics and a final r_{WG} of .91. The true objective of the exercise was not to obtain a high r_{WG} , but rather to understand the features of real diversity statements that would be characteristic of each DM approach. The ratings, in conjunction with the discussion of characteristics that create ambiguous statements, led to the accomplishment of this objective. I was then able to conduct a simple content analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994) to identify certain words and phrases that were associated with each dimension. These words and phrases were then incorporated into the experimental manipulations.

The front end (corporate description, compensation and benefits information, etc.) of all recruitment announcements (and the entire announcement for the control condition) was constructed based on actual recruitment announcements regularly sent to undergraduate students via a university-sponsored bulletin board. I was provided access to the board and referred to numerous statements in order to construct a front end that was realistic. The manipulations used for this study are presented in Appendix B.

In order to check the effectiveness of the manipulations, I used four two-item scales, one each for assimilation, integration, terminal value, and instrumental value. These items were constructed based on the theory described previously. All t-tests were significant ($p < .001$) in the expected directions, indicating that participants generally interpreted the manipulations as intended.

Measures

All items, except those assessing demographic information and past achievement, were measured on a seven-point Likert scale. The complete scales are presented in Appendix C. Coefficient alphas were computed for all scales to assess reliability. A reliability of .70 or higher is considered acceptable for new or exploratory measures, while a reliability of at least .80 is desirable for measures that are well-established (Lance, Butts, & Michels, 2006; Nunnally, 1978).

Broad and narrow traits of the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality, as well as flexibility, were measured with scales from the International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg et al., 2006; IPIP, 2008). Reliabilities in this sample were .88 for neuroticism, .92 for extraversion, .84 for openness to actions, .62 for openness to values, .82 for flexibility, and .90 for achievement striving (IPIP, 2008). Each scale consisted of ten items. In order to address the low alpha for openness to values, two items were deleted (numbers 3 and 9), yielding an eight-item scale with an alpha of .75.

Protestant work ethic (PWE) was measured with four items from Blood (1969), as used by Adams and Rau (2004), who reported a Cronbach's alpha of .78. In this sample, however, the scale reached a reliability of only .55. Deletion of any of the items only resulted in lower alpha scores, so it was left as-is for hypothesis testing.

Past achievement was measured via an open-ended self-report of individuals' grade point averages (GPAs). The average GPA for the sample was 3.11, with a standard deviation of .49.

Core self-evaluations (CSE) were measured with the twelve-item scale constructed by Judge and colleagues (2003). These authors reported an average reliability of .84, and this sample yielded a reliability of .82.

AA attitudes were measured with a five-item seven-point semantic differential scale constructed by Harrison and colleagues (Bell et al., 2000). These authors reported a Cronbach's alpha of .82 for the seven-point scale, while this sample achieved an alpha of .95.

Two scales were used to measure discrimination beliefs. Discrimination beliefs about women were measured with a five-item scale adapted by Martins and Parsons (2007) from Cameron (2001) and Konrad and Hartmann (2001). Martins and Parsons (2007) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .84 for this scale, while the alpha in the current sample was .82. For this study, I have also adapted the scale to measure discrimination beliefs about racioethnic minorities, with a reliability of .85.

Also consistent with Martins and Parsons (2007), perceptions of organizational attractiveness were assessed with a seven-item scale constructed with items from Schwoerer and Rosen (1989) and Turban and Keon (1993). Martins and Parsons (2007) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .90, while this study's results indicated an alpha of .91.

Perceptions of P-O fit were measured with Cable and DeRue's (2002) three-item scale. They reported alphas of .91 and .92, and this study resulted in a reliability of .92.

Attributions, or expectations of the basis of hiring decisions, were measured with a two-factor scale constructed based on items used by Heilman et al. (1996) and Major et al. (1994). Participants were asked about the extent to which the organization is likely to give importance to nine characteristics in making hiring decisions. The merit-based factor included five items (educational background, prior work experience, ability/skill, work aptitude, and performance on interviews and selection tests), while the group-based factor consisted of four items (sex/gender, race or ethnicity, underrepresented status, and

minority group membership). Cronbach alphas for these scales were .86 and .95, respectively.

Finally, racioethnicity, sex, and nationality (country of citizenship) were collected for tests of hypotheses, while full-time work experience was collected as a control variable.

Data Analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test whether the data fit the factor structures of the variables as defined by theory. Allowing for correlations among the factors, all items loaded highly on the factors corresponding to their respective scales. The measurement model demonstrated adequate fit ($\chi^2 [6549 \text{ df}] = 11573, p < .001$; CFI = .75; RMSEA = .05.). While the CFI was lower than would normally be desired, the RMSEA indicated good fit. Additionally, the average item loadings for each scale exceeded .50, with the exception of the PWE scale, which had an average item loading of .46.

In order to test for main and moderated effects, I utilized ordinary least squares (OLS) regression. Each DM dimension was dummy coded to indicate the experimental conditions. Two dummy codes were used to indicate the acculturation strategy (control, assimilation, or integration), while three were used to indicate the diversity value type (control, terminal, instrumental, or dual). Dichotomous variables were also used for racioethnicity (0 = White and 1 = minority), sex (0 = male and 1 = female), and nationality (0 = US citizen and 1 = foreign citizen). Full-time work experience (in years) was also entered as a control variable in all analyses. For tests of moderation using hierarchical OLS regression, control and independent variables were entered in the first

step, two-way interaction effects were entered in a second step, and, where applicable, three-way effects were entered in a third step. Continuous variables that were involved in moderation were centered in order to reduce multicollinearity (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Significant moderation effects would be indicated by a significant change in R^2 for the steps in which hypothesized interaction effects were entered. Further, the regression weights for each interaction effect should also be significantly different than zero.

Hypotheses of partial mediation were tested with the procedure outlined by James, Mulaik, and Brett (2006). First, I regressed the independent variable(s) on the mediator. Second, I regressed the independent and mediating variables on the dependent variable. If the regression coefficients were significant for all variables in both equations, the partial mediation model was supported. This is essentially the same test as that for partial mediation by Baron and Kenny (1986), except that the regression coefficient for the independent variable in the second regression test must be significant in this approach (indicating the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable).

Finally, analyses were conducted using a dichotomous variable for Black/Hispanic participants, rather than the broader “minority” category. However, because the direction and magnitude of effects did not seem to vary, results are reported for the “minority” categorization only.

Results

Correlations, means, and standard deviations from study 1 are presented in Table 2. Means and standard deviations on the mediating and dependent variables for each condition are presented in Table 3. Table 4 presents the results of tests of Hypotheses 1

and 2. These results suggest that signaling an integration acculturation strategy had a marginally negative effect on both P-O fit perceptions ($\beta = -.13, p < .10$) and organizational attractiveness perceptions ($\beta = -.12, p < .10$), opposite of the predictions in Hypothesis 1. There was no significant effect for signaling an assimilation strategy. Thus, Hypotheses 1a and 1b were not supported.

Testing the partial mediation hypothesis, Hypothesis 2, required that there first be a significant effect for the independent variable (acculturation strategy) on the mediator (P-O fit perceptions). Thus, it was not necessary to proceed further in testing this hypothesis. However, as a *post hoc* exploration of the marginally negative effect for an integration strategy, I regressed both acculturation strategies and P-O fit perceptions on organizational attractiveness. As acculturation strategies carried no significant beta weight, there was no support for partial mediation. While the significant effect of P-O fit perceptions ($\beta = .54, p < .01$) may indicate full mediation, this is simply one *post hoc* interpretation of a marginally negative effect. Hypothesis 2 therefore failed to receive support.

Hypotheses 3 through 5 predicted interactions between the signaled acculturation strategies and demographic characteristics to influence P-O fit perceptions and organizational attractiveness. Results of these analyses are presented in Tables 5, 6, and 7.

Table 2: Study 1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations^a

Variable ^b	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
1. Work Experience (Years)	.72	1.42	—																									
2. Race (1 = Minority)	.29	.45	.01	—																								
3. Race (1 = Black/Hispanic)	.11	.32	.13*	.56**	—																							
4. Sex (1 = Female)	.39	.49	-.11*	.07	-.04	—																						
5. Nationality (1 = Foreign Citizen)	.08	.27	-.03	.34**	-.04	.04	—																					
6. Assimilation Strategy	.40	.49	-.03	.08	.03	-.11*	-.01	—																				
7. Integration Strategy	.40	.49	.02	-.08	-.04	.09 [†]	.03	-.68**	—																			
8. Terminal Value	.25	.44	-.04	-.03	.00	.02	.04	.16**	.09 [†]	—																		
9. Instrumental Value	.29	.46	.03	.08	.08	.01	.01	.14**	.14**	-.38**	—																	
10. Dual Value	.25	.43	.01	-.04	-.09 [†]	-.04	-.03	.09 [†]	.15**	-.33**	-.37**	—																
11. Neuroticism	2.81	1.01	-.04	.14**	.02	.15**	.08	-.11*	.07	-.06	.03	-.02	(.88)															
12. Extraversion	4.94	1.11	.05	-.13**	-.07	.10 [†]	-.07	.09 [†]	-.04	.03	.00	.02	-.34**	(.92)														
13. Openness to Actions	4.88	.89	.15**	.07	.12*	.00	.03	-.01	.01	.01	-.05	.04	-.24**	.34**	(.84)													
14. Openness to Values	3.42	1.07	.04	.25**	.17**	.04	.12*	-.01	.02	-.05	.03	.03	.18**	-.15**	.15**	(.75)												
15. Flexibility	4.41	.90	.08	.11*	.05	.09 [†]	.05	.01	-.02	.06	-.08	.01	-.35**	.10 [†]	.29**	.09 [†]	(.82)											
16. Affirmative Action Attitudes	3.86	1.66	.01	.36**	.32**	.19**	.24**	-.06	.04	.03	.01	-.07	-.01	-.06	-.03	.27**	.25**	(.95)										
17. Discrimination Beliefs (Race)	3.94	1.25	.01	.38**	.29**	.12*	.13*	-.10 [†]	.01	-.01	.07	-.17**	.09 [†]	-.13*	-.01	.31**	.13*	.47**	(.85)									
18. Discrimination Beliefs (Sex)	4.01	1.12	-.04	.33**	.21**	.24**	.07	-.09 [†]	.01	.02	.07	-.17**	.09 [†]	-.03	.05	.26**	.08	.31**	.63**	(.82)								
19. Achievement Striving	5.54	.90	.12*	.00	.04	.15**	-.05	.07	.01	.08	-.02	.03	-.32**	.35**	.27**	-.19**	.15**	.05	-.08	-.04	(.90)							
20. Protestant Work Ethic	5.02	.96	.11*	.17**	.13*	-.01	.09 [†]	.08	-.03	-.07	.00	.12*	-.10 [†]	.13*	.10 [†]	-.13*	.05	.14**	-.03	-.03	.38**	(.55)						
21. Grade Point Average (GPA)	3.11	.49	-.07	.05	-.04	.15**	.10 [†]	.10 [†]	.00	.02	.07	.01	-.01	-.09 [†]	.05	.06	.06	.05	.08	.07	.22**	.10*	—					
22. Core Self-Evaluations	5.16	.77	.10*	-.15**	.07	-.11*	-.08	.14**	-.03	.06	.02	.05	-.67**	.41**	.26**	-.17**	.21**	-.03	-.13*	-.13*	.42**	.17**	.08	(.82)				
23. Person-Organization Fit	4.80	1.06	.01	.09 [†]	.09 [†]	.15**	.01	.02	-.09 [†]	.01	-.01	-.07	-.13*	.07	.09 [†]	.02	.23**	.20**	.11*	.11*	.15**	.15**	.07	.12*	(.92)			
24. Group-Based Attributions	4.11	1.87	.01	-.06	-.07	.01	-.13	.05	.20**	.05	.13**	.10 [†]	.01	.05	.03	-.05	-.07	-.10 [†]	-.03	-.01	.08	-.02	.06	-.01	-.24**	(.95)		
25. Merit-Based Attributions	5.30	.89	.01	.17**	.10	.06	.12*	-.05	-.08	.03	-.16**	-.01	-.08	-.04	.06	.08	.14**	.09 [†]	.11*	.16**	.13*	.13*	.05	.09 [†]	.29**	-.30**	(.86)	
26. Organizational Attractiveness	5.14	1.01	-.09 [†]	.01	.09 [†]	.12*	-.03	-.01	-.06	.09 [†]	-.12*	-.05	-.10*	.02	.05	.00	.16**	.13*	.04	.11*	.10*	.08	.00	.05	.54**	-.23**	.34**	(.91)

^a $N = 373-387$

^b Coefficient alphas appear in parentheses on the diagonal for variables composed of multi-item scales.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, † $p < .10$

Table 3: Study 1 Means and Standard Deviations for All Experimental Groups

Experimental Group	Person-Organization Fit			Group-Based Attributions			Merit-Based Attributions			Organizational Attractiveness		
	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
Control	79	4.96	.95	80	2.98	1.38	80	2.98	1.38	80	5.30	.69
Terminal Assimilation	52	4.82	1.17	52	4.44	1.87	52	5.30	1.05	52	5.20	.95
Terminal Integration	46	4.80	1.08	46	4.06	2.11	46	5.42	.70	46	5.42	.91
Instrumental Assimilation	57	4.06	1.88	57	4.06	1.88	57	5.24	.80	57	5.10	1.11
Instrumental Integration	57	4.54	1.10	57	4.92	1.61	57	4.30	.90	57	4.81	1.15
Dual Value Assimilation	43	4.58	.99	45	4.18	1.93	45	5.20	.90	45	5.09	1.00
Dual Value Integration	49	4.73	1.24	50	4.66	1.77	50	5.37	1.00	50	5.03	1.19

Table 4: Study 1, Hypotheses 1 and 2, Regression Results for Acculturation Strategy Main and Mediated Effects^a

Variables	Hypothesis 1a (DV = Person-Organization Fit)			Hypothesis 1b (DV = Org. Attractiveness)			Hypothesis 2 (DV = Org. Attractiveness)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	.01	.04	.01	-.06	.04	-.09 [†]	-.08	.03	-.11*
Nationality (1 = foreign)	.04	.22	.01	-.18	.21	-.05	-.19	.18	-.05
Sex (1 = female)	.35	.11	.16**	.24	.11	.12*	.05	.09	.02
Race (1 = minority)	.19	.13	.08	.03	.12	.01	-.07	.11	-.03
Assimilation Strategy	-.10	.15	-.05	-.14	.14	-.07	-.08	.12	-.04
Integration Strategy	-.28	.15	-.13 [†]	-.24	.14	-.12 [†]	-.09	.12	-.05
Person-Organization Fit	—	—	—	—	—	—	.52	.04	.54**
Constant	4.76**	.13		5.20**	.13		2.74**	.23	
<i>R</i>	.21			.18			.56		
<i>R</i> ²	.04			.03			.31		
<i>F</i>	2.67*			2.00 [†]			23.28**		

^a *N* = 370-374. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights.

* *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, [†] *p* < .10

Table 5: Study 1, Hypothesis 3, Regression Results for Racioethnicity \times Acculturation Strategy Interaction^a

Variables	Hypothesis 3a (DV = Person-Organization Fit)			Hypothesis 3b (DV = Org. Attractiveness)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	.02	.04	.03	-.06	.04	-.08
Nationality (1 = foreign)	-.02	.22	-.01	-.21	.22	-.05
Sex (1 = female)	.33	.11	.15**	.23	.11	.11*
Race (1 = minority)	-.37	.27	-.16	-.20	.26	-.09
Assimilation Strategy	-.26	.18	-.12	-.19	.17	-.09
Integration Strategy	-.52	.17	-.24**	-.35	.17	-.17*
Race \times Assimilation	.55	.33	.18 [†]	.19	.32	.06
Race \times Integration	.93	.34	.26**	.43	.33	.13
Constant	4.92**	.15		5.27**	.15	
<i>R</i>	.25			.19		
<i>R</i> ²	.06			.04		
ΔR^2 (interactions)	.02*			.01		
<i>F</i>	2.96**			1.73 [†]		

^a *N* = 370-374. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights.

* *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, [†] *p* < .10

Table 6: Study 1, Hypothesis 4, Regression Results for Sex \times Acculturation Strategy Interaction^a

Variables	Hypothesis 4a (DV = Person-Organization Fit)			Hypothesis 4b (DV = Org. Attractiveness)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	.01	.04	.01	-.06	.04	-.09
Nationality (1 = foreign)	.04	.22	.01	-.18	.22	-.05
Sex (1 = female)	.34	.25	.16	.03	.24	.01
Race (1 = minority)	.19	.13	.08	.02	.12	.01
Assimilation Strategy	-.12	.19	-.06	-.21	.18	-.10
Integration Strategy	-.27	.20	-.12	-.40	.19	-.19*
Sex \times Assimilation	.05	.32	.02	.15	.30	.05
Sex \times Integration	-.03	.31	-.01	.38	.29	.14
Constant	4.76**	.16		5.29**	.16	
<i>R</i>	.21			.19		
<i>R</i> ²	.04			.04		
ΔR^2 (interactions)	.00			.01		
<i>F</i>	2.00*			1.74 [†]		

^a *N* = 370-374. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights.

* *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, [†] *p* < .10

Table 7: Study 1, Hypothesis 5, Regression Results for Nationality \times Acculturation Strategy Interaction^a

Variables	Hypothesis 5a (DV = Person-Organization Fit)			Hypothesis 5b (DV = Org. Attractiveness)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	.01	.04	.01	-.06	.04	-.09
Nationality (1 = foreign)	.29	.49	.07	.37	.47	.09
Sex (1 = female)	.36	.11	.16	.25	.11	.12*
Race (1 = minority)	.19	.13	.08	.04	.12	.02
Assimilation Strategy	-.06	.16	-.03	-.10	.15	-.05
Integration Strategy	-.28	.16	-.13 [†]	-.19	.15	-.09
Nationality \times Assim.	-.60	.60	-.09	-.60	.58	-.10
Nationality \times Integrat.	-.05	.58	-.01	-.74	.56	-.13
Constant	4.73**	.14		5.16**	.13	
<i>R</i>	.22			.19		
<i>R</i> ²	.05			.04		
ΔR^2 (interactions)	.00			.01		
<i>F</i>	2.21*			1.72 [†]		

^a $N = 370-374$. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$

The interaction involving racioethnicity on P-O fit perceptions was significant (racioethnicity \times integration: $\beta = .26, p < .01$; racioethnicity \times assimilation: $.18, p < .10$), explaining a significant ($p < .05$) two percent of the variance. As shown in Figure 3, this interaction was in the direction predicted. However, this interaction was not significant on perceptions of organizational attractiveness, and interactions involving sex and nationality also failed to achieve significance on both P-O fit perceptions and organizational attractiveness. Thus, Hypothesis 3a was supported, while Hypotheses 3b, 4a, 4b, 5a, and 5b were not supported.

Hypotheses 6 through 9 predicted two- and three-way interactions involving individual personality characteristics. Results are presented in Tables 8 through 12. The interaction terms failed to account for significant amounts of variance in P-O fit

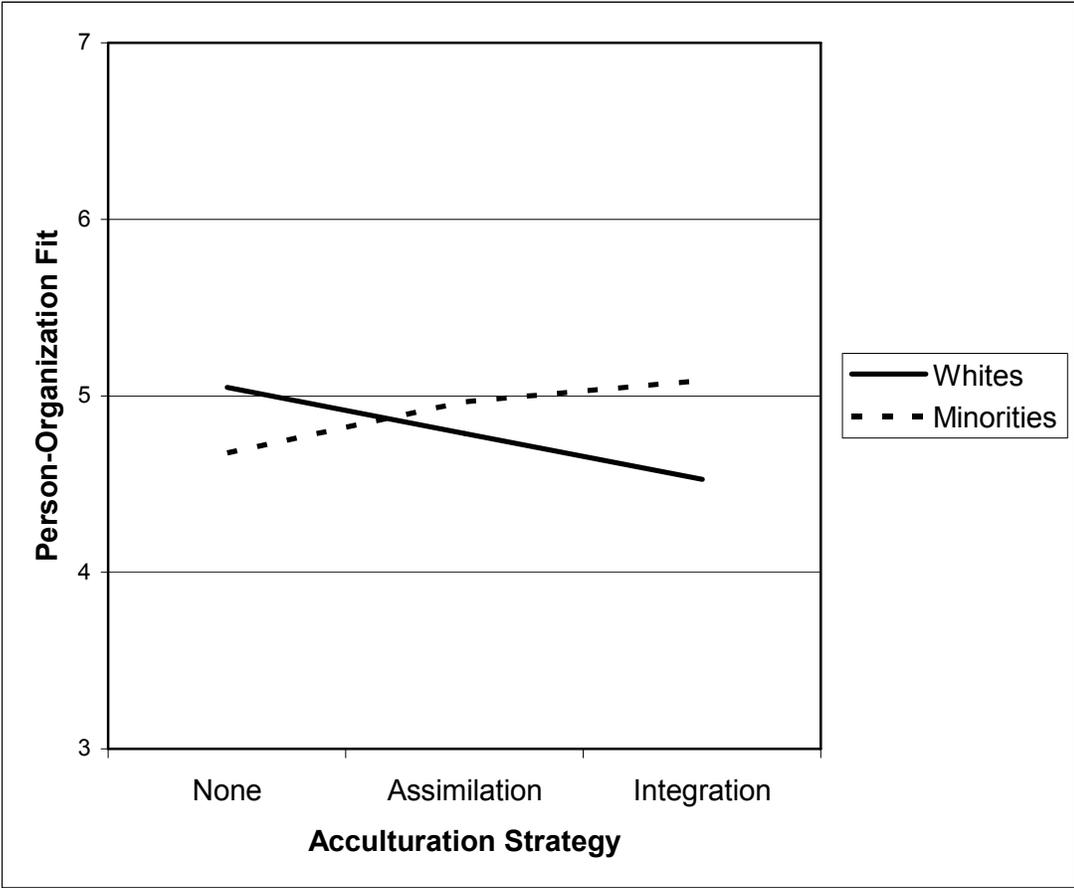


Figure 3: Study 1, Race × Acculturation Strategy Interaction

Table 8: Study 1, Hypothesis 6, Regression Results for
Neuroticism \times Acculturation Strategy Interaction^a

Variables	Hypothesis 6a (DV = Person-Organization Fit)			Hypothesis 6b (DV = Org. Attractiveness)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	.00	.04	.01	-.07	.04	-.10 [†]
Nationality (1 = foreign)	.06	.22	.01	-.17	.22	-.04
Sex (1 = female)	.40	.11	.18**	.27	.11	.13*
Race (1 = minority)	.25	.13	.11 [†]	.08	.13	.03
Assimilation Strategy	-.13	.15	-.06	-.17	.14	-.08
Integration Strategy	-.27	.15	-.12 [†]	-.24	.14	-.12 [†]
Neuroticism	-.20	.13	-.18	-.05	.12	-.05
Neuroticism \times Assim.	.05	.16	.03	-.07	.15	-.04
Neuroticism \times Integrat.	-.05	.15	-.03	-.14	.15	-.09
Constant	4.73**	.13		5.19**	.13	
<i>R</i>	.28			.23		
<i>R</i> ²	.08			.05		
ΔR^2 (interactions)	.00			.00		
<i>F</i>	3.28**			2.16*		

^a $N = 370-374$. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$

Table 9: Study 1, Hypothesis 7a, Regression Results for Extraversion Moderator on Person-Organization Fit^a

Variables	Hypothesis 7a(i) (Demographic = Race)			Hypothesis 7a(ii) (Demographic = Sex)			Hypothesis 7a(iii) (Demographic = Nationality)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	.02	.04	.02	.01	.04	.01	.00	.04	.00
Nationality (1 = foreign)	-.04	.23	-.01	.04	.22	.01	.06	.90	.02
Sex (1 = female)	.30	.12	.14**	.34	.26	.15	.34	.12	.16**
Race (1 = minority)	-.37	.28	-.16	.22	.13	.09	.21	.13	.09
Assimilation Strategy	-.28	.18	-.13	-.13	.19	-.06	-.08	.16	-.04
Integration Strategy	-.53	.18	-.24**	-.29	.20	-.13	-.28	.16	-.13 [†]
Extraversion	.04	.14	.05	.04	.20	.04	.06	.12	.06
Demographic × Assim.	.58	.33	.19 [†]	-.05	.32	-.02	-.54	.97	-.08
Demographic × Integrat.	1.04	.35	.29**	-.02	.31	-.01	.20	.95	.03
Extraversion × Assim.	.01	.17	.01	-.07	.22	-.04	.01	.15	.01
Extraversion × Integrat.	-.02	.16	-.02	-.14	.22	-.10	-.01	.14	-.01
Demographic × Extra.	.00	.27	.00	.03	.25	.02	-.69	2.32	-.17
Demo. × Assim. × Extra.	.00	.32	.00	.25	.31	.09	.24	2.34	.04
Demo. × Integr. × Extra.	.24	.32	.09	.32	.29	.15	.78	2.34	.13
Constant	4.94**	.15		4.76**	.17		4.75**	.14	
<i>R</i>	.27			.26			.24		
<i>R</i> ²	.07			.07			.06		
ΔR^2 (2-way interactions)	.02			.02			.01		
ΔR^2 (3-way interactions)	.00			.00			.00		
<i>F</i>	1.93*			1.83*			1.47		

^a *N* = 369. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$

Table 10: Study 1, Hypothesis 7b, Regression Results for Extraversion Moderator on Organizational Attractiveness^a

Variables	Hypothesis 7b(i) (Demographic = Race)			Hypothesis 7b(ii) (Demographic = Sex)			Hypothesis 7b(iii) (Demographic = Nationality)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	-.06	.04	-.08	-.06	.04	-.08	-.06	.04	-.09
Nationality (1 = foreign)	-.21	.22	-.05	-.19	.22	-.05	.33	.87	.09
Sex (1 = female)	.22	.11	.11 [†]	.06	.24	.03	.25	.11	.12*
Race (1 = minority)	-.26	.27	-.11	.03	.13	.01	.05	.13	.02
Assimilation Strategy	-.19	.18	-.09	-.17	.19	-.08	-.10	.15	-.05
Integration Strategy	-.36	.17	-.17*	-.40	.19	-.19*	-.19	.15	-.09
Extraversion	.04	.13	.04	-.12	.19	-.13	-.02	.12	-.02
Demographic × Assim.	.26	.32	.09	.09	.31	.03	-.65	.93	-.10
Demographic × Integrat.	.58	.34	.17 [†]	.37	.30	.14	-.70	.92	-.12
Extraversion × Assim.	-.08	.27	-.06	.12	.21	.08	.04	.14	.03
Extraversion × Integrat.	-.09	.16	-.06	-.03	.22	-.02	.02	.14	.01
Demographic × Extra.	-.27	.26	-.16	.17	.24	.12	-.08	2.25	-.02
Demo. × Assim. × Extra.	.39	.31	.16	-.11	.30	-.04	-.11	2.27	-.02
Demo. × Integr. × Extra.	.53	.31	.20 [†]	.16	.28	.08	.10	2.27	.02
Constant	5.28**	.15		5.26**	.16		5.16**	.13	
<i>R</i>	.22			.23			.19		
<i>R</i> ²	.05			.05			.04		
ΔR^2 (2-way interactions)	.01			.02			.01		
ΔR^2 (3-way interactions)	.01			.00			.00		
<i>F</i>	1.29			1.42			1.00		

^a *N* = 373. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights.

* *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, † *p* < .10

Table 11: Study 1, Hypothesis 8, Regression Results for Openness \times Acculturation Strategy Interaction^a

Variables	Hypothesis 8a (DV = Person-Organization Fit)						Hypothesis 8b (DV = Org. Attractiveness)					
	Openness = Openness to Actions			Openness = Openness to Values			Openness = Openness to Actions			Openness = Openness to Values		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	.00	.04	.00	.02	.04	.02	-.07	.04	-.10 [†]	-.07	.04	-.09 [†]
Nationality (1 = foreign)	.03	.22	.01	.05	.22	.12	-.20	.22	-.05	-.18	.22	-.05
Sex (1 = female)	.34	.11	.16**	.34	.12	.16**	.23	.11	.11*	.23	.11	.11*
Race (1 = minority)	.19	.13	.08	.18	.13	.08	.04	.13	.02	.03	.13	.01
Assimilation Strategy	-.10	.15	-.05	-.12	.15	-.06	-.14	.14	-.07	-.18	.15	-.09
Integration Strategy	-.28	.15	-.13 [†]	-.32	.15	-.15*	-.24	.14	-.12 [†]	-.28	.15	-.14 [†]
Openness	-.04	.15	-.03	-.19	.13	-.19	.01	.14	.02	-.02	.12	-.02
Openness \times Assimilation	.20	.18	-.11	.17	.15	.11	.14	.17	.08	-.01	.14	-.01
Openness \times Integration	.14	.18	.07	.27	.15	.18	.00	.17	.00	.08	.15	.05
Constant	4.76**	.13		4.78**	.14		5.21**	.13		5.25**	.13	
<i>R</i>	.23			.23			.20			.19		
<i>R</i> ²	.05			.05			.04			.04		
ΔR^2 (interactions)	.00			.01			.00			.00		
<i>F</i>	2.21*			2.22*			1.61			1.48		

^a *N* = 368-373. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights.

* *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, [†] *p* < .10

Table 12: Study 1, Hypothesis 9, Regression Results for Flexibility × Acculturation Strategy Interaction^a

Variables	Hypothesis 9a (DV = Person-Organization Fit)			Hypothesis 9b (DV = Org. Attractiveness)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	.00	.04	.00	-.07	.04	-.10 [†]
Nationality (1 = foreign)	.02	.22	.00	-.19	.21	-.05
Sex (1 = female)	.30	.11	.14**	.21	.11	.10 [†]
Race (1 = minority)	.15	.13	.06	.00	.12	.00
Assimilation Strategy	-.10	.15	-.05	-.15	.14	-.07
Integration Strategy	-.27	.15	-.12 [†]	-.25	.14	-.12 [†]
Flexibility	.15	.15	.13	.11	.14	.10
Flexibility × Assim.	.09	.18	.05	.09	.17	.05
Flexibility × Integrat.	.14	.18	.07	.07	.17	.04
Constant	4.78**	.13		5.23**	.13	
<i>R</i>	.29			.24		
<i>R</i> ²	.09			.06		
ΔR^2 (interactions)	.00			.00		
<i>F</i>	3.70**			2.43*		

^a *N* = 368-373. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights.

* *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, † *p* < .10

perceptions and organizational attractiveness, so these hypotheses were not supported.

Table 13 contains the results from the test of Hypothesis 10, which predicted partial mediation of any significant interaction effects found in the previous hypotheses. Only racioethnicity was shown to significantly interact with signaled acculturation strategies to affect P-O fit perceptions, so this interaction and P-O fit perceptions were regressed onto organizational attractiveness. The racioethnicity × acculturation strategy interaction did not reach significance in this analysis, failing to support the hypothesized partial mediation relationship. The significance of P-O fit perceptions ($\beta = .54, p < .01$) may indicate full mediation, but this was not hypothesized and should be interpreted with caution. Hypothesis 10 was therefore not supported.

Table 13: Study 1, Hypothesis 10, Additional Regression Results for Test of Person-Organization Fit as a Mediator^a

Variables	DV = Organizational Attractiveness		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	-.08	.03	-.11*
Nationality (1 = foreign)	-.19	.18	-.05
Sex (1 = female)	.05	.09	.02
Race (1 = minority)	.01	.22	.00
Assimilation Strategy	-.05	.15	-.02
Integration Strategy	-.07	.15	-.03
Race \times Assimilation	-.11	.27	-.04
Race \times Integration	-.09	.28	-.03
Person-Organization Fit	.52	.04	.54**
Constant	2.71**	.25	
<i>R</i>	.56		
<i>R</i> ²	.31		
<i>F</i>	18.03**		

^a *N* = 370. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights. Following James, Mulaik, and Brett (2006), this test is only conducted for the race \times acculturation strategy interaction. Of the previous tests, only this variable had a significant effect on the mediator (person-organization fit perceptions).

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, † $p < .10$

Results of the tests of Hypotheses 11 through 13 are presented in Table 14. As predicted in Hypothesis 11, the signaling of diversity as any value resulted in a significant increase in group-based attributions (terminal value $\beta = .32, p < .01$; instrumental value $\beta = .38, p < .01$; and dual value $\beta = .33, p < .01$). Hypothesis 11 was therefore supported.

Counter to the relationship predicted in Hypothesis 12, a signaled instrumental value resulted in *lower* merit-based attributions ($\beta = -.25, p < .01$; also $\beta = -.13, p < .10$ for a signaled dual value) and perceptions of organizational attractiveness ($\beta = -.15, p < .01$). Thus, Hypotheses 12a and 12b were not supported. Although this relationship was opposite that hypothesized, I proceeded to test merit-based attributions as a partial

mediator (Hypothesis 13). The signaled instrumental value had no significant effect on organizational attractiveness when merit-based attributions were entered, and these attributions had a significant positive effect ($\beta = .34, p < .01$). Thus, while full mediation may be a *post hoc* interpretation of such results, Hypothesis 13, predicting partial mediation, was not supported.

Hypothesis 14 predicted three-way interactions among group attributions, demographic characteristics, and AA attitudes. Results are presented in Tables 15 and 16. While no three-way interactions were found, two of the tests resulted in a significant two-way interaction between group attributions and AA attitudes ($\beta = .14, p < .05$ in the test for racioethnicity, and $\beta = .15, p < .01$ in the test for sex). As shown in the “*Post Hoc 2-Way Analysis*” column of Table 16, the interaction remained significant when the other two-way interaction terms were removed from the analysis ($\beta = .16, p < .01$) and accounted for a significant two percent of the variance ($p < .01$). This interaction, though not hypothesized, is depicted in Figure 4. Nevertheless, Hypotheses 14a, 14b, and 14c, predicting three-way interactions, failed to receive support. Hypothesis 15 predicted similar three-way interactions involving individual beliefs about discrimination, rather than AA attitudes. As seen in the results presented in Tables 17 and 18, Hypotheses 15a and 15b failed to receive support.

Table 19 presents the results of tests of Hypotheses 16 through 19. These hypotheses predicted that achievement striving, PWE, past achievement (GPA), and CSE would interact with merit-based attributions to influence organizational attractiveness. However, none of these interactions were significant, and Hypotheses 16 through 19 therefore were not supported.

Table 14: Study 1, Hypotheses 11-13, Regression Results for Diversity Value Type Main and Mediated Effects^a

Variables	Hypothesis 11 (DV = Group-Based Attributions)			Hypothesis 12a (DV = Merit-Based Attributions)			Hypothesis 12b (DV = Org. Attractiveness)			Hypothesis 13 (DV = Org. Attractiveness)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	.02	.07	.01	.01	.03	.01	-.06	.04	-.08	-.06	.04	-.09 [†]
Nationality (1 = foreign)	-.96	.38	-.13*	.21	.18	.06	-.20	.21	-.05	-.28	.20	-.07
Sex (1 = female)	.08	.19	.02	.09	.09	.05	.22	.11	.11*	.19	.10	.09 [†]
Race (1 = minority)	-.06	.22	-.01	.33	.11	.16**	.06	.12	.03	-.06	.12	-.03
Terminal Value	1.37	.27	.32**	-.20	.14	-.10	.00	.16	.00	.08	.15	.03
Instrumental Value	1.54	.27	.38**	-.50	.13	-.25**	-.33	.15	-.15*	-.15	.15	-.07
Dual Value	1.44	.28	.33**	-.26	.14	-.13 [†]	-.22	.16	-.09	-.12	.15	-.05
Merit-Based Attributions	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	.38	.06	.34**
Constant	2.99**	.23		5.42**	.11		5.20**	.13		3.14**	.33	
<i>R</i>	.34			.27			.21			.39		
<i>R</i> ²	.12			.07			.05			.15		
<i>F</i>	6.92**			4.21**			2.45*			7.96**		

^a *N* = 374. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights.

* *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, † *p* < .10

Table 15: Study 1, Hypothesis 14a, Regression Results for Group-Based Attributions × Racioethnicity × Affirmative Action Attitudes Interaction on Organizational Attractiveness^a

Variables	Main Effects			2-Way Interactions			3-Way Interactions		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	-.06	.04	-.09 [†]	-.06	.04	-.08	-.06	.04	-.08 [†]
Nationality (1 = foreign)	-.36	.21	-.09 [†]	-.28	.22	-.07	-.30	.22	-.08
Sex (1 = female)	.20	.11	.10 [†]	.20	.11	.10 [†]	.19	.11	.09 [†]
Race (1 = minority)	-.04	.13	-.02	-.07	.13	-.03	-.07	.13	-.03
Grp. Attr.	-.12	.03	-.23**	-.13	.03	-.23**	-.12	.03	-.22**
AAA	.07	.03	.11*	.05	.04	.09	.05	.04	.09
Grp. Attr. × Race	—	—	—	.07	.07	.06	.09	.07	.08
Grp. Attr. × AAA	—	—	—	.05	.02	.14*	.06	.02	.17**
Race × AAA	—	—	—	.05	.08	.04	.04	.08	.04
Grp. Attr. × Race × AAA	—	—	—	—	—	—	-.05	.04	-.07
Constant	5.10**	.07		5.11**	.08		5.11**	.08	
<i>R</i>	.30			.34			.34		
<i>R</i> ²	.09			.12			.12		
ΔR^2 (interactions)				.03*			.00		
<i>F</i>	5.89**			5.24**			4.84**		

^a *N* = 368-373. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights, AAA = Affirmative Action Attitudes, Grp. Attr. = Group-Based Attributions.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, † $p < .10$

Table 16: Study 1, Hypothesis 14b, Regression Results for Group-Based Attributions × Sex × Affirmative Action Attitudes Interaction on Organizational Attractiveness^a

Variables	Main Effects			2-Way Interactions			3-Way Interactions			<i>Post Hoc</i> 2-Way Analysis		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	-.06	.04	-.09 [†]	-.06	.04	-.08	-.06	.04	-.08	-.06	.04	-.08
Nationality (1 = foreign)	-.36	.21	-.09 [†]	-.30	.21	-.08	-.31	.21	-.08	-.31	.21	-.08
Sex (1 = female)	.20	.11	.10 [†]	.20	.11	.10 [†]	.20	.11	.09 [†]	.19	.11	.09 [†]
Race (1 = minority)	-.04	.13	-.02	-.06	.13	-.02	-.06	.13	-.03	-.05	.12	-.02
Grp. Attr.	-.12	.03	-.23**	-.11	.04	-.21**	-.11	.04	-.20**	-.11	.03	-.20**
AAA	.07	.03	.11*	.08	.04	.14*	.08	.04	.14*	.07	.03	.11*
Grp. Attr. × Sex	—	—	—	.02	.06	.02	.02	.06	.02	—	—	—
Grp. Attr. × AAA	—	—	—	.05	.02	.15**	.05	.02	.16*	.05	.02	.16**
Sex × AAA	—	—	—	-.05	.07	-.05	-.05	.07	-.05	—	—	—
Grp. Attr. × Sex × AAA	—	—	—	—	—	—	-.02	.04	-.03	—	—	—
Constant	5.10**	.07		5.12**	.07		5.13**	.08		5.12**	.07	
<i>R</i>	.30			.34			.34			.33		
<i>R</i> ²	.09			.11			.11			.11		
ΔR^2 (interactions)				.03*			.00			.02**		
<i>F</i>	5.89**			5.16**			4.65**			6.54**		

^a *N* = 373. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights, AAA = Affirmative Action Attitudes, Grp. Attr. = Group-Based Attributions.

* *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, † *p* < .10

Table 17: Study 1, Hypothesis 15a, Regression Results for Group-Based Attributions × Racioethnicity × Discrimination Beliefs Interaction on Organizational Attractiveness^a

Variables	Main Effects			2-Way Interactions			3-Way Interactions		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	-.06	.04	-.09 [†]	-.06	.04	-.09 [†]	-.06	.04	-.09 [†]
Nationality (1 = foreign)	-.29	.21	-.07	-.20	.22	-.05	-.20	.22	-.05
Sex (1 = female)	.24	.11	.11*	.24	.11	.12*	.24	.11	.12*
Race (1 = minority)	.02	.13	.01	-.05	.14	-.02	-.05	.14	-.02
Grp. Attr.	-.13	.03	-.23**	-.15	.03	-.27**	-.14	.03	-.26**
DBR	.02	.05	.02	-.03	.05	-.04	-.03	.05	-.04
Grp. Attr. × Race	—	—	—	.11	.07	.09	.12	.08	.11
Grp. Attr. × DBR	—	—	—	.03	.02	.06	.03	.03	.08
Race × DBR	—	—	—	.15	.10	.10	.16	.10	.11
Grp. Attr. × Race × DBR	—	—	—	—	—	—	-.03	.06	-.04
Constant	5.06**	.07		5.05**	.07		5.05**	.07	
<i>R</i>	.28			.31			.31		
<i>R</i> ²	.08			.10			.10		
ΔR^2 (interactions)				.02 [†]			.00		
<i>F</i>	5.21**			4.39**			3.97**		

^a *N* = 373. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights, DBR = Discrimination Beliefs (regarding Racioethnicity), Grp. Attr. = Group-Based Attributions.

* *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, † *p* < .10

Table 18: Study 1, Hypothesis 15b, Regression Results for Group-Based Attributions \times Sex \times Discrimination Beliefs Interaction on Organizational Attractiveness^a

Variables	Main Effects			2-Way Interactions			3-Way Interactions		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	-.06	.04	-.08	-.06	.04	-.08	-.06	.04	-.08
Nationality (1 = foreign)	-.30	.21	-.08	-.29	.21	-.07	-.28	.21	-.07
Sex (1 = female)	.20	.11	.10 [†]	.21	.11	.10 [†]	.22	.11	.11*
Race (1 = minority)	-.02	.13	-.01	-.02	.13	-.01	-.02	.13	-.01
Grp. Attr.	-.13	.03	-.23**	-.14	.04	-.26**	-.15	.04	-.27**
DBS	.07	.05	.08	.07	.06	.08	.07	.06	.08
Grp. Attr. \times Sex	—	—	—	.05	.06	.06	.05	.06	.06
Grp. Attr. \times DBS	—	—	—	.04	.03	.08	.02	.03	.04
Sex \times DBS	—	—	—	-.01	.10	-.01	-.03	.10	-.02
Grp. Attr. \times Sex \times DBS	—	—	—	—	—	—	.05	.05	.06
Constant	5.09**	.07		5.08**	.08		5.08**	.08	
<i>R</i>	.29			.31			.31		
<i>R</i> ²	.08			.09			.10		
ΔR^2 (interactions)				.01			.00		
<i>F</i>	5.60**			4.19**			3.84**		

^a $N = 374$. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights, DBS = Discrimination Beliefs (regarding Sex), Grp. Attr. = Group-Based Attributions.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$

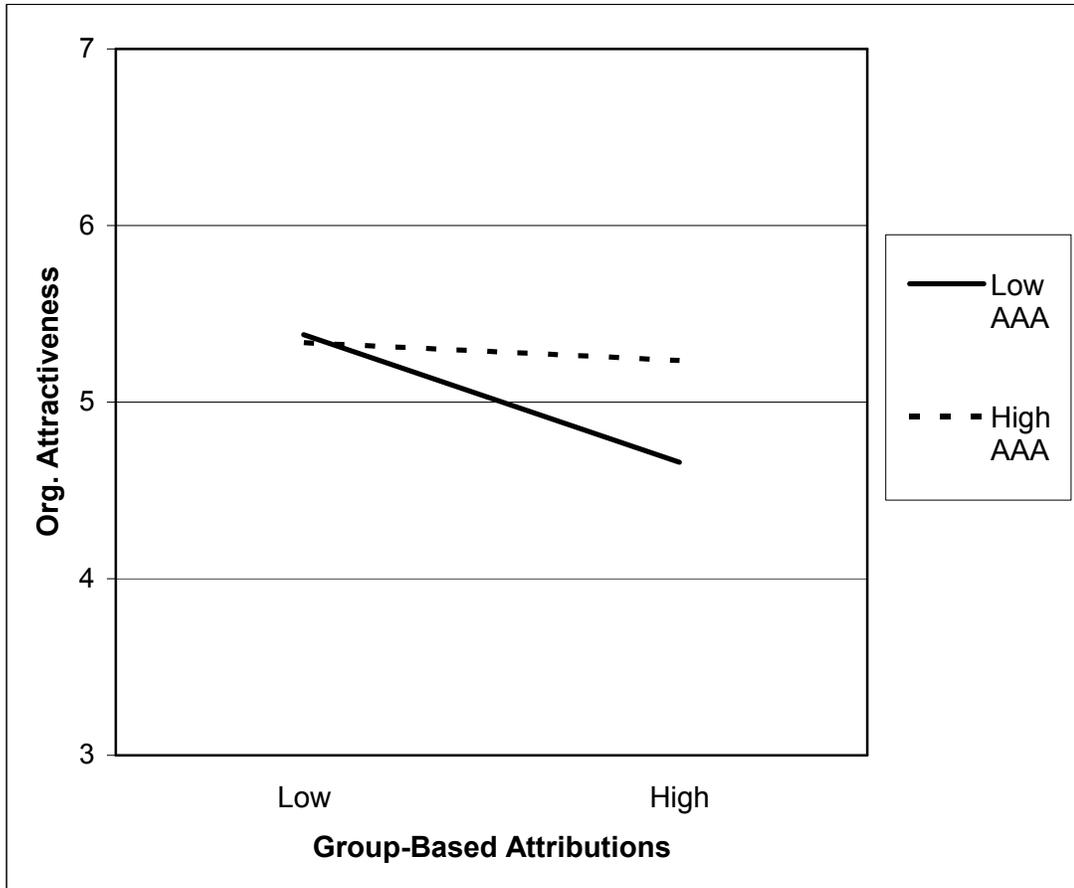


Figure 4: Study 1, Group-Based Attributions × Affirmative Action Attitudes Interaction

Table 19: Study 1, Hypotheses 16-19, Regression Results for Merit-Based Attributions × Individual Difference Interactions on Organizational Attractiveness^a

Variables	Hypothesis 16 (Ind. Diff. = Achievement Striving)			Hypothesis 17 (Ind. Diff. = Protestant Work Ethic)			Hypothesis 18 (Ind. Diff. = Grade Point Average)			Hypothesis 19 (Ind. Diff. = Core Self-Evaluations)		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Work Experience	-.07	.04	-.10*	-.07	.04	-.10 [†]	-.06	.04	-.08 [†]	-.07	.04	-.09 [†]
Nationality (1 = foreign)	-.26	.20	-.07	-.26	.20	-.07	-.26	.20	-.07	-.25	.20	-.06
Sex (1 = female)	.17	.10	.08 [†]	.20	.10	.09 [†]	.22	.10	.10*	.21	.10	.10*
Race (1 = minority)	-.07	.12	-.03	-.09	.12	-.04	-.08	.12	-.04	-.08	.12	-.03
Merit-Based Attributions	.38	.06	.34**	.38	.06	.34**	.40	.06	.35**	.40	.06	.35**
Individual Difference	.06	.06	.05	.06	.05	.06	-.04	.10	-.02	.04	.07	.03
Merit Attrib. × Ind. Diff.	-.03	.06	-.03	-.08	.06	-.07	.11	.11	.05	.08	.07	.06
Constant	5.12**	.07		5.12**	.07		5.08**	.07		5.09**	.07	
<i>R</i>	.38			.39			.38			.38		
<i>R</i> ²	.14			.15			.14			.15		
ΔR^2 (interaction)	.00			.01			.00			.00		
<i>F</i>	8.64**			9.12**			8.57**			8.86**		

^a *N* = 368-374. *B* = raw score (unstandardized) weights of centered variables, β = standardized weights.

* *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, [†] *p* < .10

Discussion of Findings

In testing for effects of signaled acculturation strategies on organizational perceptions, there was no support for the hypothesized positive effect of an integration strategy, nor was there support for the hypothesized negative effect of an assimilation strategy. It is possible that the presentation of only one stimulus to participants in study 1 did not allow them to create a sufficient frame of reference by which to evaluate the acculturation strategy presented to them. While the manipulation checks showed that the participants were generally aware of the manipulation, they did not seem to evaluate the organization on this dimension. Research suggests that job-related factors are the most important predictors of job choice (Rynes & Barber, 1990). A lack of findings in study 1 may indicate that participants based their evaluations on the introductory statements, which were the same across conditions. This is particularly likely under the harsh economic conditions present at the time of the study. For instance, the mean organizational attractiveness rating in study 1 was 5.14 ($SD = 1.01$), while Martins and Parsons (2007) reported a mean of 4.60 ($SD = 1.28$). Participants in study 1 thus reported significantly higher levels of organizational attractiveness ($t = 5.71, p < .01$) than the participants in Martins and Parsons's (2007) pre-economic crisis study, conducted when jobs were more plentiful and potential applicants could afford to be more selective.

The tests of moderation provided further insight into individuals' reactions to acculturation strategy signals. This study showed some support for the hypothesized effect in which traditionally underrepresented individuals would exhibit stronger effects for the reactions to DM signals predicted in the first hypothesis. Racioethnic minorities exhibited positive reactions to both acculturation strategies, while Whites exhibited

negative reactions. However, no effect was found for sex or nationality. It is possible that sex and nationality were not salient in this study as sources of deeper cultural differences.

Study 1 failed to find support for hypotheses predicting the role of P-O fit perceptions as a partial mediator. This may indicate its function as a full mediator, though other potential explanations exist, as will be discussed in the final chapter.

The failure to find any significant interactive effects for neuroticism, extraversion, openness (to actions or values), or flexibility may be attributed again to study 1 participants' potential tendency to evaluate organizations based on factors other than the signaled acculturation strategy. However, another possible reason for the failure to support these hypothesized effects may be the potential problems with self-report measures of personality in general (Block, 1995; James & Mazerolle, 2002; Morgeson, Campion, Hollenbeck, Murphy, & Schmitt, 2007). These measures and their associated constructs have been criticized for their lack of rigorous underlying theory (Block, 1995), failure to tap into potentially more predictive implicit processes (James & Mazerolle, 2002), and generally weak relationships with various outcomes of interest (Morgeson et al., 2007). Future research may therefore benefit from incorporating alternative methods of personality measurement, such as the implicit association test (IAT; Greenwald, 1998) or the conditional reasoning test (CRT; James, 1998).

Participants presented with recruitment announcements signaling diversity as a terminal, instrumental, or dual value tended to make more hiring decision attributions based on group membership. This was consistent with the hypothesized relationship. However, this study revealed that diversity signaled as an instrumental value negatively impacted the degree to which participants made merit-based attributions to hiring

decisions. This was an effect opposite of that hypothesized. It is possible that individuals are skeptical of organizations making statements of diversity as an instrumental value, doubting the degree to which the organization actually values merit among employees. Further, study 1 failed to support merit-based attributions as a partial mediator between the relationship between signaled value types and perceptions of organizational attractiveness. It may be the case that other mediating mechanisms are at work here, or that the relationship is more complex, requiring the examination of other moderators.

I expected group attributions and demographic characteristics to interact with AA attitudes and discrimination beliefs. However, study 1 did not support such an interaction. Unexpectedly, discrimination beliefs did not seem to impact perceptions of organizational attractiveness, and AA attitudes were not involved in a significant three-way interaction. *Post hoc* examination of the hierarchical regression results, however, suggested that a two-way interaction effect did exist between group attributions and AA attitudes. As depicted in Figure 4, individuals with more positive AA attitudes seemed to view organizations more negatively if they viewed group characteristics as a stronger factor in hiring decisions. However, AA attitudes seemed to have less of an impact when there were fewer group-based attributions. This is a somewhat intuitive relationship, but based on stigma research (Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Heilman et al., 1992) and other tests of the effects of DM signals on organizational attractiveness (Martins & Parsons, 2007), I expected women and racioethnic minorities to have more extreme reactions than men and Whites, respectively. Drawing on a previous argument, perhaps various demographic groups converge in their evaluations of organizational attractiveness under harsh economic conditions.

The personality variables of achievement striving, PWE, and CSE used in this study may be criticized as having the same shortcomings of the other self-report measures of personality discussed previously. However, this would not account for the study's non-significant findings for the effect of past achievement, or GPA, on this relationship. While this was also a self-report measure, it is arguably more objective than self-reported measures of personality. It is possible that because the sample was drawn from prestigious institutions, restriction of range on achievement-related variables may have posed a problem for these statistical tests.

Study 2, to be described in the next chapter, tests many of these hypotheses using a within-subject policy capturing design. The final chapter then presents a more general discussion of the results, contributions, and implications.

CHAPTER 6: STUDY 2

Methodology

Design and Procedure

Because job-seekers are usually considering a number of organizations at any given time, scholars have suggested that a within-subject design would be a more realistic test of potential applicants' perceptions of organizations (e.g., Martins & Parsons, 2007; Smith et al., 2004). Study 2 therefore followed a within-subject experimental design to serve as a further test of many hypotheses examined in study 1, as well as to gain a deeper understanding of the mechanisms at work. Specifically, policy-capturing (Zedeck, 1977) was used to test Hypotheses 1 through 5, 10 through 14, and 18. Thus, this study's focus was placed more on the diversity management manipulations and more objective individual differences (i.e., reports of demographic characteristics and past achievement), and less focus was placed on self-reports of personality and beliefs. This study required participants to read 31 recruitment announcements that cross the diversity value (instrumental, terminal, or both) dimension with the acculturation strategy (assimilation or integration) dimension. Participants read each announcement and responded to questions about P-O fit, organizational attractiveness, and attributions about hiring decisions. This study took place in a laboratory, since such a setting made it easier to provide participants with simultaneous access to multiple recruitment announcements. Because of the reduced possibility of common method bias between independent and dependent variables and the increased cognitive demands and time requirement of this study, only one phase was necessary and possible.

Sample and Data Collection

Participants were recruited from human resource management courses, as described in the first participant recruiting method for study 1. Participants were therefore representative of a population of organizational interest—students in upper-level management classes who will be searching for jobs in the near future. Ninety-four individuals participated in this study. An examination of within-subject agreement across duplicate stimuli (explained below) revealed seven participants (7.4%) who seemed to provide unreliable responses. This may have been due to fatigue, a lack of attention, etc. These seven participants were eliminated for analyses, resulting in a final sample of 87 participants. Twenty-one observations were possible for each participant, but because some participants skipped pages or failed to respond to certain items, 2,340 of a possible 2,349 (99.6%) observations were obtained. The final sample was composed of 29.9% minorities (6.9% Black or Hispanic), 40.2% females, and 6.9% foreign citizens. The average age was 20.96 years ($SD = 2.40$), and average full-time work experience was 1.33 years ($SD = 2.86$).

Experimental Manipulations

Experimental manipulations were constructed from the qualitative data obtained from study 1. However given that this study required participants to read multiple statements, the manipulations were constructed to be much more concise. Further, following the recommendations of Aiman-Smith, Scullen, and Barr (2002), the levels of the two dimensions were fully crossed. The two acculturation strategies (assimilation and integration) were therefore paired with not only one of the three value types (terminal, instrumental, or dual), but also with the absence of a value. Similarly, all three value

types were paired with an acculturation strategy, as well as the absence of an acculturation strategy. Thus, while study 1 involved seven experimental conditions, this study involved twelve.

Aiman-Smith and colleagues (2002) recommended inclusion of at least ten scenarios per variable in designs using two or three levels of each variable, considering various factors including boredom, fatigue, and power. In this study of two dimensions, such a recommendation implies the use of at least twenty recruitment announcements. However, given that hierarchical linear modeling (HLM; Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992) was the method of data analysis for this study (discussed below), estimates of within-subject slopes are likely to be more stable at 30 observations per participant (Hoffman, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000), suggesting the need to construct 30 recruitment announcements. Following the procedure outlined in the previous chapter, I constructed three diversity statements per cell (33 statements, as the 3 stimuli for the control condition did not require diversity statements). Because participant fatigue was therefore likely to be of concern, it was important to create statements that were more concise than those used for study 1, as mentioned previously.

In addition, to enhance the realism of this activity, it was important to make each recruitment announcement appear to be from a different organization. In order to achieve this appearance, I constructed 36 different introductory statements to frame the stimuli as recruitment announcements from different organizations. For each subject, the introductory statements were randomly assigned to the diversity statements so that any findings could not be attributed to the introductions. Nonetheless, in order to minimize any variance in the dependent variable due to different reactions to the various

introductory statements, four individuals rated these statements (without the diversity verbiage) on organizational attractiveness. Statements that tended to evoke particularly high or low perceptions of organizational attractiveness were altered according to discussions with the raters in order to make them more neutral.

Further, prior to conducting study 2, I pilot tested the stimuli in order to understand whether subject fatigue would be an issue and whether the stimuli were manipulating the intended constructs (i.e., the DM approach dimensions). This pilot study drew a preliminary and separate sample of 31 individuals from the subject pool described above. Thus, this was an independent sample from the same population that the actual study would use. Eleven of these participants read each of the 36 recruitment announcements and, for each, responded to the eight manipulation check items used in study 1. The remaining twenty participants read the 36 announcements and responded to the items to be used in the actual study.

Following Aiman-Smith and colleagues' (2002) recommendation, the first four statements were duplicated at equal intervals in the exercise, resulting in the presentation of 40 total stimuli. The first statement was duplicated in the tenth, the second duplicated in the twentieth, the third duplicated in the thirtieth, and the fourth duplicated in the fortieth. This served two purposes. First, this allowed me to compute within-subject reliability, in the form of an r_{WG} score (James et al., 1984), at four points in the exercise for each participant. The order of the stimuli, as well as which stimuli were duplicated, was random for each participant. A declining reliability would indicate potential fatigue. Second, the duplicates at the beginning allowed the participants to get used to the exercise and develop a policy for their evaluations of the announcements. After

computing within-subject reliability scores, the first four observations were discarded for further analyses.

Relatively stable reliability scores across the pilot sample indicated that fatigue was not a factor. As another diagnostic, I examined each stimulus across subjects in terms of its scores on the manipulation checks. Additionally, by treating same-cell stimuli as multiple indicators of a particular DM approach, I was able to compute Cronbach alphas. After deleting nine stimuli which had problematic manipulation check scores and/or detrimental effects on alphas, 27 stimuli remained, and each cell contained at least two stimuli. The actual study also presented participants with four duplicate announcements. Also consistent with the pilot study, the order of the stimuli, the duplicated stimuli, and the pairing of the diversity statements with introductory statements were all random for each participant. The final set of introductory statements and DM stimuli are presented in Appendix D.

Measures

In order to further reduce the potential for subject fatigue, dependent and mediating variables were measured with selected items from study 1. The items chosen were those with the highest factor loadings from study 1, including three organizational attractiveness items, three P-O fit perception items, two group-based attribution items, and two merit-based attribution items. At the end of the study, participants were also given a questionnaire to report on the demographic variables, past achievement (GPA), and AA attitudes, as described for study 1. Items used in study 2 are presented in Appendix E.

Data Analysis

OLS regression entails the assumption that observations are independent (Cohen et al., 2003), which makes it inappropriate for the within-subject tests of moderation required for this study. However, hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) is well-equipped to deal with the nested nature of the data (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992). Level one data were collected at the level of the within-subject stimuli and included the independent variables of the DM approach manipulations (acculturation strategy and diversity value type, each represented with two dummy variables). Level two data were collected at the individual level and included racioethnicity, sex, nationality, AA attitudes, and past achievement (GPA). All dependent and mediating variables were collected at the lowest level, as required by the technique (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992). Work experience was initially included as a control variable in the analyses, but it did not have a significant effect and was eliminated for final analyses to enhance the stability of the results. Additionally, as with study 1, I ran analyses using a dichotomous variable for Black/Hispanic participants, rather than for the broader category of minorities. However, because the direction and magnitude of effects did not seem to vary, results are reported for the broader category only.

Results

As previously mentioned, study 2 provided tests of all hypotheses except for Hypotheses 6, 7, 8, 9, 15, 16, 17, and 19. Means, standard deviations, and correlations for study 2 are presented in Tables 20 (level 1, within-subject) and 21 (level 2, between subject). Table 22 contains the results of HLM tests of Hypotheses 1 and 2. Both acculturation strategies were significantly positively related to perceptions of P-O fit (unstandardized assimilation estimate = .36, $p < .01$; integration estimate = .47, $p < .01$)

Table 20: Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Level 1^a

Variable ^b	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Assimilation Strategy	.30	.50	—							
2. Integration Strategy	.34	.47	-.46**	—						
3. Terminal Value	.48	.50	.02	-.05*	—					
4. Instrumental Value	.48	.50	.02	.11**	-.04 [†]	—				
5. Person-Organization Fit	4.38	1.28	.05*	.11**	.00	.12**	(.98)			
6. Merit-Based Attributions	3.91	1.32	.03	.02	-.03	.06**	.51**	(.94)		
7. Group-Based Attributions	4.12	1.86	.07**	.10**	.11**	.16**	-.02	-.10**	(.99)	
8. Organizational Attractiveness	4.70	1.40	.06**	.07**	.00	.10**	.74**	.63**	-.07**	(.97)

^a $N = 2340$

^b Coefficient alphas appear in parentheses on the diagonal for variables composed of multi-item scales.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$

Table 21: Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Level 2^a

Variable ^b	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Work Experience (Years)	1.29	2.90	—						
2. Race (1 = Minority)	.30	.46	-.06	—					
3. Race (1 = Black/Hispanic)	.07	.26	.02	.42**	—				
4. Sex (1 = Female)	.40	.49	-.15	-.08	-.04	—			
5. Nationality (1 = Foreign Citizen)	.07	.25	-.08	.32**	-.07	.05	—		
6. Grade Point Average (GPA)	3.03	.56	.15	-.07	-.09	.11	.21*	—	
7. Affirmative Action Attitudes	3.68	1.33	-.10	.36**	.21 [†]	.10	.18	-.01	(.89)

^a $N = 87$

^b Coefficient alphas appear in parentheses on the diagonal for variables composed of multi-item scales.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$

Table 22: Study 2, Hypotheses 1 & 2, HLM Results for Acculturation Strategy Main and Mediated Effects^a

Variables	Hypothesis 1a (DV = Person-Organization Fit)			Hypothesis 1b (DV = Org. Attractiveness)			Hypothesis 2 (DV = Org. Attractiveness)		
	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>
Nationality (1 = foreign)	.09	.34	.25	.39	.39	0.98	.28	.21	1.33
Sex (1 = female)	-.29	.17	-1.74 [†]	-.24	.20	-1.23	-.11	.11	-1.01
Race (1 = minority)	.28	.19	1.15	.33	.22	1.53	-.08	.12	-.71
Assimilation Strategy	.36	.07	5.07**	.35	.08	4.47**	.05	.05	1.18
Integration Strategy	.47	.07	6.55**	.38	.07	5.06**	.01	.04	.25
Person-Organization Fit	—	—	—	—	—	—	.77	.03	25.14**
Intercept	4.12	.12	33.67**	4.42	.15	30.17**	1.40	.19	7.28**
Variance Components									
Intercept	.52			.83			2.51		
Assimilation Slope	.22			.29			.07		
Integration Slope	.24			.24			.04		
P-O Fit Slope	—			—			.06		
Level 1 (σ^2)	1.00			1.12			.47		
Proportion of Level 1									
Variance Explained over									
Demographics-Only									
Model	.10			.08			.61		

^a $N = 87$ individuals, 2340 observations.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$

and organizational attractiveness (assimilation estimate = .35, $p < .01$; integration estimate = .38, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 1 predicted such a relationship for a signaled integration strategy, but predicted a negative relationship for a signaled assimilation strategy. Thus, Hypotheses 1a and 1b received partial support. Hypothesis 2, predicting partial mediation, was not supported. While P-O fit perceptions carried a significant positive influence on organizational attractiveness (.77, $p < .01$), the acculturation strategy effects disappeared when this was included in the equation. This potentially suggests an unhypothesized full mediation effect.

Hypotheses 3 through 5 predicted interactive effects involving individuals' demographic characteristics. These results are presented in Tables 23 through 25. Racioethnicity was not involved in any significant interactions. However, a significant sex \times acculturation strategy interaction was found on both P-O fit (sex \times assimilation estimate = .24, $p < .10$; sex \times integration estimate = .42, $p < .01$) and organizational attractiveness (sex \times assimilation estimate = .36, $p < .05$; sex \times integration estimate = .38, $p < .05$). The relationship for organizational attractiveness is illustrated in Figure 5 (the relationship for P-O fit was nearly identical, so it is not illustrated separately). The results failed to indicate support for a nationality \times acculturation strategy interaction on organizational attractiveness. In sum, Hypotheses 4a and 4b were supported, while Hypotheses 3a, 3b, 5a, and 5b were not. Table 26 presents results of the additional partial mediation analysis. Results provided support for Hypothesis 10, regarding partial mediation of the sex \times assimilation strategy interaction (.19, $p < .05$) by P-O fit perceptions (.76, $p < .01$). A Sobel (1982) test of the indirect effect marginally (i.e., $p < .10$) supported this hypothesis, but the more sophisticated procedure outlined by Bauer,

Preacher, and Gil (2006) for tests of mediation at level 1 in multilevel data revealed that the indirect effect was significant at the $p < .05$ level. This further supported the hypothesized partial mediation relationship.

Table 23: Study 2, Hypotheses 3, HLM Results for Racioethnicity \times Acculturation Strategy Interaction^a

Variables	Hypothesis 3a (DV = Person-Organization Fit)			Hypothesis 3b (DV = Org. Attractiveness)		
	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>
Nationality (1 = foreign)	.09	.34	.25	.39	.39	.98
Sex (1 = female)	-.29	.17	-1.74 [†]	-.24	.19	-1.23
Race (1 = minority)	.24	.20	1.21	.27	.24	1.14
Assimilation Strategy	.33	.09	3.81**	.32	.09	3.37**
Integration Strategy	.43	.09	5.00**	.35	.09	3.90**
Race \times Assimilation	.12	.16	.77	.11	.17	.64
Race \times Integration	.13	.16	0.84	.09	.16	.56
Intercept	4.14	.12	33.50**	4.44	.15	29.70**
Variance Components						
Intercept	.52			.83		
Assimilation Slope	.22			.30		
Integration Slope	.24			.25		
Level 1 (σ^2)	1.00			1.12		
Proportion of Level 2 Variance Explained over Main Effects Model						
Assimilation Slope	.00			.00		
Integration Slope	.00			.00		

^a $N = 87$ individuals, 2340 observations.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$

Table 24: Study 2, Hypothesis 4, HLM Results for
Sex × Acculturation Strategy Interaction^a

Variables	Hypothesis 4a (DV = Person-Organization Fit)			Hypothesis 4b (DV = Org. Attractiveness)		
	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>
Nationality (1 = foreign)	.09	.34	.25	.39	.39	.98
Sex (1 = female)	-.42	.17	-2.41*	-.47	.21	-2.21*
Race (1 = minority)	.28	.19	1.51	.33	.22	1.53
Assimilation Strategy	.27	.09	2.93**	.21	.10	2.13*
Integration Strategy	.24	.09	3.47**	.23	.09	2.45*
Sex × Assimilation	.24	.14	1.68 [†]	.36	.16	2.27*
Sex × Integration	.42	.14	2.97**	.38	.15	2.57*
Intercept	4.17	.12	33.74**	4.51	.15	33.61**
Variance Components						
Intercept	.52			.82		
Assimilation Slope	.21			.27		
Integration Slope	.20			.21		
Level 1 (σ^2)	1.00			1.12		
Proportion of Level 2 Variance Explained over Main Effects Model						
Assimilation Slope	.05*			.07**		
Integration Slope	.13**			.13**		

^a $N = 87$ individuals, 2340 observations.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$

Table 25: Study 2, Hypothesis 5, HLM Results for Nationality \times Acculturation Strategy Interaction^a

Variables	Hypothesis 5a (DV = Person-Organization Fit)			Hypothesis 5b (DV = Org. Attractiveness)		
	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>
Nationality (1 = foreign)	-.01	.35	-.03	.12	.43	.29
Sex (1 = female)	-.29	.17	-1.74 [†]	-.24	.20	-1.23
Race (1 = minority)	.28	.19	1.51	.33	.22	1.53
Assimilation Strategy	.35	.07	4.71**	.33	.08	4.05**
Integration Strategy	.45	.07	6.04**	.35	.08	4.50**
Nationality \times Assim.	.17	.28	.62	.31	.31	1.00
Nationality \times Integrat.	.31	.28	1.10	.46	.29	1.58
Intercept	4.13	.12	33.68**	4.44	.15	30.21**
Variance Components						
Intercept	.52			.83		
Assimilation Slope	.22			.29		
Integration Slope	.24			.23		
Level 1 (σ^2)	1.00			1.12		
Proportion of Level 2 Variance Explained over Main Effects Model						
Assimilation Slope	.00			.00		
Integration Slope	.00			.04*		

^a $N = 87$ individuals, 2340 observations.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$

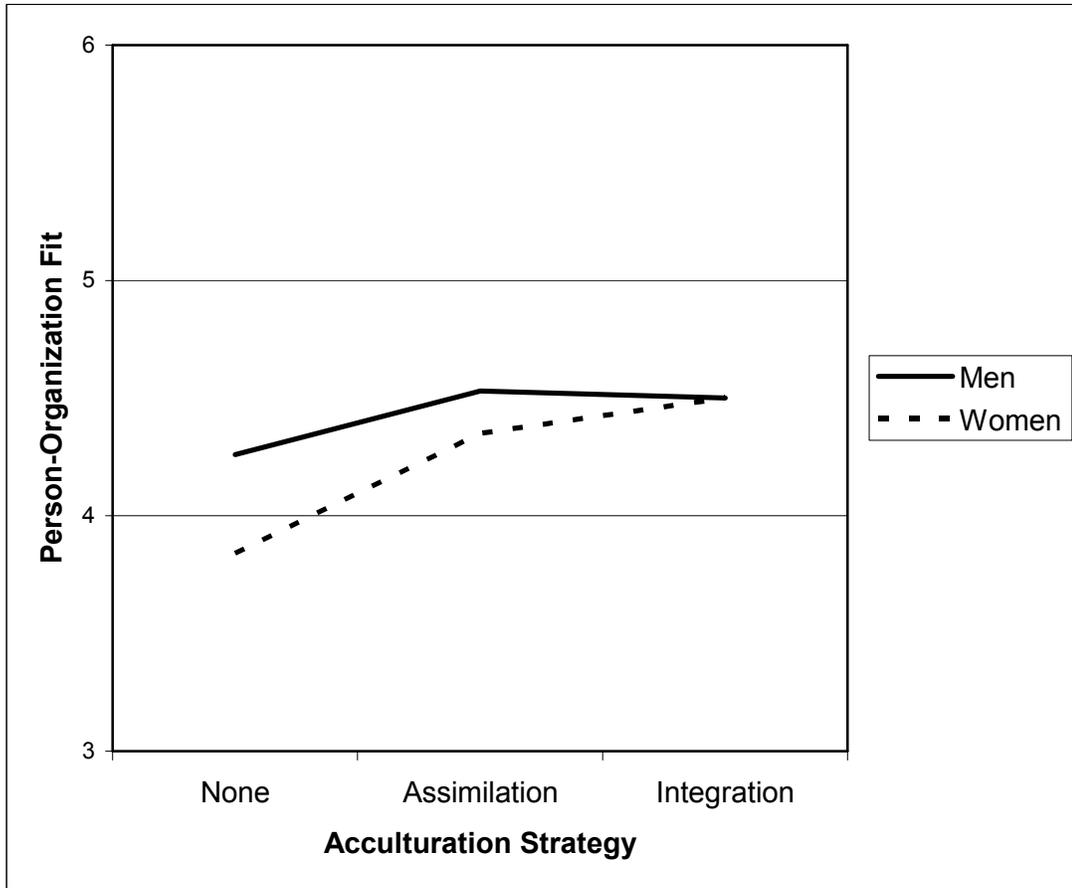


Figure 5: Study 2, Acculturation Strategy \times Sex Interaction
The interaction on organizational attractiveness was very similar, so it is not illustrated.

Table 26: Study 2, Hypothesis 10, Additional HLM Results for Test of Person-Organization Fit as a Mediator^a

Variables	DV = Org. Attractiveness		
	Estimate	SE	t
Nationality (1 = foreign)	.29	.21	1.34
Sex (1 = female)	-.19	.12	-1.68 [†]
Race (1 = minority)	-.08	.12	-.71
Assimilation Strategy	-.02	.06	-.33
Integration Strategy	-.02	.05	-.38
Sex × Assimilation	.19	.09	2.04*
Sex × Integration	.08	.08	.91
Person-Organization Fit	.76	.03	25.07**
Intercept	1.43	.19	7.42**
Variance Components			
Intercept	2.52		
Assimilation Slope	.07		
Integration Slope	.04		
Level 1 (σ^2)	.47		
Proportion of Level 2 Variance			
Explained over Main Effects			
Mediation Model			
Assimilation Slope	.07**		
Integration Slope	.00		

^a $N = 87$ individuals, 2340 observations. Following James, Mulaik, and Brett (2006), this test is only conducted for the sex × acculturation strategy interaction. Of the previous tests, only this variable had a significant effect on the mediator (person-organization fit perceptions).

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, † $p < .10$

Table 27 presents results for the tests of Hypotheses 11 through 13. Signaled terminal and instrumental values (whether mentioned alone or together) were positively related to group-based attributions (terminal value estimate = .42, $p < .01$; instrumental value estimate = .57, $p < .01$). Signaled instrumental values were also positively related to merit-based attributions (.14, $p < .01$) and organizational attractiveness (.29, $p < .01$). Further, a test for partial mediation resulted in significant estimates for both a signaled instrumental value (.19, $p < .01$) and merit-based attributions (.62, $p < .01$). Applying both the Sobel (1982) test and Bauer et al.'s test (2006) showed that the indirect effect

was significant at the $p < .05$ level, further supporting the hypothesized partial mediation relationship. Thus, Hypotheses 11, 12a, 12b, and 13 were all supported.

Hypothesis 14 predicted three-way interactions involving group-based attributions, demographic characteristics, and AA attitudes. Results are presented in Table 28. While no such relationship was demonstrated for racioethnicity, a significant three-way interaction did exist for sex ($-.15, p < .05$). However, as illustrated in Figure 6, the nature of this interaction was not consistent with the hypothesis. Thus, Hypothesis 14 was not supported.

Finally, results of the test of Hypothesis 18 are presented in Table 29. This test did not find any significant interaction between merit-based attributions and GPA, thus failing to support Hypothesis 18.

Table 27: Study 2, Hypotheses 11-13, HLM Results for Diversity Value Type Main and Mediated Effects^a

Variables	Hypothesis 11 (DV = Group-Based Attributions)			Hypothesis 12a (DV = Merit-Based Attributions)			Hypothesis 12b (DV = Org. Attractiveness)			Hypothesis 13 (DV = Org. Attractiveness)		
	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>
Nationality (1 = foreign)	.38	.43	.90	-.10	.37	-.28	.36	.39	.91	.16	.28	.57
Sex (1 = female)	-.23	.21	-1.07	.02	.13	.12	-.29	.19	-1.50	-.30	.14	-2.17*
Race (1 = minority)	-.43	.24	-1.80 [†]	.13	.21	.62	.35	.22	1.60	.26	.16	1.67 [†]
Terminal Value	.42	.07	5.87**	-.07	.05	-1.38	.02	.06	.28	.06	.04	1.41
Instrumental Value	.57	.08	6.95**	.14	.05	2.73**	.29	.05	5.29**	.19	.04	4.88**
Merit-Based Attributions	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	.62	.03	19.78**
Intercept	3.80	.16	24.51**	4.86	.13	36.26**	4.52	.15	31.13**	1.58	.20	7.71**
Variance Components												
Intercept				.63			.80			2.24		
Terminal Slope				.19			.19			.06		
Instrumental Slope				.09			.09			.02		
Merit Attrib. Slope				—			—			.05		
Level 1 (σ^2)	1.68			1.03			1.13			.70		
Proportion of Level 1												
Variance Explained over Demographics- Only Model	.13			.05			.07			.42		

N = 87 individuals, 2340 observations.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$

Table 28: Study 2, Hypothesis 14, HLM Results for
Group-Based Attributions × Demographics × Affirmative Action Attitudes
Interaction on Organizational Attractiveness^a

Variables	Hypothesis 14a (Demographic = Race)			Hypothesis 14b (Demographic = Sex)		
	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>
Sex (1 = female)	-.14	.19	-.75	-.47	.25	-1.26
Race (1 = minority)	.12	.46	.27	.20	.22	.91
AAA	-.31	.17	-1.83 [†]	-.30	.17	-1.76 [†]
Demo. × AAA	.61	.34	1.77 [†]	.53	.29	1.84 [†]
Grp. Attr.	-.02	.05	-.49	-.06	.05	-1.31
Grp. Attr. × Demo.	-.04	.10	-.44	.09	.08	1.11
Grp. Attr. × AAA	.06	.04	1.71 [†]	.10	.04	2.88*
Grp. Attr. × Demo. × AAA	-.02	.08	-.29	-.15	.06	-2.70*
Intercept	4.64	.24	19.37**	4.85	.25	19.39**
Variance Components						
Intercept	2.44			2.42		
Grp. Attr. Slope	.11			.10		
Level 1 (σ^2)	1.00			1.00		
Proportion of Level 2 Variance						
Explained over Main Effects						
Intercept (from Demo. × AAA)	.03*			.04**		
Grp. Attr. Slope	.00			.11**		
Proportion of Level 2 Variance						
Explained over 2-Way Effects						
Grp. Attr. Slope	.00			.09**		

N = 87 individuals, 2340 observations. AAA = Affirmative Action Attitudes, Grp. Attr. = Group-Based Attributions.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$

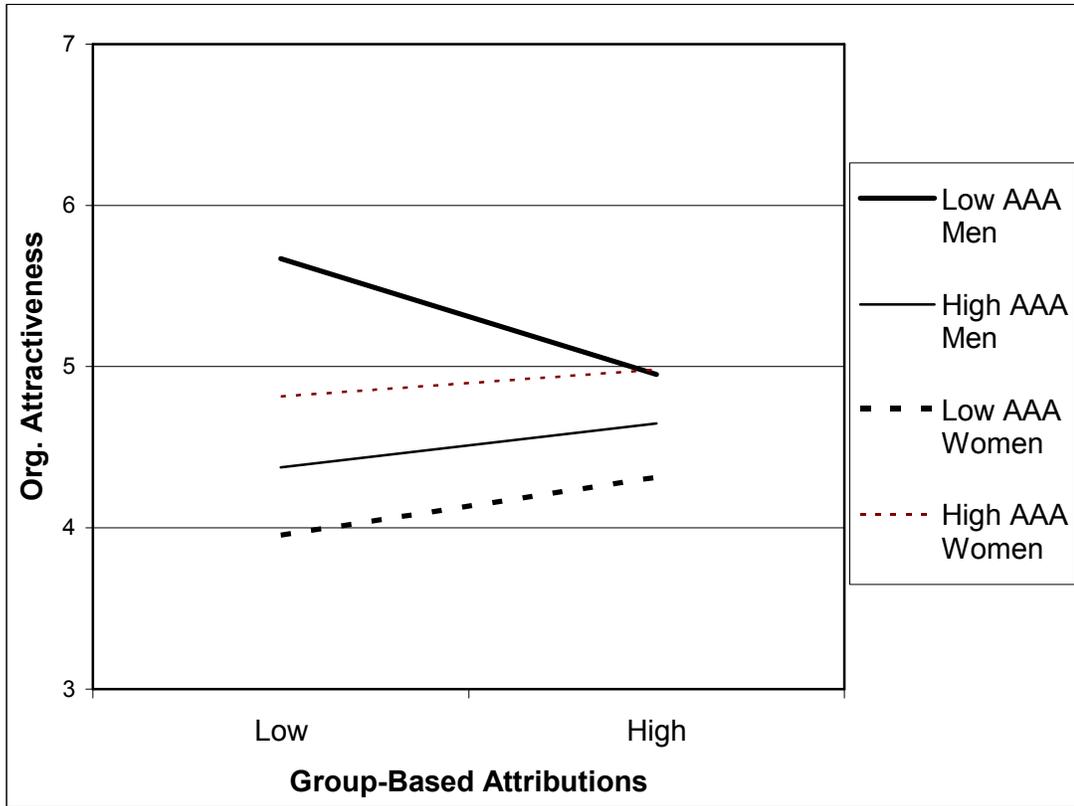


Figure 6: Study 2, Group-Based Attributions \times Sex \times Affirmative Action Attitudes Interaction

Table 29: Study 2, Hypothesis 18, HLM Results for Merit-Based Attributions × Past Achievement Interaction on Organizational Attractiveness^a

Variables	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>
Sex (1 = female)	-.25	.14	-1.75 [†]
Race (1 = minority)	.33	.15	2.16*
Grade Point Average (GPA)	-.12	.35	-.35
Merit-Based Attributions	.63	.03	19.75**
Merit Attrib. × GPA	.03	.06	.55
Intercept	1.63	.21	7.77**
Variance Components			
Intercept	2.42		
Merit Attrib. Slope	.05		
Level 1 (σ^2)	.70		
Proportion of Level 2 Variance Explained over Main Effects			
Merit Attrib. Slope	.00		

^a $N = 87$ individuals, 2340 observations.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$

Discussion of Findings

The first hypotheses tested involved the effects of signaled acculturation strategies on potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness. Contrary to the findings of study 1, study 2 found that both assimilation and integration were positively related to organizational perceptions. The presentation of multiple announcements may have allowed participants to incorporate DM-related factors into their evaluation process, particularly when they noticed that the job-related factors remained fairly constant across stimuli. This resulted in a distribution of organizational attractiveness scores (mean = 4.70; $SD = 1.40$) more similar to that reported in Martins and Parsons (2007) than was found in study 1. The objective of this dissertation was not to attempt to diminish the importance of job-related factors in recruitment, but rather to understand the impact of DM signals when those other factors were held relatively constant. The within-subject

design of study 2 may have been more effective in achieving this goal.

While study 2's finding of a positive effect for assimilation was unexpected, it may be explained continuing the logic from above. It is possible that once job-related factors are held constant, individuals see merit in the incorporation of traditionally underrepresented individuals, regardless of the mode by which it occurs. In other words, when comparing job openings that are otherwise very similar, any explicit attempt to incorporate traditionally underrepresented individuals is appreciated more than the alternative (i.e., no explicit attempt to do so).

In order to better understand participants' reactions to these stimuli, I asked nineteen individuals to read through all of the recruitment announcements and answer a few open-ended questions about their thoughts and feelings. This follow-up study revealed that, while some individuals may react in accordance with the hypothesized relationship, some individuals appreciated the assimilation strategy in addition to the integration strategy. For example, consistent with the hypothesized relationship, an Asian female participant noted her preference for the mention of "differences [that] bind us together" (integration), and her negative reactions to statements mentioning "similarities [that] bind us together" (assimilation). On the other hand, a White male participant commented that emphasis on both incorporating individuals "from all walks of life" (integration) and "working for [the] same goal" (assimilation) were particularly attractive. In hindsight, an emphasis on working toward the same goal may not carry the strongest assimilation signal and is not incompatible with an integration strategy. Thus, this unhypothesized positive effect for assimilation may also be attributable to the *degree* of assimilation signaled. Future research may frame these acculturation strategies in terms

of a continuum and investigate these effects at varying levels.

As to the tests of demographic characteristics as moderators of the main effects above, study 2 showed that women exhibited a stronger positive effect than men. Study 1 found a moderating effect for racioethnicity, but not for sex. Perhaps the presentation of multiple stimuli made this effect more salient along gender lines, and perhaps this study's smaller sample failed to achieve the power necessary to detect effects for racioethnicity. Consistent with the results of study 1, the results of this study did not support hypotheses predicting the role of P-O fit perceptions as a partial mediator of the effect of signaled acculturation strategy on organizational attractiveness perceptions, except for the assimilation \times sex interaction effect. The implications of such results will be discussed in the next chapter.

This study converged with study 1 in its findings on the effect of signaled diversity value types on group-based attributions. As hypothesized, when presented with statements signaling diversity as any value type, participants tended to report higher group-based attributions about hiring decisions. However, unlike study 1, study 2 showed the hypothesized positive effect for a signaled instrumental value on merit-based attributions. Study 2 also supported my prediction that merit-based attributions would partially mediate the relationship between a signaled instrumental value and potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness. Further, this study revealed a significant three-way interaction involving group-based attributions, the demographic characteristic of sex, and AA attitudes, but not in the hypothesized direction. It was the men, rather than the women, who exhibited the most extreme reactions, as can be seen in Figure 6. These differences in findings between the studies will be discussed in detail in

the final chapter.

As was the case with study 1, this study did not find GPA to be a significant moderator of the relationship between merit-based attributions and potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness. As argued previously, this non-finding may be due to a restriction of range on GPA among this sample of individuals from a prestigious institution.

The next and final chapter will discuss some of the findings of both studies in more detail, as well as the limitations, opportunities, contributions, and implications of the work described in this dissertation.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION

In this dissertation, I have reviewed the literature on DM and presented a theory-driven typology of DM approaches. This typology is intended to guide researchers and practitioners in future research and DM program planning and implementation. Further, I have conducted two studies within the specific context of employee recruitment to demonstrate the potential effects of these DM approaches while providing a better understanding of how DM signals are interpreted by potential applicants. I begin this chapter with a general discussion of the results of the two studies. I then discuss limitations and opportunities for future research, followed by the contributions to research and implications for practice.

General Discussion of Findings

Both studies showed some support for the hypothesized relationship in which demographic characteristics would moderate the effect of DM signals predicted in the first hypothesis. In study 1, racioethnic minorities exhibited positive reactions to both acculturation strategies, while Whites exhibited negative reactions. Study 2 showed that women exhibited a stronger positive effect than men. The negative effect among non-beneficiaries found in study 1 and the positive effect found in study 2 may be attributable to the study design. When participants are faced with multiple recruitment announcements presenting equivalent job-related factors, they may change how they incorporate DM signals into their evaluation processes. When presented with a single announcement as in study 1, non-beneficiaries may react negatively to seeing so much attention devoted to DM. However, when presented with multiple announcements as in

study 2, they may simply value the additional information about the organization's DM approach over a lack of such information.

As stated previously, the failure to support hypotheses predicting the role of P-O fit perceptions as a partial mediator may indicate that it serves as a full mediator. However, other possibilities exist. For example, both P-O fit perceptions and organizational attractiveness may be consequences of other mediating mechanisms. Potential applicants may assess their fit and attraction to an organization based on such factors as fairness perceptions. As DiTomaso and colleagues (2007) have noted, the incorporation of the organizational justice literature into studies of diversity may be a promising avenue for future research. Additionally, the effects of DM signals on organizational attractiveness have been shown to be partially mediated by potential applicants' perceptions of personal career advancement opportunities in the organization (Olsen, Parsons, Martins, & Ivanaj, 2010).

Both studies converged in their findings on the effect of signaled diversity value types on group-based attributions. Participants presented with recruitment announcements signaling diversity as a terminal, instrumental, or dual value tended to make more hiring decision attributions based on group membership. This was consistent with my hypothesis. However, the studies again diverged in their findings on the effect of a signaled instrumental value on merit-based attributions and organizational attractiveness. While study 1 showed a negative effect, study 2 showed the hypothesized positive effect. It is possible that the shorter, more concise statements used in study 2 signaled the instrumental value and its business-related implications more clearly than the more embellished version used in study 1. In the follow-up qualitative study mentioned

previously, seven of the nineteen participants mentioned an attraction to organizations signaling an instrumental or dual value type, while none mentioned an attraction to organizations signaling a terminal value.

As to the test of merit-based attributions as a partial mediator between signaled value types and organizational attractiveness, study 1 failed to find partial mediation, while study 2 supported the hypothesis. If participants in study 1 were receiving a less clear signal about the organization's instrumental value, as discussed above, it is possible that study 1's results reflect a different effect and underlying mediating mechanism from the results of study 2.

I had predicted three-way interactions among group-based attributions, sex/racioethnicity, and attitudes/beliefs. Study 1 failed to find such an interaction, and study 2 found a three-way interaction in an unexpected direction. Specifically, men exhibited more extreme reactions than women, as a function of their attitudes toward AA programs. While I had posited that group-based attributions in hiring decisions would have more personal relevance for traditionally underrepresented individuals, this may not have been the case. It is important to note that much of the prior research on the stigma effect (e.g., Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Heilman et al., 1992) prompts study participants for their reactions to hiring decisions *after* they have been made. Perhaps Whites and men, when asked about *anticipated* hiring decisions feel some degree of personal threat that is equal to or greater than the fear of stigma among women and racioethnic minorities. Future research could measure both pre- and post-decision attitudes and beliefs in order to test for such a phenomenon.

Of course, a key difference between these studies and that of Martins and Parsons

(2007) is the difference in the independent variable involved in these interactions. While Martins and Parsons (2007) investigated the direct effects of signals about the degree of proactivity in organizational DM programs, the current study measured the effect of group-based attributions. Future work may resolve these different findings by including a measure of the degree of proactivity of DM programs in conjunction with such mediating mechanisms as group-based attributions. In addition, Martins and Parsons's (2007) study used short organizational descriptions as stimuli, while the current studies used recruitment announcements. It is possible that this prior research sent a clearer and more concise signal than did the recruitment announcements used in this study. This idea may be supported by the fact that study 2, with its more concise statements, revealed more complex relationships than did study 1, which used more embellished statements.

The final hypothesis tests involved the effects of several achievement-related individual differences on the relationship between merit-based attributions and organizational attractiveness. As previously noted, failure to find support for these hypotheses may be attributable to restriction of range on these moderating variables. Indeed, the mean scores on these constructs do fall above the midpoints of their scales, and the hypothesized relationships may require greater variance for detection. Future studies testing such relationships should draw from populations that are likely to be more diverse on these constructs, such as lower-tier institutions and working populations with more variation in education levels.

As discussed, the two studies described in this dissertation often resulted in divergent findings. In addition to the obvious difference in general study design (i.e., the between-subject design of study 1 versus the within-subject design of study 2), the

studies' stimuli were also different. Study 1 attempted to present participants with stimuli that were realistic in length, based on my qualitative analysis of actual recruitment announcements and diversity statements. However, the design of study 2 required shorter announcements, since participants were asked to read and react to 31 stimuli. As mentioned previously, these recruitment materials may be viewed as signals to potential applicants (Rynes, 1991; Spence, 1973). It is possible that the difference in length between the statements in the two studies affected the participants' interpretation of the signals. In fact, several of the participants in the follow-up study had comments on the stimulus length, even within the context of study 2. A Black female participant commented, "I felt more positively about the longer ads because I felt as if the company gave a better description of what they were looking for which shows me the time and money they are willing to invest their company." Similarly, a Hispanic female participant commented, "Short announcements lacked the enthusiasm to capture my attention about the job position." However, this same participant also stated that "[b]eing overly descriptive about diversity was a turn off [sic]." In addition, another Black female participant explained, "Short concise announcements attracted me more," and a White female participant stated, "I would rather read short, straightforward statements." Of course, the shorter announcements in study 2 consisted of the control stimuli, confounding this interpretation. However, the salience of the length to these participants does indicate that it may have played a role in the nature and clarity of the DM approach signal. One way to explore this phenomenon is to conduct a study using the between-subject design of study 1 and the shorter stimuli from study 2.

Limitations and Opportunities for Future Research

It is important to note some further limitations of these studies, as well as the opportunities for future research that follow from this dissertation. First, the discrepant results between the studies serve as a call for further clarification on several of these relationships. This includes an investigation of methodological issues, such as the potential effects of stimulus length and the relative importance of job- versus DM-related factors. This call for clarification also includes further investigation of other mediating mechanisms and potentially even the use of alternative measures of personality.

In addition, the sample came from a population of organizational interest (i.e., potential new hires), but these findings may not translate perfectly to individuals seeking upper-level positions or to more experienced job-seekers. Experienced individuals may be more apt to recognize the benefits of DM, but they may also be more skeptical of organizational DM efforts and material presented in recruitment announcements. Future research should examine these effects among such populations and include measurement of other perceptions such as skepticism and fairness.

Further, I expect national context to be an additional moderator of the relationships described in this dissertation. A moderating sex effect for reactions to acculturation strategies may be less pronounced in national contexts like that of the US which are relatively gender egalitarian (House et al., 2004). Future research may therefore investigate this phenomenon in less egalitarian contexts, where I predict that an integration strategy would evoke more positive reactions among women than among men. Differences on the cultural difference of performance orientation (House et al., 2004) may also lead to differences in individuals' evaluations of merit- and group-based attributions. Thus, further theoretical and empirical development is necessary in

examining the effects of the proposed DM dimensions on individuals' perceptions in various national contexts.

Finally, future work should also explore outcomes other than organizational attractiveness using the theoretical framework presented in this dissertation. For example, scholars might investigate whether DM efforts can shape the diversity-to-performance relationship among employed individuals, as has been proposed (e.g., Cox, 1993; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Konrad & Linnehan, 1995a; Richard & Johnson, 2001; D. A. Thomas & Ely, 1996; R. R. Thomas, 1990). Additionally, I posit that by examining characteristics of these diversity training and development programs within the framework presented in this paper, scholars may be able to better understand the conditions under which positive outcomes are achieved. For instance, it is possible that training programs evoking unfavorable outcomes may be working from a terminal assimilation approach, increasing the salience of the stigma effect and placing stress-inducing conformity pressures on women and racial minorities. My theory suggests that in order to maximize attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, training should reflect an instrumental integration or dual-value integration approach to DM. For instance, trainees should first be made aware of cultural and individual differences and their importance to work outcomes (Bush & Ingram, 2001; Hanover & Cellar, 1998; Roberson et al., 2001). Additionally, diversity training programs should define diversity broadly (i.e., ideas, perspectives, etc., rather than group characteristics; Holladay et al., 2003; Rynes & Rosen, 1995), allowing all trainees to understand that they have something to contribute to the organization. Further, diversity-related employee development efforts such as mentoring programs may be more effective if individuals are encouraged to understand their distinctiveness in an effort to contribute

unique ideas and views toward the achievement of business objectives. Future research should examine training and development characteristics in light of the diversity value types and acculturation strategies, thus informing practitioners on the most effective design and implementation of training and development programs.

Contributions to Research

The DM typology presented in this dissertation and the two studies described reveal a number of important findings that contribute to DM research. First, I have introduced a theory-driven dimensionalization to organize the largely practice-driven research on DM. For over a decade, researchers have called for more theory in this area (e.g., Barry & Bateman, 1996; Triandis, Kurowski, & Gelfand, 1993). The theory described in this dissertation is a response to this call that integrates prior DM typologies and presents a framework by which researchers and practitioners may conceptualize, design, implement, and evaluate organizational DM programs. In addition, the intersection of the social psychological and cross-cultural psychological theories I used to develop this typology also reveals that previously unexplored approaches to DM may exist. The terminal integration approach has not been discussed in prior research, and there has not been a focus on organizations emphasizing dual values for diversity.

In this dissertation, I explored the effects of these two DM dimensions as moderated by a number of individual-level constructs. However, I did not examine any potential interactive effects *between* the dimensions. While I did not theorize on such effects here, it is possible that a particular DM approach leads to outcomes that are more than just the sum of the effects of the two dimensions. As an initial view of such a phenomenon, Appendix F presents the results of some *post hoc* analyses of this

dissertation data. There were no significant findings for interactive effects in the data from study 1, but there were a number of significant interactions in analyzing the data from study 2. Table A1 in Appendix F presents the results of my *post hoc* exploration of how acculturation strategies may interact with value types, and how the value types may interact with each other. These results suggest that the contribution of the dimensions to potential applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness may not be simply additive. For example, as Figure A1 in Appendix F illustrates, a DM approach excluding any signal of an acculturation strategy seems to become more and more attractive to potential applicants as values are added to the statement. On the other hand, the assimilation strategy seems to reach its peak of attractiveness when paired with an instrumental value, but seems to become less attractive when paired with a dual value approach. It is possible that the mention of diversity-related values is perceived as informative, unless too much of such information is paired with an assimilation strategy. At such a point, potential applicants may grow skeptical of the organization's DM efforts. Of course, these *post hoc* results should be interpreted with caution, as they may simply reflect sample-specific error. Future research should present and test *a priori* theory-driven hypotheses about such interactive effects.

Next, these findings suggest that acculturation strategies signaled by organizations interact with individuals' demographic characteristics to affect organizational perceptions. Integrating findings from the two studies, traditionally underrepresented individuals generally perceive organizations more favorably with mention of an acculturation strategy. As stated previously, an integration acculturation strategy allows individuals to maintain and express their cultural roots (Berry, 1984a; Cox & Finley-Nickelson, 1991).

Thus, traditionally underrepresented individuals are likely to be attracted to organizations signaling such an approach. While the assimilation strategy was not expected to evoke positive reactions, it does seem to impart some recognition of, and strategy for, increasing or maintaining diversity into the workplace. Perhaps it is simply this recognition that attracts individuals. Further, because assimilation is so widely adopted by US institutions (Berry, 1984b; Ely & Thomas, 2001), signals of this strategy may not be particularly salient in the US, when compared to signals of an integration strategy.

In addition, these results suggest that the way in which organizations signal their value of diversity impacts potential applicants' organizational perceptions. Signals about diversity management, regardless of value type or acculturation strategy, evoked higher group-based attributions about hiring decisions. In turn, group-based attributions seemed to be viewed more or less favorably as a function of AA attitudes, but not so much as a function of demographic characteristics. Merit-based attributions, on the other hand, were consistently and positively related to organizational attractiveness perceptions. As prior research has indicated, group-based and merit-based attributions may occur simultaneously (Major et al., 1994), so evoking group-based attributions need not necessarily detract from merit-based attributions.

Finally, this dissertation has provided insight into the mechanisms driving individuals' perceptions of organizations. Findings in the two studies suggest that research on person-organization (P-O) fit (e.g., T. A. Judge & Cable, 1997; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Schneider, 1987) and attributions in work situations (e.g., Crocker et al., 1991; Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Heilman et al., 1990; Major & Crocker, 1993; Major et al., 1994) may effectively be applied to better understand individuals' reactions to

organizational DM programs. Therefore, this dissertation has contributed to the organizational behavior and human resource management literature in the areas of not only DM and recruitment, but also P-O fit and attribution theory.

Practical Implications

Perhaps of greatest interest to management practitioners, the results of these studies suggest that DM signals impact potential applicants' perceptions of organizations. Organizations with the need to attract more traditionally underrepresented individuals should signal an integration acculturation strategy by discussing the importance of expressing and respecting cultural differences in the workplace. However, caution is required in signaling an instrumental value in recruitment announcements, as further investigation of its effects is required. What is clear is that recruitment announcements should be very explicit in describing the importance of merit and performance outcomes. Additionally, the theory presented in this dissertation suggests that an integration strategy and an instrumental or dual value of diversity may still be beneficial in contexts other than recruitment. Thus, exclusion of such DM approaches from training or other programs is not warranted on the basis of the results of study 1.

The results of these studies also imply that organizational DM approaches prompt preliminary perceptions of fit and expectations about human resource practices that new employees may bring with them to the workplace. For example, they may assume that the organization expects assimilation or values integration. They may also make assumptions about whether or not it is appropriate to raise issues or present ideas based on group membership. Thus, organizational leaders and human resource professionals should take care to accurately present their diversity policies in recruitment materials. They should

also consider the possible assumptions held by new employees when designing socialization programs.

Conclusion

In this dissertation, I have reviewed the DM literature, described a theoretical framework of DM and shown that the proposed dimensions have significant effects on potential applicants' perceptions of organizations. The results of these studies suggest that perceptions of P-O fit and attributions about hiring decisions play an important role in individuals' perceptions of organizational DM efforts. This approach to DM has a number of theoretical and practical implications, warranting further conceptual development, empirical testing, and consideration in the design of recruitment materials.

APPENDIX A

**DIVERSITY STATEMENT RATER'S TRAINING
MATERIALS AND INSTRUCTIONS**

Diversity Statement Ratings Instruction Sheet

You will be asked to rate each statement on two dimensions—acculturation strategy and instrumental versus terminal values. Carefully read the descriptions below before rating the statements.

Acculturation Strategies

According to Berry and his colleagues (Berry, 1984; Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987), acculturation refers to the process in which cultural changes occur as a result of continuous contact between cultural groups. In assimilation, cultural change is one-sided; non-dominant cultural groups conform to the norms and values of the dominant group. Pluralism involves cultural change on the part of all parties. Cultural groups may conform on certain dimensions but they are also likely to retain substantial pieces of their own cultures (Berry, 1984). Assimilation in the organizational context involves the suppression or elimination of cultural differences so that all employees follow norms, values, and practices established by the dominant organizational culture. Pluralism, though likely to involve a few core organizational values, allows members to express and share their own cultures, as well as to appreciate the cultures of other members (Cox & Finley-Nickelson, 1991; Cox, 1993).

Instrumental and Terminal Values

A value is defined as “an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence” (Rokeach, 1973: 5). Rokeach (1973) argues that two broad types of values exist: instrumental and terminal. Instrumental values are those that guide behavior in such a manner as to attain some desirable end-state. In other words, instrumental values prescribe certain behaviors because they are believed to be an effective means to an end. Terminal values refer to the desirable end-states themselves, which individuals strive to achieve (Rokeach, 1973). Some organizations view diversity as a desirable end-state. A value for diversity in such organizations is a terminal value. Other organizations, however, view diversity as a means by which they can accomplish business objectives, so a value for diversity is an instrumental value in these organizations.

Using the scale below, rate each recruitment announcement on the extent to which it exhibits each of the following characteristics. (Circle the number corresponding to your rating.)

<i>not at all</i>			<i>to some extent</i>			<i>to a great extent</i>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Assimilation (ASSIM): This organization considers all employees to be the same, regardless of sex, race, or ethnicity; this organization focuses on its diverse employees' similarities, rather than their differences.

Pluralism (PLUR): This organization recognizes that there may be differences among gender, racial, and ethnic groups; this organization understands that people of different races/ethnicities and sexes might have different perspectives.

Diversity as a Terminal Value (TERM): To this organization, having a diverse workforce is important for its own sake (i.e., “It's the right thing to do.”); this organization aims to maintain a diverse and inclusive workforce mainly because it has a legal and moral responsibility to do so.

Diversity as an Instrumental Value (INST): To this organization, having a diverse workforce is important for the achievement of its business objectives; this organization values employee diversity, because it contributes to business success.

APPENDIX B
STUDY 1 STIMULI

Control Condition (No DM Approach)

Participants assigned to this condition were presented with the following text:

Recruiters are always interested in how to better attract people like you to their companies. Management researchers are therefore interested in your reactions to recruitment announcements. Please help us by reading the announcement below and answering the questions that follow. We have disguised the name and industry of the organization so that we can better understand your reactions to the content of the announcement itself. This study will require approximately 30 minutes. If you leave this study, you will have to start over, so please make sure you have time to complete it in one sitting.

Recruitment Announcement:

The General Products and Services Company (GPSC) is currently seeking highly talented and motivated individuals to join our elite team of professionals in leading a growing Fortune 500 firm. The challenging and rewarding work environment that we offer our employees has helped our business maintain its steady growth. We invite you to be a part of this outstanding team.

About GPSC:

GPSC is a publicly traded Fortune 500 company that provides a wide range of consumer goods and professional services to customers in over 150 countries. We employ over 200,000 people across the United States and in major cities around the world. Our investment in our employees, promising new technology, and social and environmental responsibility ensures our company's continuing success in the global marketplace.

What we offer:

- A competitive salary with paid vacation and sick leave
- Full medical and dental coverage for the employee and dependents
- Life insurance
- Short- and long-term disability insurance
- 401k plan with a company matching contribution
- Continuing education and professional development programs

Terminal Assimilation Approach Condition

Participants assigned to this condition were presented with all text from the control condition, plus the following:

Diversity at GPSC:

We at GPSC recognize our ethical and legal responsibility to provide all employees with a workplace free from discrimination on the basis of age, disability, color, national origin, race, religion, sex, sexual orientation, or any other category protected by federal or local law. By encouraging the hiring and retention of women, minorities, and other underrepresented individuals, GPSC aims to maintain a diverse and inclusive workforce. Equal opportunity is important to every aspect of our human resource management practices, which is why GPSC's non-discrimination policies extend to

- the recruitment of applicants;
- employee selection;
- training and development opportunities;
- promotions, demotions, and transfers;
- compensation;
- termination;
- and other activities.

Not only do we value diversity among our applicants and employees, but GPSC also strives for non-discrimination in establishing and maintaining relationships with various suppliers, customers, and philanthropic organizations.

Employees are encouraged to promptly report any instances of discrimination, harassment, or other unfair practices to the Human Resources Department. Anyone engaging in such a practice is subject to disciplinary action, including transfer, demotion, or even termination of employment.

GPSC is an equal opportunity employer.

Instrumental Assimilation Approach Condition

Participants assigned to this condition were presented with all text from the control condition, plus the following:

Diversity at GPSC:

We at GPSC believe that employee diversity is essential to sustaining a competitive advantage, because a diverse workforce enables us to better serve our various customers and business partners. GPSC aims to maintain diversity by encouraging the hiring and retention of women, minorities, and other underrepresented individuals.

GPSC recognizes that diversity provides the company with numerous benefits, including:

- access to a variety of markets and suppliers,
- satisfaction of our many customers' and suppliers' needs,
- increased value for our shareholders.

GPSC understands that in order to effectively leverage our diversity, we must highlight the similarities that bind us, rather than the differences that separate us. The Leadership Team at GPSC has therefore established a number of ongoing initiatives that aim to maintain and capitalize on diversity while emphasizing our common interests and goals. Our leaders and managers are held accountable for:

- attracting and retaining a talented and diverse workforce,
- maintaining a professional environment with clear standards throughout the organization, and
- applying GPSC's management practices and policies equally to all employees, regardless of age, disability, color, national origin, race, religion, sex, sexual orientation, or any other such category.

Instrumental Integration Approach Condition

Participants assigned to this condition were presented with all text from the control condition, plus the following:

Diversity at GPSC:

We at GPSC believe that the diversity of our workforce is at the heart of innovation and the key to our success. We define diversity to encompass all the differences that make each of us a unique individual. This includes the more visible characteristics—like gender and race—as well as the less visible ones—like personality, educational background, and life and work experience. We believe these many differences lead to the diversity of thought that engenders the creativity that drives this company's performance.

GPSC recognizes that diversity of all kinds provides the company with numerous benefits, including:

- innovative products and work processes,
- satisfaction of our many customers' and suppliers' needs,
- flexibility to succeed in a dynamic business environment, and
- increased value for our shareholders.

The Leadership Team at GPSC has therefore established a number of ongoing initiatives that span across all levels of the organization and aim to maintain and capitalize on diversity. Our leaders and managers are held accountable for:

- attracting and retaining a talented and diverse workforce,
- maintaining an inclusive business environment,
- encouraging the open exchange of ideas to inform our business, and
- providing opportunities for all employees to share their unique perspectives and learn from each other's differences.

Diversity translates into continuous improvement of not only the way we do business, but also the way we think about our business.

Terminal Integration Approach Condition

Participants assigned to this condition were presented with all text from the control condition, plus the following:

Diversity at GPSC:

We at GPSC recognize our ethical and legal responsibility to provide all employees with a workplace free from discrimination, so we aim to maintain a diverse and inclusive workforce. We define diversity to include the more visible characteristics—like gender and race—as well as the less visible ones—like personality, educational background, and life and work experience. Acknowledging and respecting the differences that make each of us a unique individual is simply the right thing to do. Equal opportunity and multiculturalism are important to every aspect of our human resource management practices.

The Leadership Team at GPSC has therefore established a number of ongoing initiatives that span across all levels of the organization and aim to maintain diversity. Our leaders and managers are held accountable for:

- attracting and retaining a talented and diverse workforce,
- maintaining an inclusive business environment,
- encouraging the open exchange of ideas, and
- ensuring that all employees feel comfortable expressing the differences that come from having unique backgrounds.

Not only do we value diversity among our applicants and employees, but GPSC also strives to responsibly establish and maintain relationships with various suppliers, customers, and philanthropic organizations.

Dual Value Assimilation Approach Condition

Participants assigned to this condition were presented with all text from the control condition, plus the following:

Diversity at GPSC:

We at GPSC realize that not only is diversity the right thing to do, it is also good for business. Our ethical and legal responsibility to provide all employees with a workplace free from discrimination on the basis of age, disability, color, national origin, race, religion, sex, sexual orientation, or any other category protected by federal or local law. However, we also understand that by encouraging the hiring and retention of women, minorities, and other underrepresented individuals, GPSC can sustain a competitive advantage. A diverse workforce enables us to better serve our various customers and business partners.

GPSC recognizes that diversity provides the company with numerous benefits, including:

- access to a variety of markets and suppliers,
- satisfaction of our many customers' and suppliers' needs,
- increased value for our shareholders.

GPSC understands that in order to effectively leverage our diversity, we must highlight the similarities that bind us, rather than the differences that separate us. The Leadership Team at GPSC has therefore established a number of ongoing initiatives that aim to maintain and capitalize on diversity while emphasizing our common interests and goals. Our leaders and managers are held accountable for:

- attracting and retaining a talented and diverse workforce,
- maintaining a professional environment with clear standards throughout the organization, and
- applying GPSC's management practices and policies equally to all employees, regardless of age, disability, color, national origin, race, religion, sex, sexual orientation, or any other such category.

GPSC is an equal opportunity employer.

Dual Value Integration Approach Condition

Participants assigned to this condition were presented with all text from the control condition, plus the following:

Diversity at GPSC:

We at GPSC realize that not only is diversity the right thing to do, it is also good for business. Our ethical and legal responsibility is to provide all employees with a workplace free from discrimination. However, we also understand that the diversity of our workforce is at the heart of innovation and the key to our success. We define diversity to include the more visible characteristics—like gender and race—as well as the less visible ones—like personality, educational background, and life and work experience. Acknowledging and respecting the differences that make each of us a unique individual is the right thing to do and leads to the diversity of thought that engenders the creativity that drives this company’s performance. Diversity of all kinds provides the company with numerous benefits, including:

- innovative products and work processes,
- satisfaction of our many customers’ and suppliers’ needs,
- flexibility to succeed in a dynamic business environment, and
- increased value for our shareholders.

The Leadership Team at GPSC has therefore established a number of ongoing initiatives that span across all levels of the organization and aim to maintain diversity. Our leaders and managers are held accountable for:

- attracting and retaining a talented and diverse workforce,
- maintaining an inclusive business environment,
- encouraging the open exchange of ideas,
- ensuring that all employees feel comfortable expressing their differences, and
- providing opportunities for all employees to share their unique perspectives and learn from each other’s differences.

Diversity translates into social responsibility and the continuous improvement of the way we do business.

APPENDIX C
STUDY 1 MEASURES

Study 1, Part 1 Questionnaire Items

Protestant Work Ethic (4 of the 8 items from Blood, 1969; consistent with Adams & Rau, 2004; 7-point Likert scale [“strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”])

- Hard work makes one a better person.
- Wasting time is as bad as wasting money.
- A good indication of a person’s worth is how well they do their job.
- If all other things are equal, it is better to have a job with a lot of responsibility than one with little responsibility.

Core Self-Evaluations (Judge, Erez, Bono, Thoresen, 2003; 7-point Likert scale [“strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”])

- I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.
- Sometimes I feel depressed.
- When I try, I generally succeed.
- Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless.
- I complete tasks successfully.
- Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work.
- Overall, I am satisfied with myself.
- I am filled with doubts about my competence.
- I determine what will happen in my life.
- I do not feel in control of my success in my career.
- I am capable of coping with most of my problems.
- There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me.

IPIP Scales (7-point Likert scale [“very inaccurate” to “very accurate”]; items shared between broad and narrow traits are presented in both and italicized, though the actual questionnaire presented these items only once)

Neuroticism (approximation of the broad trait from the NEO)

- I often feel blue.
- I dislike myself.
- I am often down in the dumps.
- I have frequent mood swings.
- I panic easily.
- I rarely get irritated.
- I seldom feel blue.
- I feel comfortable with myself.
- I am not easily bothered by things.
- I am very pleased with myself.

Extraversion (approximation of the broad trait from the NEO)

- I feel comfortable around people.
- I make friends easily.
- I am skilled in handling social situations.
- I am the life of the party.

- I know how to captivate people.
- I have little to say.
- I keep in the background.
- I would describe my experiences as somewhat dull.
- I don't like to draw attention to myself.
- I don't talk a lot.

Achievement-Striving (approximation of the narrow Conscientiousness trait from the NEO)

- I go straight for the goal.
- I work hard.
- I turn plans into actions.
- I plunge into tasks with all my heart.
- I do more than what's expected of me.
- I set high standards for myself and others.
- I demand quality.
- I am not highly motivated to succeed.
- I do just enough work to get by.
- I put little time and effort into my work.

Openness to Actions (approximation of the narrow Openness trait from the NEO)

- I prefer variety to routine.
- I like to visit new places.
- I am interested in many things.
- I like to begin new things.
- I prefer to stick with things that I know.
- I dislike changes.
- I don't like the idea of change.
- I am a creature of habit.
- I dislike new foods.
- I am attached to conventional ways.

Openness to Values (approximation of the narrow Openness trait from the NEO)

- I tend to vote for liberal political candidates.
- I believe that there is no absolute right and wrong.
- I believe that criminals should receive help rather than punishment.
- I believe in one true religion.
- I tend to vote for conservative political candidates.
- I believe that too much tax money goes to support artists.
- I believe laws should be strictly enforced.
- I believe that we coddle criminals too much.
- I believe that we should be tough on crime.
- I like to stand during the national anthem.

Flexibility (approximation of the trait from the HEXACO)

- I adjust easily.
- I am good at taking advice.
- When interacting with a group of people, I am often bothered by at least one of them.
- I react strongly to criticism.
- I get upset if others change the way that I have arranged things.
- I am hard to convince.
- I am annoyed by others' mistakes.
- I can't stand being contradicted.
- I am hard to satisfy.
- I am hard to reason with.

Affirmative Action Attitudes (7-point semantic differential scale; Bell, Harrison, & McLaughlin, 2000)

In general, affirmative action programs are:							
HARMFUL	<input type="checkbox"/>	HELPFUL					
	extremely	quite			slightly		
					neither		
NEGATIVE	<input type="checkbox"/>	POSITIVE					
	extremely	quite			slightly		
					neither		
WORTHLESS	<input type="checkbox"/>	WORTHWHILE					
	extremely	quite			slightly		
					neither		
READY TO BE PHASED OUT	<input type="checkbox"/>	NECESSARY TO KEEP					
	extremely	quite			slightly		
					neither		
IN NEED OF CHANGING	<input type="checkbox"/>	SHOULD STAY THE SAME					
	extremely	quite			slightly		
					neither		

Demographic/Background Info

What is your gender?	Male	Female
What is your age?	years	
How many <u>full-time</u> jobs have you had?		
About how many total years and months have you worked at those <u>full-time</u> jobs?	years and months	
What is your current grade point average (GPA) in college? (<i>This is on a 4-point scale, where A=4.0 and F=0.0. If you are unsure, please provide an approximate answer.</i>)		
What is your racial/ethnic background? (<i>e.g., White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, etc.</i>)		
What is your country of citizenship?		

Discrimination Beliefs (7-point Likert scale [“strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”])

About Women (Martins & Parsons, 2007; as they adapted from Cameron, 2001 and Konrad & Hartmann, 2001)

- In general, women experience discrimination in hiring or promotion decisions.
- Perhaps there used to be sex discrimination against women, but this is not the case today.
- In general, promotion decisions are biased by sex so that men are advantaged.
- In general, women in corporate settings have been systematically prevented from attaining their full potential.
- I do not believe that women today suffer from the effects of discrimination in the workplace on the basis of sex.

About Racial/Ethnic Minorities (adapted from above)

- In general, racial/ethnic minorities experience discrimination in hiring or promotion decisions.
- Perhaps there used to be discrimination against racial/ethnic minorities, but this is not the case today.
- In general, promotion decisions are biased by race or ethnicity so that White people / Caucasians are advantaged.
- In general, racial/ethnic minorities in corporate settings have been systematically prevented from attaining their full potential.
- I do not believe that minorities today suffer from the effects of discrimination in the workplace on the basis of their race or ethnicity.

Study 1, Part 2 Questionnaire Items

Respondents first read one of the four (randomly assigned) diversity programs manipulations, presented in Appendix B.

Manipulation Check (4 items constructed based on Berry [1984a] and Berry et al. [1987] and 4 items constructed based on Rokeach [1973]; 7-point Likert scale [“not at all” to “to a great extent”])

To what extent does the recruitment announcement suggest each of the following?

Assimilation

- This organization considers all employees to be the same, regardless of sex, race, or ethnicity.
- This organization focuses on its diverse employees' similarities, rather than their differences.

Integration

- This organization recognizes that there may be differences among gender, racial, and ethnic groups.
- This organization understands that people of different races/ethnicities and sexes might have different perspectives.

Terminal Value

- To this organization, having a diverse workforce is important for its own sake (i.e.,

- “It's the right thing to do.”)
- This organization aims to maintain a diverse and inclusive workforce mainly because it has a legal and moral responsibility to do so.

Instrumental Value

- To this organization, having a diverse workforce is important for the achievement of its business objectives.
- This organization values employee diversity, because it contributes to business success.

Organizational Attractiveness (Schwoerer and Rosen, 1989; Turban & Keon, 1993; 7-point Likert scale [“strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”])

- I would request additional information about this company.
- I would sign up for an interview with this company.
- I would exert a great deal of effort to work for this company.
- I would be interested in pursuing a job application with this company.
- I would like to work for this company.
- I would accept a job offer from this company.
- I would not be interested in working for this company except as a last resort.

P-O Fit Perceptions (adapted from Cable & DeRue, 2002; 7-point Likert scale [“strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”])

- The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that this organization values.
- My personal values match this organization’s values and culture.
- This organization’s values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life.

Attributions (adapted from Heilman et al, 1996 and Major et al, 1994; 7-point Likert scale [“not at all” to “to a great extent”])

Based on the recruitment announcement, to what extent do you think this organization is likely to give importance to the following factors in making hiring decisions?

- Educational Background
- Prior Work Experience
- Ability/Skill
- Work Aptitude
- Performance on Interviews and Selection Tests
- Sex/Gender
- Race or Ethnicity
- Underrepresented Status

APPENDIX D
STUDY 2 STIMULI

Introductory Statements

The following introductory statements were randomly paired for each participant with a diversity statement, with the exception of three introductory statements, which were randomly presented alone as the control condition.

1. GPSC is currently seeking individuals to join our team of professionals. We offer a challenging and rewarding work environment, as well as a competitive salary and benefits. GPSC invites you to be a part of this outstanding team.
2. GPSC is now seeking individuals to join our professional team. We offer a supportive environment, challenging work, and competitive compensation.
3. GPSC is currently looking for professionals to become a part of our team. We offer competitive pay and benefits, challenging work, and a rewarding work environment.
4. GPSC is accepting applications from individuals for positions throughout our growing organization. We offer our professionals an attractive compensation plan and a great place to work.
5. We at GPSC invite you to join our amazing workforce. We provide competitive compensation to our professionals, and GPSC is a great place to work, too!
6. If you are looking for a challenging and rewarding career, GPSC would like you to join its team. We provide competitive pay and benefits, as well as a great place to work.
7. Our company's growth is driven by our people, so GPSC provides its employees with a comfortable and professional environment, as well as pay and benefits that are among the best in the industry.
8. GPSC is looking for professionals to join our growing team. We promise our employees a challenging, motivating, and professional work environment. We also offer a competitive compensation package to attract and to keep the best workforce around.
9. GPSC is a growing company. Our attractive compensation package includes a competitive salary and benefits. If you are looking for a great work environment, GPSC could be the place for you.
10. Are you a professional looking for a great place to work? If so, GPSC is the place for you! At GPSC, our employees are the key to our success, so we offer industry-competitive salaries and benefits to attract, retain, and motivate our people.
11. At GPSC, we not only offer our employees a supportive place to work, but we also offer competitive pay and an exceptional benefits package. If you are looking for a great place to work, consider joining GPSC.
12. We at GPSC are looking for individuals who would like to further their careers in a challenging and motivating work environment. We offer a competitive compensation plan with high pay and excellent benefits.
13. GPSC is looking for professionals to join its growing team. GPSC employees receive competitive compensation and a great work environment.
14. We at GPSC are seeking individuals to become a part of our steadily growing organization. We offer a rewarding work environment, competitive pay, and great benefits. Maybe GPSC is what you are looking for!
15. GPSC is looking for professionals who can help us reach our goals and maintain our

- company's growth. Our employees enjoy a motivating and professional work environment. The compensation package includes a competitive salary and benefits plan.
16. GPSC is looking for professionals to become a part of our team. If you're up for challenging work in a friendly environment, consider GPSC. We offer industry-competitive pay and great benefits.
 17. GPSC is currently seeking applications to fill challenging and rewarding positions. Our compensation package is industry-competitive and we are a steadily growing organization with many career opportunities.
 18. Consider a career at GPSC, where the work is challenging and the environment is motivating. We also offer some of the best pay and benefits in the industry.
 19. GPSC is accepting applications from individuals looking for challenging careers in a rewarding work environment. GPSC also offers its employees a great compensation package.
 20. Are you looking for a rewarding career with a successful company? Consider GPSC. We also offer competitive salaries and benefits.
 21. GPSC offers outstanding career opportunities for individuals who desire a place in a successful company with a competitive compensation plan. Consider a career with us.
 22. GPSC is presently seeking individuals to join its growing workforce. We offer a challenging and rewarding work environment, as well as competitive pay and benefits.
 23. GPSC has the perfect opportunity for individuals looking to make a career in a challenging and rewarding work environment. We offer a compensation package that is among the best in our industry.
 24. GPSC is a growing company, and we are looking for professionals to join our team. GPSC features a challenging and rewarding workplace, as well as great salaries and benefits.
 25. GPSC is seeking applications from professionals to join its growing workforce. GPSC's associates enjoy a friendly work environment and a compensation package that is highly competitive.
 26. GPSC is seeking professionals for several positions throughout our growing organization. We offer a great compensation plan that complements our motivating work environment.
 27. GPSC is inviting professionals to become a part of our growing and rewarding workforce. We offer great pay and some of the best benefits in the industry, so consider a career at GPSC.

Diversity Statements

After being randomly paired with the previous introductory statements, diversity statements were presented in random order to each participant.

Terminal Assimilation

1. As a socially responsible organization, GPSC is committed to providing equal employment opportunities without regard to gender, race, national origin, religion, age, disability, or any other category protected by law. In the spirit of equality, we enforce GPSC's Uniform Management Policies and Practices, which ensure that our

- human resource and management practices are applied equally and consistently to all of our employees.
2. GPSC is committed to diversity and providing equal employment opportunities to everyone, because it is our social responsibility. All of our managers and employees are expected to uphold the organization's equal employment and nondiscrimination policies by conducting their work without regard to one another's race, gender, national origin, disability, age, or other such characteristics.

Instrumental Assimilation

1. GPSC believes that there is a strong business case for diversity; a diverse workforce is critical in serving our various customers and suppliers. In order to maintain a work environment that promotes employee diversity, our business policies and practices require everyone to focus not on the differences that separate us, but rather on the similarities that bring us together.
2. Diversity is the key to our business success. Thus, we welcome top talent from all walks of life into the GPSC Team. GPSC's human resource policies, which are applied equally to all employees, reinforce the idea that our Team members have much more in common than our surface-level differences (like race and gender) might suggest.

Terminal Integration

1. GPSC is proud to fulfill its social responsibility to maintain a diverse and inclusive workforce. Our workforce reflects the many faces and perspectives in our society, and we take pride in the various walks of life that make up our organization.
2. We recognize that it is our social responsibility to obtain and maintain a workforce that is diverse and inclusive. We encourage all of our employees to respect the various views that result from each individual's culture and experiences, because our differences are an important part of who we are.

Instrumental Integration

1. We at GPSC recognize that employee diversity fuels creativity and flexibility in today's dynamic marketplace. Our work environment fosters the new ideas that come from our employees' diverse perspectives and backgrounds.
2. Diversity and inclusion are key business strategies at GPSC, because everyone has a unique perspective that gives them something to teach us.
3. We understand the need to attract, retain, and motivate people from diverse backgrounds and perspectives, because our employees' differences lead to the creative and innovative ideas that drive our organization's success.

Dual Value Assimilation

1. Diversity is not just the right thing to do; it is the only way to succeed. That's why GPSC is a melting pot of various types of individuals, united under the common mission to offer our customers superior goods and services at low cost. Every employee, regardless of sex, race, religion, national origin, disability, or age, is expected to work toward GPSC's mission.
2. Workforce diversity is important to us in terms of both doing the right thing and using

diversity to enhance the Company's performance. According to GPSC's standard management policies, employees focus on their similarities as they work together to maintain the Company's growth.

Dual Value Integration

1. Workforce diversity is critical in promoting socially responsible business practices and achieving our business goals. That's why we've built a workplace in which our employees' differences are respected and valued, and where everyone can feel comfortable and important just the way they are.
2. GPSC recognizes the importance of diversity, both in achieving our business objectives and in fulfilling our responsibilities to society. We bring unique individual backgrounds together into an inclusive environment that allows us to learn from our many differences.

Assimilation Only (no explicit value type)

1. In attracting and retaining a diverse workforce, we at GPSC believe in focusing not on the differences that divide us, but rather on the similarities that bind us. We hope you'll consider a career here at GPSC.
2. We at GPSC aim to maintain a diverse and productive workforce. We believe that we must set aside our differences and understand that we are all working toward the same goal: to provide only the highest quality products and services to our customers at a competitive price.

Integration Only (no explicit value type)

1. GPSC actively recruits, hires, and promotes men and women of diverse backgrounds to maintain a multicultural work environment.
2. GPSC is committed to diversity in its workforce. We want our organization to be a place where all of our employees can feel respected and valued, especially for the things that make them unique.

Terminal Value Only (no explicit acculturation strategy)

1. GPSC recognizes its moral and legal responsibilities in creating and maintaining a diverse workforce.
2. GPSC is an equal opportunity employer, recognizing that having a diverse workforce is our social responsibility.
3. We believe that having a diverse employee base is a crucial part of upholding our ethical responsibilities, so we promote diversity in all of our practices.

Instrumental Value Only (no explicit acculturation strategy)

1. We believe that diversity fuels innovation and opens us up to many opportunities in the marketplace. We take pride in a workforce characterized by its diversity.
2. Diversity at GPSC is important. We strive to maintain a diverse workforce because it provides us with access to diverse markets and innovative ideas.

Dual Value Only (no explicit acculturation strategy)

1. We at GPSC recognize our social responsibility to maintain a diverse workforce, but

we also recognize the competitive advantage our diversity provides, which is why we strive to maintain a diverse workforce.

2. We believe in fulfilling our responsibility to society by maintaining a diverse workforce. We also believe that maintaining a diverse workforce will enhance our innovative processes, as well as our access to diverse markets.

APPENDIX E
STUDY 2 MEASURES

For each stimulus, participants were presented with the following and asked to respond on a 7-point Likert scale (“strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”).

Organizational Attractiveness

- I would sign up for an interview with this company.
- I would be interested in pursuing a job application with this company.
- I would like to work for this company.

Person-Organization Fit Perceptions

- The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that this organization values.
- My personal values match this organization’s values and culture.
- This organization’s values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life.

For each stimulus, participants were also asked “to what extent do you think this organization is likely to give importance to the following factors in making hiring decisions?” (7-point Likert scale; 1 = “not at all” to 7 = “to a great extent”)

Merit-Based Attributions

- Ability/Skill
- Work Aptitude

Group-Based Attributions

- Sex/Gender
- Race or Ethnicity

Participants were also presented with the demographic characteristics questionnaire and the affirmative action attitude scale from study 1 (see Appendix C).

APPENDIX F

STUDY 2 *POST HOC* INTERACTION TEST RESULTS

Table A1: Study 2, *Post Hoc* Dimension Interaction Test Results^a

Variables	Main Effects Model (DV = Organizational Attractiveness)			Interaction Model (DV = Organizational Attractiveness)		
	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>	Estimate	SE	<i>t</i>
Nationality (1 = foreign)	.37	.39	.95	.37	.26	1.01
Sex (1 = female)	-.24	.19	-1.25	-.06	.18	-.32
Race (1 = minority)	.33	.22	1.53	.36	.20	1.77 [†]
Assimilation Strategy	.33	.08	4.13**	.69	.13	5.15**
Integration Strategy	.34	.07	4.57**	.53	.13	4.16**
Terminal Value	.03	.07	.41	.28	.13	2.19*
Instrumental Value	.25	.05	4.77**	.59	.11	5.37**
Assimilation × Terminal Value	—	—	—	-.31	.12	-2.55*
Assimilation × Instrumental Value	—	—	—	-.48	.12	-4.12**
Integration × Terminal Value	—	—	—	-.17	.11	-1.46
Integration × Instrumental Value	—	—	—	-.28	.11	-2.48*
Terminal × Instrumental Value	—	—	—	-.21	.10	-2.18*
Intercept	4.32	.16	27.50**	4.03	.17	23.88**
Variance Components						
Intercept	1.07			1.44		
Assimilation Slope	.31			1.00		
Integration Slope	.25			.83		
Terminal Value Slope	.22			.92		
Instrumental Value Slope	.08			.53		
Assimilation × Terminal Slope	—			.45		
Assimilation × Instrumental Slope	—			.36		
Integration × Terminal Slope	—			.35		
Integration × Instrumental Slope	—			.32		
Terminal × Instrumental Slope	—			.27		
Level 1 (σ^2)	1.01			.91		
Proportion of Level 1 Variance						
Explained over Demographics Only						
Model	.16			.25		
Proportion of Level 1 Variance						
Explained over Main Effects Model	—			.10		

^a $N = 87$ individuals, 2340 observations.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, † $p < .10$; however, statistical significance should be interpreted with caution, with the understanding that these are the results of *post hoc* analyses.

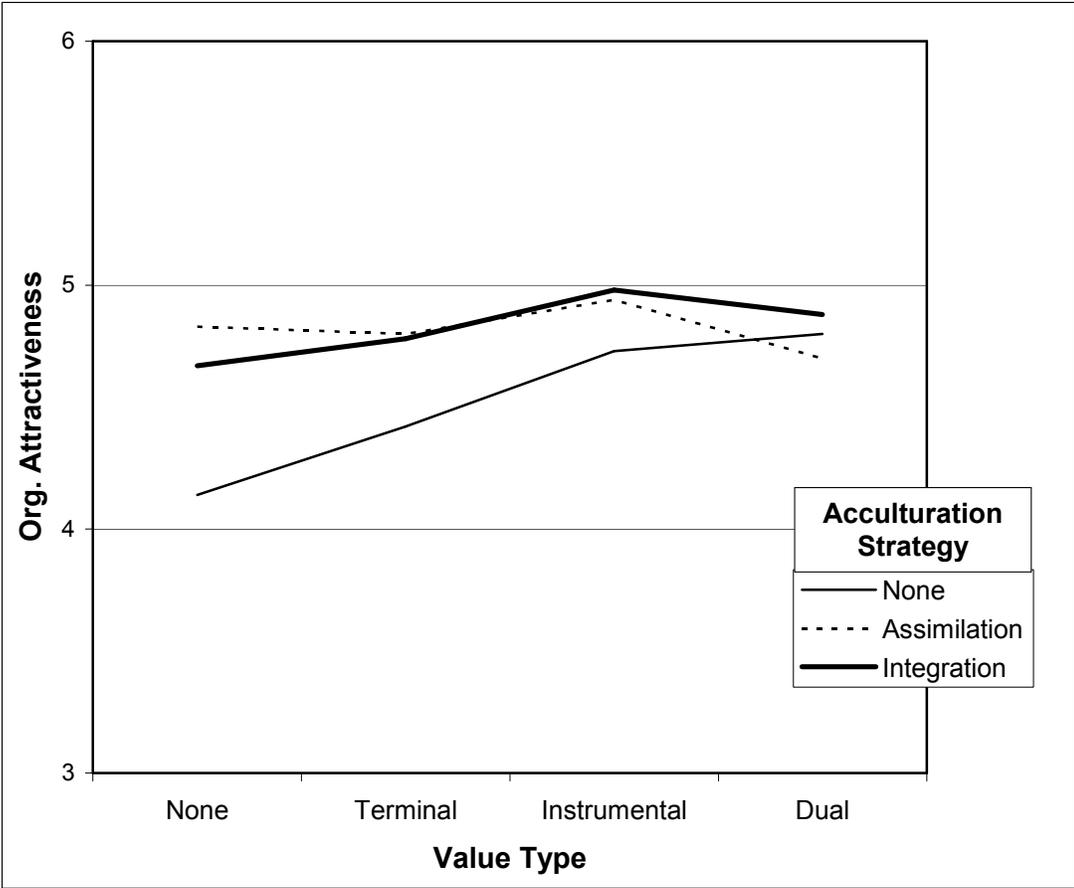


Figure A1: Study 2, *Post Hoc* Dimension Interaction

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