

Running head: MANAGING DIVERSITY

Managing diversity: How organizational efforts to support diversity enhance affective commitment and reduce turnover intent for employees who experience discrimination at work

Cite: Triana, M., García, M. F., Colella, A. (2010) Managing diversity: How organizational efforts to support diversity enhance affective commitment and reduce turnover intent for employees who experience discrimination at work. *Personnel Psychology*, 63, 817-843. doi: 10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01189.x.

"This is the pre-peer reviewed version of the following article which has been published in final form at <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01189.x/abstract>

This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with [Wiley Terms and Conditions for Self-Archiving.](#)"

María del Carmen Triana

The University of Wisconsin – Madison

María Fernanda García

The University of Texas at El Paso

Adrienne Colella

Tulane University

Abstract

Using the Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity and social exchange theory, we examined how the negative effects of perceived racial discrimination on affective commitment can be attenuated by perceived organizational efforts to support diversity. Across three studies, we found that perceptions of workplace racial discrimination are negatively related to affective commitment. However, this negative relationship became weaker as employees perceived more organizational efforts to support diversity. Studies 1 and 2 demonstrated these effects in two employee samples with different demographic characteristics. Study 2 also extended these results by showing that these dynamics ultimately influence turnover intent. Study 3 replicated the findings of Studies 1 and 2 using an experimental design. Results suggest that organizational efforts to support diversity can restore affective commitment for employees who experience racial discrimination at work which, in turn, reduces turnover intent.

Keywords: racial discrimination, diversity, support for diversity, commitment, turnover intent

Managing diversity: How organizational efforts to support diversity enhance affective commitment and reduce turnover intent for employees who experience racial discrimination at work

Much evidence indicates that discrimination in the workplace exists (Dipboye & Colella, 2005; Goldman, Gutek, Stein, & Lewis, 2006; Tomaskovic-Devey, Thomas, & Johnson, 2005). In 2007, the US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission received almost 83,000 discrimination charges, 30,510 of which were race related (EEOC, 2008). Whether real or perceived, workplace racial discrimination is a problem for both the organization and the individuals it employs and can lead to lawsuits. When discrimination suits are filed, organizations face tarnished public images and bottom line implications (King & Spruell, 2001; Pruitt & Nethercutt, 2002; Wentling & Palma-Rivas, 1997). Legal expenses for discrimination suits can be as high as hundreds of millions of dollars (King & Spruell, 2001), with recent examples including a class-action racial discrimination suit against Coca-Cola which was settled for \$192.5 million, another against Texaco settled for \$176.1 million, and another against Shoney's settled for \$132 million (King & Spruell, 2001). When individuals perceive that they have been the victims of discrimination, even if they do not file lawsuits, they suffer dissatisfaction with work (Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000), increased stress and strain (Gee, 2002; Shaffer, Joplin, Bell, Lau, & Oguz, 2000; Waldo, 1999), feelings of lower prestige and power (Gutek, Cohen, & Tsui, 1996), and higher turnover (Robinson & Dechant, 1997).

Because perceived racial discrimination at work persists and has serious effects on both employee and organizational well-being (Cox, 1993; Dipboye & Colella, 2005; Goldman et al., 2006), understanding what to do about racial discrimination at work is important. However, there is little research which examines what organizations can do to mitigate the negative effects of

perceived racial discrimination on employee attitudes. Because turnover rates are particularly high for those employees most likely to experience discrimination (Griffeth & Hom, 2001; McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007; Robinson & Dechant, 1997), we focus on the effects of perceived discrimination on two proximal indicators of turnover, affective commitment and turnover intent (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000), and what may mitigate the effects of discrimination on these attitudes.

Over the past fifteen years, a great deal of research has been conducted on the effects of organizational diversity on various individual and organizational performance indicators (Kochan et al., 2003; Kulik & Roberson, 2008), the efficacy of various diversity management programs (e.g., Kalev, Dobbin, & Kelly, 2006), and the impact of employee perceptions of diversity climate on individual reactions (e.g., Kossek & Zonia, 1993; McKay et al., 2007; Mor Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998; Mor Barak & Levin, 2002). What has been relatively ignored in the diversity literature is the relationship between diversity management and discrimination (Smith, Brief, & Colella, in press). In fact Smith et al. (in press) argue that, to some extent, the focus on diversity research has taken attention away from the more contentious topic of discrimination. Some research has integrated the two issues by implying that those who are most likely to experience discrimination based on sex, race, or ethnic group are most likely to be positively affected by healthy diversity environments (Avery & McKay, 2006; McKay et al., 2007). Others have found that when diversity programs are instituted solely to prevent discrimination from happening, individuals react more negatively than when diversity programs are instituted for learning and growth reasons (Ely & Thomas, 2001). What is not well understood, however, is the extent to which organizational support for diversity can mitigate the negative effects of perceived racial discrimination. Our study addresses this issue. In particular,

we examine the extent to which people who perceive that they have experienced racial discrimination from individuals they interact with at work still feel affectively committed to the organization, provided that the organization as a whole is seen as supporting diversity.

This study is important both practically and theoretically for three reasons. First, we make a theoretical contribution to the diversity literature by uncovering an important moderator in the relationship between racial discrimination and organizational commitment. We use Cox's (1993) Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity as our primary theoretical framework. This model describes how discrimination within organizations influences individual outcomes and, ultimately, organizational outcomes. We extend this model by demonstrating that perceived support for diversity is an important moderator which helps attenuate the harmful effects of racial discrimination on affective commitment and ultimately on turnover intent. This represents an important theoretical extension to the Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity which has not been empirically tested before. Second, our study also has important practical implications. Because organizations cannot control all the individual-to-individual interactions which may be perceived as being discriminatory, it is important to examine what an organization can do to mitigate the harmful effects of such discriminatory encounters. Third, this study makes an empirical contribution to the diversity literature. Affective commitment and turnover intent are important outcome variables to consider, because they are proximal indicators of turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000). Across three studies with very different samples, and using two different methods, the present study provides evidence that perceptions of organizational support for diversity can mitigate the negative effects of perceived racial discrimination on affective commitment. In addition, across two of the three studies, using both survey and experimental designs, we demonstrate a mediated moderation whereby the interaction effect of perceived

racial discrimination and perceived organizational efforts to support diversity are transmitted to turnover intent through affective commitment. Neither of these empirical findings has been shown before in the diversity literature.

Theory and Hypotheses

We first propose a negative relationship between discrimination, defined as denying certain people equality of treatment (Allport 1954), and work attitudes. The Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity provides a general framework to understand this relationship. Specifically, the model shows how diversity climates within organizations influence individual outcomes, and ultimately, organizational outcomes (Cox, 1993). It is important to note that although the model specifically refers to cultural diversity in its title, Cox intended for this model to generalize to many forms of diversity including racial/ethnic diversity, sex diversity, and other forms of diversity (Cox, 1993). The Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity maintains that experiencing discrimination in the workplace should lead to a decrease in affective outcomes (Cox, 1993). One such affective outcome is affective commitment to the organization. Affective commitment is defined as “the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). As people experience negative acts at work, such as racial discrimination, they are likely to associate work with negative feelings and become less affectively committed to their employer. Consistent with this idea, research has shown that negative exchanges at work lead to lower affective commitment (Herrbach, 2006).

This rationale is also consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1961), which posits that social behavior is an exchange. Gouldner (1960) referred to this social exchange process as a norm of reciprocity, which says that we should return help, not harm, to those who help us. These same exchange processes and reciprocity norms hold true in the

relationships between employers and employees. When employees perceive that they are being discriminated against at work, this should trigger negative exchanges because it emphasizes the norm of negative reciprocity (Fehr & Gächter, 2000; Helm, Bonoma, & Tedeschi, 1972; Sahlins, 1965). In other words, exchanges of negative acts and disdain are also a form of social exchange. We argue that negative experiences at work should gradually erode affective commitment to the organization, because as negative experiences accumulate they will lead employees to harbor more negative feelings toward the organization as a whole. This is consistent with previous work which has shown that perceived discrimination at work (using a combined measure of race and sex discrimination) from either supervisors or coworkers is negatively related to affective commitment (Ensher, Grant-Vallone, & Donaldson, 2001). Thus, based on previous research findings, the Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity, and social exchange theory, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 1: Perceptions of racial discrimination at work will be negatively related to affective commitment.

Organizations need to do whatever they can to counteract the negative effects of perceived racial discrimination on affective commitment. In this line of research, McKay et al. (2007) argued that diversity climate perceptions at work should increase organizational commitment. Furthermore, they argued that the strength of this relationship should be strongest for Blacks, followed by Hispanics and then Whites. The reason for this prediction is that those who are most likely to be discriminated against care the most about diversity. In terms of racial identities, research has found that the order of strength of racial identification is that Blacks have the strongest identification, followed by Hispanics, Asians, and then Whites (Phinney, 1992). This corresponds with the ordering of experiences of discrimination among each demographic

group (Utsey, Chae, Brown, & Kelly, 2002). Thus, McKay et al. (2007) argued that the workplace diversity climate perceptions of Blacks should be more strongly related to organizational commitment and turnover intent than those of Hispanics and Whites (in descending order). Their results were only partially supported in that the relationship between workplace diversity climate perceptions and affective commitment to the organization was actually stronger for Whites than for Hispanics. These mixed results are probably associated with the authors' assumption that individuals had greater experience with discrimination based on their demographic group, without actually measuring perceptions of discrimination at work. We *do* measure perceived racial discrimination at work in the present study.

We argue that the negative relationship between perceived discrimination at work and affective commitment to the organization will be weaker when the employee also perceives that organizational efforts to support diversity are high. In this study, we define *organizational efforts to support diversity* as an employee's perceptions that the actions of the organization demonstrate that the organization values and promotes diversity. Our definition is based on previous research investigating diversity climate, a related topic (Cox, 1993; Gelfand, Nishii, Raver & Schneider, 2005; Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Mor Barak et al., 1998; Nishii & Raver, 2003). By contrast, however, our definition of organizational efforts to support diversity is narrower than definitions of diversity climate. In particular, while diversity climate has been defined to include individual attitudes (Kossek & Zonia, 1993) and acts by managers directed at minority group members (Mor Barak et al., 1998), we are concerned with employees' overall perceptions of organizational practices pertaining to diversity management. Simply stated, we focus on employees' general perceptions of organizational efforts to support diversity instead of specific acts committed by managers.

The Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity argues that the diversity climate within an organization influences individual affective outcomes (e.g., affective commitment) which ultimately influence organizational effectiveness. The Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity states that an employee's idea of what the diversity climate is within their organization can include not only individual-level factors such as perceived discrimination, but also organizational-level factors such as perceived institutional bias. The Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity treats both of these variables as predictors of individual affective outcomes. We agree with the Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity. However, we also propose an important extension to the Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity. Rather than looking at institutional-level bias as a predictor, we look at institutional-level support for diversity. We propose that institutional-level support for diversity interacts with perceived racial discrimination to attenuate the negative effects of racial discrimination on affective commitment.

This rationale is supported by social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Homans, 1961). We predict that when employees believe the organization is making an effort to value all employees, feelings of a positive social exchange between the employee and the organization will be restored. As this happens, employees are more likely to feel an emotional/affective connection with their employers (Meyer & Allen, 1991). In other words, the employee could construe perceptions that the organization values diversity as a form of positive social exchange on behalf of the organization. This is consistent with Blau (1964), who described social approval and respect (both things that people desire) as constituting positive exchanges which then obligate the recipient of the actions to reciprocate in the future. Perceiving that there are strong organizational efforts to support diversity is one way in which favorable exchanges on the part of the organization are evident. This can then help override

negative feelings associated with specific discriminatory incidents with certain individuals at work, thus preventing negative reactions towards the perpetrator of the discrimination from generalizing to the organization. However, when organizational efforts to support diversity are not evident, then negative reactions resulting from discriminatory incidents can generalize to influence affective commitment toward the organization as a whole. Therefore, based on theory and related empirical evidence (Blau, 1964; Cox, 1993; McKay et al., 2007) we state that:

Hypothesis 2: The negative relationship between perceived racial discrimination at work and affective commitment will be moderated by perceived organizational efforts to support diversity such that the negative relationship is weaker when employees perceive that organizational efforts to support diversity are present.

Methods

Study 1

Participants and Procedure

Full-time employees were recruited through StudyResponse.org (hereafter referred to simply as StudyResponse) to answer an Internet survey. StudyResponse is a service with more than 95,000 registered individuals who agree to receive solicitations to answer scholarly research surveys in exchange for prizes such as gift certificates to Amazon.com. Research conducted by Stanton (1998) supports the validity of data collected through the Internet. A condition for participating in the study was that participants had to be U.S. residents and employed full-time. A total of 1,150 people, of whom 179 answered the survey, were randomly selected from the StudyResponse database and invited to participate. This represents a response rate of 15.57%, which is within the typical range for research conducted over the Internet. This response rate is

also similar to that of published work using samples from StudyResponse, including Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) and Nadler (2005), both of which reported response rates of 15%.

Because of the number of non-respondents, we ran analyses to check for non-response bias (checking whether there were any significant differences between those who responded to the survey and those who did not among the 1,150 employees who were solicited in the original StudyResponse email). StudyResponse provided us with a few demographic characteristics of all employees solicited, including race, sex, and age. A *t* test indicated that those who responded to the survey were older ($M = 37.97$, $SD = 10.26$) than those who did not respond ($M = 35.06$, $SD = 10.28$), $t(1148) = -3.47$, $p \leq .01$. Females were more likely to answer the survey than males, [$\chi^2(1) = 19.42$, $p \leq .01$]. Caucasians were more likely to answer the survey than non-Caucasians [$\chi^2(1) = 13.69$, $p \leq .01$].

The variables in this study were collected as part of a larger data collection that was conducted in two phases. With the exception of the demographics, none of the variables used in this study overlap with the other study. Employee demographics were collected during Phase 1 via a web survey. Approximately two weeks later, the same individuals received an email inviting them to participate in Phase 2 of the study, which was also a web survey. The Phase 2 survey included our measures for this study.

Of the 179 employees who participated in Phase 1, 76 did not answer Phase 2. Therefore, our final sample consisted of 103 employed participants from the U.S. Females constituted 73% of the sample and males 27%. The majority of participants were Caucasian (94%), 4% were Hispanic, 1% were African American, and 1% were Native American. The average age was 39 years, and 100% of the participants were currently employed full-time. Average years of full-time work experience was 18 years, and the average tenure at the current

company was 7.5 years. In terms of education, 14% reported having a high school diploma, 35% had some college, 38% had a college degree, 11% had a graduate degree, and 2% had a doctorate. Participants worked in many different occupations, including administrative support (11%), education (10%), health and safety (8%), retail (7%), government (6%), management (5%), legal (5%), and many others. Finally, 8% of the sample had a disability.

Again, because some participants did not completely answer both phases of the survey, we ran a chi-square analysis to test whether participants who did not answer Phase 2 (instead of both parts of the survey) differed significantly on any demographics collected in Phase 1. Results showed no significant differences on sex [$\chi^2(1) = 1.05, p \geq .05$] or race [$\chi^2(1) = 2.08, p \geq .05$]. There were also no differences in age between those completing both phases ($M = 37.14, SD = 10.17$) and those completing only Phase 1 ($M = 38.66, SD = 10.42$), $t(177) = -.96, p \geq .05$.

Measures

Perceived workplace racial discrimination. To measure perceptions of workplace racial discrimination, we used five items from James, Lovato, and Cropanzano's (1994) Workplace Prejudice/Discrimination Inventory. These items were selected for their high factor loadings in James et al.'s original scale development and because these are the items from the scale which most clearly tap racial discrimination directed towards oneself. A sample item is "At my present place of employment, people of other racial/ethnic groups do not tell me some job-related information that they share with members of their own group." Participants indicated the extent to which they agreed with each item on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*). The reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .85$ (Cronbach, 1951).

Perceived organizational efforts to support diversity. To measure perceived organizational efforts to support diversity, we used the three-item Managing Diversity factor

from Hegarty and Dalton's (1995) Organizational Diversity Inventory. A sample item is "My organization has sponsored classes, workshops, and/or seminars on managing the diverse workforce." Participants indicated how much agreed with each item on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*). Reliability for the scale was $\alpha = .75$.

Affective commitment. Affective commitment to the organization was measured using Allen and Meyer's (1990) eight-item measure. A sample item is "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization." Participants indicated the extent to which they agreed with each item on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*). The reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .89$.

Covariates. Previous research shows that lower status group members who tend to experience more discrimination also tend to react more positively to diversity efforts than males and Caucasians (Mor Barak et al., 1998; Mor Barak & Levin, 2002). Therefore, we controlled for participants' sex, their racial majority status (i.e., Caucasian), and whether they had a disability. Sex was coded as 0 = female and 1 = male. Race was coded such that 0 = non-Caucasian and 1 = Caucasian. Disability was coded such that 0 = no disability and 1 = disability.

Preliminary Analyses

Because we collected our measures in a cross-sectional manner, we subjected all of the items to a confirmatory factor analysis in LISREL (8.52) to show the discriminant validity of the measures. The results indicated that a three-factor solution (perceived workplace racial discrimination, perceived organizational efforts to support diversity, and affective commitment) was a good fit for the data using the benchmark provided by Kline (2005) ($\chi^2 = 224.40$, $df = 101$, $CFI = .91$, $IFI = .92$, $SRMR = .10$). In addition, a three-factor solution was a significantly better fit to the data than a two-factor solution in which perceived workplace racial discrimination

formed one factor while perceived efforts to support diversity and affective commitment formed a second factor ($\chi^2 = 304.52$, $df = 103$, $CFI = .86$, $IFI = .86$, $SRMR = .12$; $\Delta \chi^2 = 80.12$, $df = 2$, $p \leq .05$). A three-factor solution was also a better fit to the data than a one-factor solution ($\chi^2 = 498.29$, $df = 104$, $CFI = .72$, $IFI = .73$, $SRMR = .17$; $\Delta \chi^2 = 273.89$, $df = 3$, $p \leq .05$). We also found support for the discriminant validity of our variables using Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) technique where each possible pair of variables is estimated with the relationship between them fixed to 1 in one analysis and freely estimated in another analysis (results available from first author). Overall, these analyses provide evidence for the validity of the measures in our study.

Hypothesis Testing

See Table 1 for means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations for all variables. As expected, the bivariate correlations show that perceptions of racial discrimination ($r = -.37$, $p \leq .01$) are negatively related to affective commitment but that perceived organizational efforts to support diversity are positively related to affective commitment ($r = .24$, $p \leq .01$). We conducted a hierarchical multiple regression analysis to test Hypotheses 1 and 2. Following Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003), the variables in the interaction term were centered to test for moderation. The regression analysis consisted of four steps (see Table 2 for the results). In Step 1, the control variables sex, race, and whether the person had a disability were entered. This step was not statistically significant ($R^2 = .04$). In Step 2, we added perceptions of racial discrimination at work. The results of this step were significant ($R^2 = .17$; $\Delta R^2 = .13$). This step demonstrated that perceived workplace racial discrimination has a significant negative relationship with affective commitment ($\beta = -.37$, $p \leq .01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was supported. In Step 3, we added perceived organizational efforts to support diversity. The results of this step were statistically significant ($R^2 = .21$; $\Delta R^2 = .04$). To test for Hypothesis 2, the two-

way interaction between perceived efforts to support diversity and perceived workplace racial discrimination was entered in Step 4. The results of this step showed that the interaction term was significantly related to affective commitment ($\beta = .19, p \leq .05$) and explained a significant amount of variance in affective commitment beyond the other variables ($R^2 = .24, \Delta R^2 = .03$). See Figure 1 for a plot of the interaction.

Discussion

Overall, the results of the study show support for our hypotheses. As predicted by Hypothesis 1, we obtained results consistent with Ensher et al. (2001) and Hicks-Clarke and Iles (2000) by showing that perceived racial discrimination at work is negatively related to affective commitment to the organization. This is consistent with previous work on affective commitment which indicates that the work experiences that one has on the job are a key antecedent of commitment (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). If people are being mistreated by certain individuals in their organization, this may ultimately influence the way they feel about the organization as a whole and lead to less affective commitment. This is also consistent with the Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity (Cox, 1993). However, as predicted by Hypothesis 2, this negative outcome is attenuated by perceptions of organizational efforts to support diversity. This is consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Homans, 1961), because as the organization seems to show an honest effort to value all employees, perceptions of mutual respect and positive exchange should help reinstate an employee's feeling that they are in a reciprocal relationship with their employer.

One limitation of this study is that although we had a sample of full-time employees, the sample was fairly homogenous in terms of racial/ethnic makeup (94% Caucasian). This limits the generalizability of the study to other racial groups. Interestingly, because the sample was

predominantly Caucasian (the highest status racial group in the U.S.), this sample provides a conservative test for our hypotheses. This also supports the notion that anyone can feel discriminated against and is consistent with a recent review of workplace discrimination in the U.S. which points out that Caucasians filed 25% of the charges in the year 2005 seeking protection under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act (Goldman et al., 2006). In fact, Caucasians filed 7% of the claims based on color, 9% of the race-related claims, and 28% of the national origin claims (Goldman et al., 2006). Furthermore, although our sample is not representative of the broader population, Goldman et al. (2006) also state that even samples examining discrimination that are biased can be valuable because they shed light on a sensitive subject where data are difficult to collect. Still, we must acknowledge that other racial groups may respond differently to perceived discrimination and organizational efforts to support diversity (McKay et al., 2007). Therefore, our results are best generalized to Caucasians working full-time in the United States. Because of this limitation, we sought to build more confidence in the generalizability of our findings by conducting a similar study on a sample of predominantly ethnic and racial minorities.

Study 2

The purpose of this study was to replicate the results of Study 1 in a predominantly minority sample. Specifically, we investigated the effect of racial discrimination on affective commitment and how perceived efforts to support diversity can attenuate this effect. In addition, we also extended Study 1 by including turnover intent as a dependent variable in Study 2.

When employees have experienced racial discrimination at work, they are likely to experience negative emotions at work, which results in lower affective commitment (Herrbach, 2006; Mowday et al., 1982). Empirical evidence shows that employees who report experiencing

discrimination at work have lower levels of affective commitment (Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000). We confirmed in Study 1 that perceived racial discrimination reduces affective commitment.

Furthermore, consistent with the Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity (Cox, 1993) which argues that the diversity climate in an organization influences individual affective outcomes, and ultimately, organizational outcomes like turnover, we believe that the effect of perceived workplace racial discrimination on turnover intent is likely to be mediated by affective commitment. This is consistent with meta-analyses which have shown that affective commitment is a proximal indicator of turnover¹ (Griffeth et al., 2000). Discrimination leads employees to feel less attached and committed to their organizations, which, in turn, influences turnover intent. However, because turnover intent is known to have other proximal antecedents including job satisfaction (Griffeth et al., 2000), we believe that affective commitment will only partially mediate this relationship. Therefore, we propose:

Hypothesis 3: Affective commitment will partially mediate the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and turnover intent.

Similarly, we also propose a mediated moderation whereby the interaction effect of perceived racial discrimination and perceived organizational efforts to support diversity will be transmitted to turnover intent through affective commitment. As discussed in Hypothesis 2, we believe that the level of affective commitment for people who perceive racial discrimination will be dependent upon the level of perceived organizational efforts to support diversity. People who perceive racial discrimination but not organizational support for diversity, should have lower affective commitment and this, in turn, will lead to higher turnover intent. On the other hand, people who perceive racial discrimination and do believe the organization supports diversity are more likely to feel affectively committed to the organization and, in turn, have lower turnover

intent. Again, because turnover intent has other proximal antecedents (Griffeth et al., 2000), we believe affective commitment will partially mediate this relationship. Therefore, we propose:

Hypothesis 4: The interaction effect of perceived racial discrimination and perceived organizational efforts to support diversity on turnover intent will be partially mediated by affective commitment.

Participants and Procedure

Employed participants were recruited from Master of Business Administration (MBA) classes and upper-division undergraduate business courses at a large public university in the southern United States. This particular university is known for having an older than average student body, most of whom are employed. Researchers went to the classrooms and invited people to participate in the survey in exchange for extra credit in the classes. Students were given a link to complete the web survey. Almost everyone in the classes participated. Of the 199 participants, 28 were not employed and were therefore removed from the sample. Thus, 171 employees provided a full set of data and these participants constituted the sample.

Most participants (89%) were minorities.² The majority of participants were Hispanic (80%), 11% were Caucasian, 4% were Asian American, 2% were Native American, 1% were African American, and 2% were biracial minorities. Most participants were males (56%) and graduate students (54%). The average age was 29 years. Average years of full-time work experience was 8.6 years.

The city in which the university is located has well over half a million residents and is located along the border of the United States and Mexico. The majority of the residents in this city are Hispanic. However, the U.S. Census 2000 data indicate a clear difference between the minorities and the Caucasians in this city in terms of overall social status, including participation

in the labor force, family income, ownership of homes, and value of homes. Overall, minorities are in a lower socioeconomic status than Caucasians.

Measures

Perceived workplace racial discrimination. To measure racial discrimination, we used the same five items from James et al. (1994) used in Study 1. A sample item is “At my present place of employment, people of other racial/ethnic groups do not tell me some job-related information that they share with members of their own group.” Participants indicated the extent to which they agreed with each item on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*). The reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .89$.

Perceived organizational efforts to support diversity. To measure perceived organizational efforts to support diversity, we used two items from the Managing Diversity factor of Hegarty and Dalton’s (1995) Organizational Diversity Inventory. The items are: “My organization has sponsored classes, workshops, and/or seminars on managing the diverse workforce” and “Managing diversity has helped my organization to be more effective.” In addition, we wrote our own third item, “My organization puts a lot of effort into diversity management.” Participants indicated how much they agreed with each item on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*). Reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .78$.

Affective commitment. Affective commitment to the organization was measured using Allen and Meyer’s (1990) eight-item measure. Participants indicated the extent to which they agreed with each item on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*). The reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .81$.

Turnover intent. This was measured with Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis, and Cammann’s (1982) three-item measure. A sample item is “I often think about quitting.” Participants

indicated the extent to which they agreed with each item on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*). The reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .82$.

Covariates. As in Study 1, we controlled for sex and race. Sex was coded as 0 = male and 1 = female. Minority status was coded such that 0 = non-minority and 1 = minority. We also controlled for whether the participant was a graduate or an undergraduate student, because higher status individuals have more control and influence in organizations and they may experience less discrimination in groups than lower status individuals (Berger, Cohen, & Zelditch, 1972; Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000; Holtgraves, 1986) and thus be more committed to the organization. Graduate status was coded as 0 = undergraduate and 1 = graduate.

Preliminary Analyses

Because we collected our measures in a cross-sectional manner, we subjected all of the items to a confirmatory factor analysis in LISREL (8.52) to show the discriminant validity of the measures. The results indicated that a four-factor solution (perceived workplace racial discrimination, perceived organizational efforts to support diversity, affective commitment, and turnover intent) was a good fit for the data using the benchmark provided by Kline (2005) ($\chi^2 = 304.10$, $df = 146$, CFI = .94, IFI = .94, SRMR = .08). In addition, a four-factor solution was a significantly better fit to the data than a three-factor solution where affective commitment and perceived efforts to support diversity formed one factor, perceived racial discrimination formed a second factor, and turnover intent formed a third factor ($\chi^2 = 446.23$, $df = 149$, CFI = .89, IFI = .89, SRMR = .10; $\Delta \chi^2 = 142.13$, $df = 3$, $p \leq .05$). A four-factor solution was also a better fit to the data than a two-factor solution where perceived efforts to support diversity and affective commitment formed one factor while perceived workplace racial discrimination and turnover intent were loaded onto another factor ($\chi^2 = 846.26$, $df = 151$, CFI = .74, IFI = .75, SRMR = .16;

$\Delta \chi^2 = 542.16$, $df = 5$, $p \leq .05$). Finally, a four-factor solution was a better fit to the data than a one-factor solution ($\chi^2 = 1193.09$, $df = 152$, $CFI = .62$, $IFI = .62$, $SRMR = .15$; $\Delta \chi^2 = 888.99$, $df = 6$, $p \leq .05$). We also found support for the discriminant validity of all possible pairs of variables (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). (Results available from first author).

Hypothesis Testing

See Table 3 for means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations for all variables. As expected, the bivariate correlations show that perceptions of racial discrimination are negatively related to affective commitment ($r = -.27$, $p \leq .01$) and positively related to turnover intent ($r = .33$, $p \leq .01$). Perceived organizational efforts to support diversity are positively related to affective commitment ($r = .25$, $p \leq .01$) and negatively related to turnover intent ($r = -.20$, $p \leq .01$). We conducted a hierarchical multiple regression analysis to test Hypotheses 1 and 2. Following Cohen et al. (2003), the variables in the interaction term were centered to test for moderation. The regression analysis consisted of four steps (see Table 4 for the results). In Step 1, the control variables sex, race, and whether the person was a graduate student were entered. This step was not statistically significant ($R^2 = .03$). In Step 2, we added perceptions of racial discrimination at work. The results of this step were significant ($R^2 = .12$; $\Delta R^2 = .09$). This step demonstrated that perceived workplace racial discrimination has a significant negative relationship with affective commitment ($\beta = -.30$, $p \leq .01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was supported. In Step 3, we added perceived organizational efforts to support diversity. The results of this step were statistically significant ($R^2 = .17$; $\Delta R^2 = .05$). To test for Hypothesis 2, the two-way interaction between perceived efforts to support diversity and perceived workplace racial discrimination was entered in Step 4. The results of this step showed that the interaction term was significantly related to affective commitment ($\beta = .15$, $p \leq .05$) and explained a significant

amount of variance in affective commitment beyond the other variables ($R^2 = .19$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$). See Figure 2 for a plot of the interaction.

To test Hypothesis 3 which proposed that affective commitment partially mediates the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and turnover intent, we conducted a path analysis including all the variables in the model. Because the model to be tested included both moderation and mediation, we relied on the work of Edwards and Lambert (2007), which provided guidelines about integrating tests of moderation and mediation in path analysis.³ See Figure 3 for the path model with standardized path coefficients.

Furthermore, to test for mediation, we followed Baron and Kenny's (1986) four-step method. First, the independent variable must be related to the dependent variable (Step 1). Second, the independent variable must be related to the mediator (Step 2). Third, the mediator must be related to the dependent variable while controlling for the independent variable (Step 3). Finally, a previously significant relationship between the independent and dependent variables must be reduced in the presence of the mediator (Step 4). If the coefficient between the independent and dependent variables is reduced or drops in significance, then partial mediation is supported. If the coefficient loses significance, then full mediation is supported.

The results of the path analysis showed that the model fit was good ($\chi^2 = 21.33$, $df = 15$, $CFI = .95$, $IFI = .96$, $SRMR = .06$). The total effect of perceived racial discrimination on turnover intent was $.29$ ($t = 4.03$, $p \leq .05$), which fulfills Step 1 of Baron and Kenny's test. The effect of perceived racial discrimination on affective commitment was $-.21$ ($t = -2.91$, $p \leq .05$) which fulfills Step 2. The effect of affective commitment on turnover intent was $-.57$ ($t = -9.03$, $p \leq .05$), which fulfills Step 3. Finally, the indirect effect of perceived racial discrimination on turnover intent through affective commitment was $.12$ and significant per Sobel's test ($-.21 \times -$

.57; $z = 2.77, p \leq .05$) while the direct effect was .17 ($t = 2.82, p \leq .05$). Therefore, the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and turnover intent was partially mediated by affective commitment, and Hypothesis 3 was supported.

The same process was used in order to test Hypothesis 4 which stated that the interaction effect of perceived racial discrimination and organizational efforts to support diversity on turnover intent would be partially mediated by affective commitment. The results of the path analysis showed that the total effect of the interaction term on turnover intent was -.08 which was not significant ($t = -1.07, p \geq .05$). This means that Step 1 of the Baron and Kenny method was not supported and that mediation was not supported. However, Baron and Kenny's causal steps approach to testing for mediation is just one of many ways to test for intervening variables (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). In fact, MacKinnon and coauthors reviewed 14 different tests for intervening variables and concluded that the causal steps approach was among the lowest powered of all the tests. Sobel's (1982) product of coefficients approach has much higher power to test for indirect effects (MacKinnon et al., 2002) and has been recommended for testing indirect effects when mediation cannot be fulfilled because Step 1 in Baron and Kenny's causal steps approach is not supported (Collins, Graham, & Flaherty, 1998; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Results of the path analysis showed that the indirect effect of the interaction term on turnover intentions was -.08 (.15 * -.57) which is statistically significant according to Sobel's test ($z = -2.09, p \leq .05$). Therefore, we found mixed support for Hypothesis 4. While mediation was not supported, we did find support for an indirect effect.

Discussion

This study confirmed the findings in Study 1, providing replication of those findings in a sample that is largely minority. This provides more evidence for the generalizability of the

finding that organizational efforts to support diversity can mitigate the negative effects of perceived racial discrimination on affective commitment. Study 2 also extended the findings in Study 1 by showing that the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and turnover intent is partially mediated by affective commitment. The fact that organizational efforts to support diversity can help weaken the negative effect of perceived discrimination on affective commitment has important managerial implications. It is interesting to note that the interaction term (perceived racial discrimination x perceived efforts to support diversity) had a significant negative indirect effect on turnover intentions. This finding is especially interesting in a sample of predominately minority employees, because prior research has shown that those who are most likely to experience discrimination at work also tend to have higher turnover rates (Griffeth & Hom, 2001; McKay et al., 2007; Robinson & Dechant, 1997). Our findings suggest that this problem may be reduced if the employee perceives that the organization values diversity. Finally, this study may again be a conservative test because minorities in this city are the majority of the population and may have fewer instances of racial discrimination as a result.

In spite of the replication in a mostly minority sample, one limitation of both Studies 1 and 2 is that the data were collected in a cross-sectional manner using a survey. Therefore, we are limited in our ability to infer a causal relationship from perceived racial discrimination to affective commitment rather than the other way around. It is possible that people who are not committed to the organization view events through negative lenses and begin to see more problems in the workplace, perhaps even discrimination. For this reason, we decided to conduct a vignette-based experiment in Study 3.

Study 3

The purpose of this study was to replicate the findings of Studies 1 and 2 using an

experimental design in order to strengthen our argument for the order of the causal relationships in the hypotheses.

Participants

Participants were 135 undergraduate students enrolled in a business class at a large southern university. The mean age of our participants was 21 years, and 56% of the participants were women. The majority of the participants were Caucasian (82%), 14% were Hispanic, 2% were African-American, and 2% were Asian. Most were currently employed (54%) and 95% reported having at least some part-time work experience. Participants earned extra credit points in their business course for their participation in the study.

Design and Procedure

The study incorporated a 2 (racial discrimination: high or low) \times 2 (organizational efforts to support diversity: high or low) between-participants design. The study was conducted in two phases. Demographics were collected via a web survey during Phase 1. In Phase 2 of the study, which took place a few weeks later, participants came to a classroom where they received a packet with the stimulus materials. Participants were randomly assigned to read one of the four vignettes that contained the manipulations. They then completed the survey with our manipulation checks and dependent variables, were thanked for their participation, and were free to go. Participants were asked to imagine themselves in the scenario that followed and to answer the questions as if they had experienced the situation. First, we presented participants with the following short introduction to the vignette:

You work for a large high-tech company. Your job is challenging and rewarding, and it requires you to interact with many people at work. You generally enjoy going to work and accomplishing your tasks on a daily basis. The company you work for is diverse and there are a number of different ethnic groups represented. Within your particular work group, all of your coworkers are members of another race/ethnic group which is different from your own race/ethnic group.

Then, we manipulated racial discrimination using the following description. Words in parentheses represent the only changes between the high and low discrimination scenarios:

You have noticed that when your coworkers go out to lunch together, they (always/never) invite you. In addition, (when they give each other work-related information they also share that information with you / they also give each other work-related information that they do not share with you).

Next, we manipulated organizational efforts to support diversity. Words in parentheses represent the high support/low support for diversity manipulation.

The company is very diverse, as reflected in the workforce composition. The human resources department and upper level management (have/have never) openly discussed the importance of diversity. They (have/have not) promoted an inclusive environment that respects people from all different backgrounds. Furthermore, you (are/are not) aware of diversity initiatives and diversity training being conducted by the human resources department within your company.

Dependent Variables, Manipulation Checks, and Covariates

Affective commitment. Affective commitment to the organization was measured using Allen and Meyer's (1990) eight-item measure. Participants indicated the extent to which they agreed with each item on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*). The reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .91$.

Turnover intent. As in Study 2, turnover intent was measured using Seashore et al.'s (1982) measure. Participants indicated how much they agreed with each item on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*). Reliability was $\alpha = .94$.

Manipulation checks. To test whether the discrimination high/low manipulation worked, we used the same measure from James et al.'s (1994) Workplace Prejudice/Discrimination Inventory that was described in Study 2. Participants indicated the extent to which they agreed with each item on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*). The reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .93$. To measure perceived organizational efforts to support

diversity, we used the same items described in Study 2. Items were measured on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 6 = *strongly agree*). Reliability was $\alpha = .90$.

Covariates. We controlled for participant sex and race. Sex was coded as 0 = female and 1 = male. Race was coded as 0 = non-Caucasian and 1 = Caucasian.

Preliminary Analyses

Because we collected several measures at once, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis in LISREL (8.52) to show the discriminant validity of the measures. The results indicated that a four-factor solution (perceived workplace racial discrimination, perceived organizational efforts to support diversity, affective commitment, and turnover intent) was a good fit for the data using the benchmark provided by Kline (2005) ($\chi^2 = 295.52$, $df = 146$, CFI = .97, IFI = .97, SRMR = .09). In addition, a four-factor solution was a significantly better fit to the data than a three-factor solution where affective commitment and perceived efforts to support diversity formed one factor, perceived racial discrimination formed a second factor, and turnover intent formed a third factor ($\chi^2 = 463.43$, $df = 149$, CFI = .94, IFI = .94, SRMR = .09; $\Delta \chi^2 = 167.91$, $df = 3$, $p \leq .05$). A four-factor solution was also a better fit to the data than a two-factor solution where perceived efforts to support diversity and affective commitment formed one factor while perceived workplace racial discrimination and turnover intent were loaded onto another factor ($\chi^2 = 737.91$, $df = 151$, CFI = .89, IFI = .89, SRMR = .12; $\Delta \chi^2 = 442.39$, $df = 5$, $p \leq .05$). Finally, a four-factor solution was a better fit to the data than a one-factor solution ($\chi^2 = 915.27$, $df = 152$, CFI = .85, IFI = .85, SRMR = .12; $\Delta \chi^2 = 619.75$, $df = 6$, $p \leq .05$). We also found support for the discriminant validity of all possible pairs of variables (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; results available from first author).

Results

Manipulation checks. Responses to the manipulation checks indicated that our manipulations were successful. Those in the high racial discrimination conditions ($M = 3.67$, $SD = 1.34$) reported more racial discrimination than those in the low racial discrimination conditions ($M = 1.86$, $SD = .82$), $t(133) = -9.52$, $p \leq .05$. Also, those in the high efforts to support diversity conditions ($M = 4.29$, $SD = 1.09$) reported higher levels of organizational support for diversity than those in low support for diversity conditions ($M = 2.54$, $SD = 1.07$), $t(133) = -9.39$, $p \leq .05$.

Test of hypotheses. A univariate analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to test Hypotheses 1 and 2. Sex had no significant effect on affective commitment $F(1,129) = 1.07$, $p \geq .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$. Race had no significant effect on affective commitment either $F(1,129) = .030$, $p \geq .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .00$. Discrimination had a significant main effect on affective commitment $F(1,129) = 90.19$, $p \leq .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .41$. An inspection of the means shows that high racial discrimination resulted in significantly lower affective commitment ($M = 2.95$, $SD = 1.09$) than low racial discrimination ($M = 4.95$, $SD = 1.00$), supporting Hypothesis 1. Efforts to support diversity also had a significant main effect on affective commitment $F(1,129) = 9.91$, $p \leq .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .07$. The means were also in the expected direction, with low support for diversity resulting in lower affective commitment ($M = 3.51$, $SD = 1.30$) than high support for diversity ($M = 4.06$, $SD = 1.31$). Finally, the interaction term of racial discrimination and efforts to support diversity had a significant effect on affective commitment $F(1,129) = 4.48$, $p \leq .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$), supporting Hypothesis 2 (see Table 5 for the means and Figure 4 for a plot of the interaction).

To test Hypothesis 3, we ran a path analysis. See Table 6 for means, standard deviations, and correlations for Study 3. See Figure 5 for the path model with standardized path coefficients. The results showed that the model fit was good ($\chi^2 = 4.99$, $df = 11$, $CFI = 1.00$, IFI

= 1.00, SRMR = .03). The total effect of racial discrimination on turnover intent was .51 ($t = 7.88, p \leq .05$), which fulfills Step 1 of Baron and Kenny's process for testing mediation. The effect of racial discrimination on affective commitment was $-.62 (t = -10.78, p \leq .05)$ which fulfills Step 2. The effect of affective commitment on turnover intent was $-.42 (t = -5.30, p \leq .05)$, which fulfills Step 3. Finally, the indirect effect of perceived racial discrimination on turnover intent through affective commitment was $.26 (-.62 \times -.42; t = 4.76, p \leq .05)$ and the direct effect was $.24 (t = 3.16, p \leq .05)$. Therefore, the relationship between racial discrimination and turnover intent was partially mediated by affective commitment, and Hypothesis 3 was supported.

The same process was used in order to test Hypothesis 4 which stated that the interaction effect of perceived racial discrimination and organizational efforts to support diversity on turnover intent would be partially mediated by affective commitment. The results of the path analysis showed that the total effect of the interaction term on turnover intent was $-.06$ which was not significant ($t = -.91, p \geq .05$). This means that Step 1 of the Baron and Kenny method was not supported and that mediation was not supported. However, the indirect effect of the interaction term on turnover intentions was $-.06 (.14 * -.42)$ which is statistically significant according to Sobel's test ($z = -2.18, p \leq .05$). Therefore, we found mixed support for Hypothesis 4. While mediation was not supported, we did find support for an indirect effect.

Discussion

This study replicated the results of Studies 1 and 2, providing more support for Hypotheses 1 and 2. This study also replicated the results of Hypotheses 3 and 4 found in Study 2. By providing replication of these results using an experimental design, this study provides more evidence of the validity of the findings and the causal order of the variables presented in

the hypotheses.

One limitation of this study is that because of the study design (an experimental study with vignettes), the study lacks the realism of a real-world experience in an organization. Therefore, the limitation inherent in the study design is a lack of generalizability to real work settings. Still, the results of the manipulation check confirm that the participants got the impression that there was more discrimination in the high discrimination scenarios than in the low discrimination scenarios. Furthermore, what this study lacks in generalizability is made up for by Studies 1 and 2, which both included employee samples.

General Discussion

The three studies in this research present data to demonstrate that perceptions of racial discrimination at work are negatively related to affective commitment and that perceived organizational efforts to support diversity attenuate this negative relationship. Furthermore, the present study provides evidence of a significant indirect effect of the interaction of perceived racial discrimination and organizational efforts to support diversity on turnover intent through affective commitment. These results are replicated across different samples and using two different methods. These findings have important implications for both practice and research.

Study Contributions and Implications

The contribution of this study is that, through linking perceived racial discrimination with affective commitment and perceived efforts to support diversity, we have identified a way to reduce the harmful effects of perceived racial discrimination in the workplace. The finding that perceived organizational efforts to support diversity attenuate the negative relationship between perceived racial discrimination at work and affective commitment has important theoretical and practical implications. To begin with, discrimination research has established that perceived

discrimination at work leads to many negative outcomes for the victim (Gee, 2002; Gutek et al., 1996; Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000; Robinson & Dechant, 1997; Shaffer et al., 2000; Waldo, 1999). However, our data demonstrate that perceived organizational efforts to support diversity can help restore an employee's affective commitment to the organization, which should help improve the employee's experience at work (Mor Barak & Levin, 2002) and make them less likely to think about leaving their jobs. This is consistent with social exchange theory. To the extent that the organization sends clear signals that it values and supports all kinds of diversity, people should feel more socially accepted (Blau, 1964) and experience fewer negative experiences in the organization which, in turn, will lead them to feel more affective commitment to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1982).

Our findings also both support and extend the Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity (Cox, 1993). We extend this important diversity model by demonstrating that perceived organizational support for diversity is an important moderator which helps attenuate the harmful effects of racial discrimination on affective commitment and ultimately on turnover intent. This has many important theoretical implications because it suggests that by showing support for diversity, organizations can help attenuate the harmful effects of discrimination and increase employee and organizational well-being. These results are consistent with empirical evidence from Mor Barak and Levin (2002) who found that employees who work in organizations that value diversity and foster inclusive environments have higher job satisfaction and well-being, both variables that are related to organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Our findings are also important both theoretically and practically because our results suggest that supporting diversity can lead to other positive outcomes for organizations as well. Affective commitment has repeatedly been shown to relate to numerous positive organizational

outcomes including job satisfaction, job involvement, motivation, and job performance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). By restoring affective commitment for employees who perceive discrimination at work, organizations make it more likely that these employees will feel good about the organization and continue to be productive members of the organization (Cox, 1993). In addition, to the extent that organizations are seen as showing a commitment to support diversity, they are less likely to face legal action from their employees. If employees feel supported by the organization and are affectively committed to the organization, their desire to take drastic measures such as suing the company should decrease.

Thus, our data provide evidence to suggest that organizational support for diversity can lead to positive outcomes for the organization. This has practical importance for businesses because the business case for diversity has been called into question since research examining the impact of diversity on performance has yielded mixed results (e.g., Kochan et al., 2003). The results of our study suggest that organizational support for diversity can help keep employees who have experienced racial discrimination at work committed to their organizations and reduce their turnover intentions, thereby reducing costly organizational turnover. According to a recent report by Catalyst (2006) which benchmarked diversity practices of many companies worldwide, half of all companies surveyed reportedly observe cultural holidays, engage in diversity recruiting, and conduct diversity training. Our findings suggest that this is a good idea, because it should enhance employee perceptions that the organization values diversity.

Limitations and Future Research

The three studies in this research have both strengths and weaknesses. Our goal was for the weaknesses of one study to be offset by the strengths of another study, thus providing more confidence in our findings. The sample of full-time employees in Study 1 was selected because

it provides the essential characteristics of the intended target population to which we wish to generalize our findings (Sackett & Larson, 1990). This study also answers calls for discrimination research to be conducted with employees as opposed to laboratory settings (Dipboye, 1985; Dipboye & Colella, 2005). An employee sample is important, because the participants answered the survey based on real-world experiences, not fictitious scenarios. One limitation of Study 1 was the predominately Caucasian sample which limited the generalizability of the findings. This limitation was rectified in Study 2, which replicated the results in a predominately minority sample. Furthermore, a limitation of both Studies 1 and 2 was that variables were measured in a cross-sectional manner using survey data which precluded us from establishing causal relationships between the variables. To address this causality issue, we conducted Study 3, which replicated the results of the first two studies in an experimental setting. One final limitation of both Studies 1 and 2 is that the data are self-reported. However, when the dependent variable is an attitudinal variable such as affective commitment and turnover intent, individual perceptions are what matter. Future research may wish to probe how diversity policies across different organizations affect the attitudes of groups within those organizations.

In spite of these limitations, the three studies taken together provide compelling support for the hypotheses. Results of the interaction of discrimination and efforts to support diversity on organizational commitment were replicated across three different samples using two different methods. Results of the path model with turnover intent were also replicated across two different samples using two different methods. Overall, this provides strong support for our hypotheses.

Conclusion

Previous research has shown that perceptions of discrimination at work have many negative outcomes for the victim as well as the organization (Dipboye & Colella, 2005). As

others have noted, people constantly use mental heuristics to organize and simplify the world around them (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). Because of this human tendency, prejudice and stereotypes persist (Dipboye & Colella, 2005; Heilman, 1995). As a result, a certain amount of discrimination is almost inevitable, which means that it is critical for organizations to reduce the harm caused by discrimination by any means possible.

Based on our empirical findings, we argue that one of these means is by showing strong and clear support for diversity, perhaps through a strong HR system. A strong HR system has been described as one that clearly fosters an environment that endorses certain types of behavior (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). The more an organization shows a clear commitment to support diversity and endorses the idea that diversity is an opportunity and not a problem (Cox & Blake, 1991), the less likely it is to have problems resulting from discrimination at work. Our data show that perceived organizational efforts to support diversity can mitigate the harm caused by perceptions of discrimination at work and improve employee affective commitment to the organization which, in turn, reduces turnover intent. We hope that this investigation will be one of many to identify ways of reducing the harmful effects of perceived workplace discrimination and help reduce the problem of discrimination at work.

Footnotes

¹ We realize that turnover and turnover intent are not the same. However, turnover intent has been shown to have a strong correlation with actual turnover both theoretically (Mobley, 1977) and in meta-analyses (Griffeth et al., 2000; Steel & Ovalle, 1984).

² Consistent with Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, racial minority status was defined as African-American, Hispanic/Latino, Native American, and Asian-American.

³ Some recent publications in the research methods literature discuss how best to combine tests of mediation and moderation. In the “moderated causal steps approach” to testing mediated moderation (Edwards & Lambert, 2007, p. 5), some have stated that in Step 1 the moderator (Z) must moderate the relationship between the independent variable (X) and the dependent variable (Y) (Muller, Judd, & Yzerbyt, 2005). However, Edwards and Lambert (2007) criticized this recommendation and stated that this requirement would not allow researchers to test the moderating effect of Z influencing the indirect effect between X and Y that is transmitted through the mediator (M). Edwards and Lambert (2007, pp. 5-6) say that “most studies examine the moderating effect of Z on the relationship between X and M ... but studies rarely ... consider how the product representing the indirect effect of X on Y varies across levels of Z.” In other words, they are saying that requiring an interaction of X and Z on Y at Step 1 is too strict and may not match the researchers’ theory. As an alternative, Edwards and Lambert (2007) present eight different tests combining mediation and moderation. The theory behind the research should dictate the method to use. We used one of these eight models. Our test is what Edwards and Lambert (2007, p. 8) call a “first stage moderation model.” This means that in a mediated test with independent variable (X), mediator (M) and dependent variable (Y), depicted as this: $X \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$ it is the relationship between X and M that is moderated by moderator (Z).

References

- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 1-18.
- Allport, G. (1954). *The nature of prejudice*. Boston: Beacon Press.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103, 411-423.
- Avery, D. R., & McKay, P. F. (2006). Target practice: An organizational impression management approach to attracting minority and female job applicants. *Personnel Psychology*, 59, 157-187.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 1173-1182.
- Berger, J., Cohen, B. R., and Zelditch, M. (1972). Status characteristics and social interaction. *American Sociological Review*, 37, 241-255.
- Blau, P. M. (1964). Social exchange. In *Exchange and power in social life* (pp. 88-114). New York, London, Sydney: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Bowen, D. E. & Ostroff, C. (2004). Understanding HRM-firm performance linkages: The role of the "strength" of the HRM system. *Academy of Management Review*, 29, 203-221.
- Catalyst. (2006). *2006 Catalyst Member Benchmarking Report*. New York, NY.
- Cleveland, J. N., Stockdale, M., & Murphy, K. R. (2000). *Women and men in organizations: Sex and gender issues at work*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation*

- analysis for the behavioral sciences* (3rd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Collins, L. M., Graham, J. W., & Flaherty, B. P. (1998). An alternative framework for defining mediation. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *33*, 295-312.
- Cox, T. H., Jr. (1993). *Cultural diversity in organizations: Theory, research and practice*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.
- Cox, T. H., & Blake, S. (1991). Managing cultural diversity: Implications for organizational competitiveness. *Academy of Management Executive*, *5*, 45-56.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, *16*, 297-334.
- Dipboye, R. L. (1985). Some neglected variables in research on unfair discrimination in appraisals. *Academy of Management Review*, *10*, 116-127.
- Dipboye, R. L., & Colella, A. (2005). *Discrimination at work: The psychological and organizational bases*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Edwards, J. R., & Lambert, L. S. (2007). Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: A general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological Methods*, *12*, 1-22.
- Ely, R. J., & Thomas, D. (2001). Cultural diversity at work: The effects of diversity perspectives on work group processes and outcomes. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *46*, 229-273.
- Ensher, E. A., Grant-Vallone, E. J., & Donaldson, S. I. (2001). Effects of perceived discrimination on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and grievances. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *12*, 53-72.
- Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. (2008). *Charge statistics FY 1997 through FY 2007*. www.eeoc.gov/stats/charges.html

- Fehr, E., & Gächter, S. (2000). Fairness and retaliation: The economics of reciprocity. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives, 14*, 159-181.
- Gee, G. C. (2002). A multilevel analysis of the relationship between institutional and individual racial discrimination and health status. *American Journal of Public Health, 92*, 615-623.
- Gelfand, M. J., Nishii, L. H., Raver, J. L., & Schneider, B. (2005). Discrimination in organizations: An organizational-level systems perspective. In R. L. Dipboye & A. Colella (Eds.), *Discrimination at work: The psychological and organizational bases* (pp. 89-116). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Goldman, B., Gutek, B., Stein, J. H., & Lewis, K. (2006). Employment discrimination in organizations: Antecedents and consequences. *Journal of Management, 32*, 786-830.
- Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity. *American Sociological Review, 25*, 165-167.
- Griffeth, R. W., & Hom, P. W. (2001). *Retaining valued employees*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Griffeth, R. W., Hom, P. W., & Gaertner, S. (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: Update, moderator tests, and research implications for the next millennium. *Journal of Management, 26*, 463-488.
- Gutek, B., Cohen, A. G., & Tsui, A. (1996). Reactions to perceived sex discrimination. *Human Relations, 49*, 791-813.
- Hegarty, W. H., & Dalton, D. R. (1995). Development and psychometric properties of the Organizational Diversity Inventory (ODI). *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 55*, 1047-1052.
- Heilman, M. E. (1995). Sex stereotypes and their effects in the workplace: What we know and what we don't know. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 10*, 3-26.
- Helm, B., Bonoma, T. V., & Tedeschi, J. T. (1972). Reciprocity for harm done. *Journal of Social*

Psychology, 87, 89-98.

Herrbach, O. (2006). A matter of feeling? The affective tone of organizational commitment and identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27, 629-643.

Hicks-Clarke, D., & Iles, P. (2000). Climate for diversity and its effects on career and organizational attitudes and perceptions. *Personnel Review*, 29, 324-345.

Holtgraves, T. (1986). Language structure in social interaction: Perceptions of direct and indirect speech acts and interactants who use them. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 305-314.

Homans, G. C. (1961). *Social behavior: Its elementary forms*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

James, K., Lovato, C., & Cropanzano, R. (1994). Correlational and known-group comparison validation of a workplace prejudice/discrimination inventory. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 24, 1573-1592.

Kalev, A., Dobbin, F., & Kelly, E. (2006). Best practices or best guesses? Assessing the efficacy of corporate affirmative action and diversity policies. *American Sociological Review*, 71, 589-617.

King, A. G., & Spruell, S. P. (2001). Coca-Cola takes the high road. *Black Enterprise*, 31(7), 29.

Kline, R. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Kochan, T., Bezrukova, K., Ely, R. J., Jackson, S., Joshi, A., Jehn, K., Leonard, J., Levine, D., & Thomas, D. (2003). The effects of diversity on business performance: Report of the diversity research network. *Human Resource Management*, 42, 3-21.

Kossek, E. E., & Zonia, S. C. (1993). Assessing diversity climate: A field study of reactions to

- employer efforts to promote diversity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14, 61-81.
- Kulik, C.T. & Roberson, L. (2008). Diversity initiative effectiveness: What organizations can (and cannot) expect from diversity recruitment, diversity training, and formal mentoring programs. In A. Brief (Ed.), *Diversity at work*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., Hoffman, J. M., West, S. G., & Sheets, V. (2002). A comparison of methods to test mediation and other intervening variables. *Psychological Methods*, 7, 83-104.
- Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, E. J. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108, 171-194.
- McKay, P. F., Avery, D. R., Tonidandel, S., Morris, M. A., Hernandez, M., & Hebl, M. R. (2007). Racial differences in employee retention: Are diversity climate perceptions the key? *Personnel Psychology*, 60, 35-62.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1, 61-89.
- Mobley, W. H. (1977). Intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62, 237-240.
- Mor Barak, M. E., Cherin, D., & Berkman, S. (1998). Organizational and personal dimensions in diversity climate. *Journal of Applied Behavior Science*, 34, 82-104.
- Mor Barak, M. E., & Levin, A. (2002). Outside of the corporate mainstream and excluded from the work community: A study of diversity, job satisfaction and well-being. *Community, Work, and Family*, 5, 133-157.
- Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (1982). *Employee-organization linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*. New York: Academic Press.

- Muller, D., Judd, C. M., & Yzerbyt, V. Y. (2005). When moderation is mediated and mediation is moderated. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 89, 852-863.
- Nadler, J. (2005). Flouting the law. *Texas Law Review*, 83, 1399-1441.
- Nishi, L. H., & Raver, J. L. (2003). Collective climates for diversity: Evidence from a field study, *Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. Orlando, FL.
- Phinney J. S. (1992). The Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure: A new scale for use with diverse groups. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 7, 156-176.
- Piccolo, R. F., & Colquitt, J. A. (2006). Transformational leadership and job behaviors: The mediating role of core job characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49, 327-340.
- Pruitt, S. W., & Nethercutt, L. L. (2002). The Texaco racial discrimination case and shareholder wealth. *Journal of Labor Research*, 13, 685-693.
- Robinson, G., & Dechant, K. (1997). Building a business case for diversity. *Academy of Management Executive*, 11, 21-31.
- Sackett, P. R., & Larson, J. R. (1990). Research strategies and tactics in industrial and organizational psychology. In M. D. Dunnette, & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (pp. 419-489). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Sahlins, M. D. (1965). On the sociology of primitive exchange. In M. Banton (Ed.), *The relevance of models for social anthropology* (pp. 139-263). London: Tavistock.
- Seashore, S.E., Lawler, E.E., Mirvis, P., & Cammann, C. (1982). *Observing and measuring organizational change: A guide to field practice*. New York: Wiley.
- Shaffer, M. A., Joplin, J. R. W., Bell, M. P., Lau, T., & Oguz, C. (2000). Gender discrimination and job-related outcomes: A cross-cultural comparison of working women in the United

- States and China. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 57, 395-427.
- Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and non-experimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 7, 422-445.
- Smith, A. N., Brief, A. P., & Colella, A. (in press). Where the action is: Studying unfair discrimination and its causes in and around organizations. In J. F. Dovidio, M. Hewstone, P. Glick, & V. M. Esses (Eds.), *Handbook of Prejudice, Stereotyping, and Discrimination*.
- Sobel, M. (1982). Asymptotic confidence intervals for indirect effects in structural equation models. In S. Leinhardt (Ed.), *Sociological methodology* (pp. 290-312). Washington, DC: American Sociological Association.
- Stanton, J. M. (1998). An empirical assessment of data collection using the internet. *Personnel Psychology*, 51, 709-725.
- Steel, R. P. & Ovalle, N. K. 1984. A review and meta-analysis of research on the relationship between behavioral intentions and employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 673-686.
- Tomaskovic-Devey, D., Thomas, M., & Johnson, K. (2005). Race and the accumulation of human capital across the career: A theoretical model and fixed-effects application. *American Journal of Sociology*, 111, 58-89.
- Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1974). Judgment under uncertainty: Heuristics and biases. *Science*, 185, 1124-1131.
- Utsey, S. O., Chae, M. H., Brown, C. F., & Kelly, D. (2002). Effect of ethnic group membership on ethnic identity, race-related stress, and quality of life. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 8, 366-377.

Waldo, C. R. (1999). Working in a majority context: A structural model of heterosexism as minority stress in the workplace. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 46*, 218-232.

Wentling, R. M., & Palma-Rivas, N. (1997). *Diversity in the workforce: A literature review (MDS-934)*. Berkeley, CA: National Center for Research in Vocational Education.

Table 1

Study 1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Inter-correlations

| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|----------|-----------|------|------|-----|--------|-------|
| 1. Sex | .27 | .45 | | | | | |
| 2. Race | .94 | .24 | -.13 | | | | |
| 3. Disability | .08 | .27 | -.01 | -.08 | | | |
| 4. Perceived workplace racial discrimination | 2.37 | 1.24 | .04 | -.07 | .03 | | |
| 5. Perceived organizational support for diversity | 4.20 | 1.45 | .09 | .01 | .04 | -.14 | |
| 6. Affective commitment | 4.31 | 1.38 | -.16 | -.01 | .10 | -.37** | .24** |

Note: $N = 103$.

Two-tailed tests.

Sex was coded as 0 = female, 1 = male.

Race was coded as 0 = non-Caucasian, 1 = Caucasian.

Disability was coded as 0 = no disability, 1 = disability.

** $p \leq .01$.

Table 2

Results of Regression Analysis Regressing Affective Commitment on Perceptions of Workplace

Racial Discrimination and Perceived Organizational Efforts to Support Diversity for Study 1

| Step | Variable | Standardized β | Unstandardized b (standard error) | R^2 | ΔR^2 |
|------|---|----------------------|--------------------------------------|-------|--------------|
| 1 | Sex | -.16 | -.48 (.31) | .04 | |
| | Race | -.02 | -.10 (.58) | | |
| | Disability | .10 | .50 (.51) | | |
| 2 | Sex | -.15 | -.45 (.29) | .17** | .13** |
| | Race | -.04 | -.25 (.55) | | |
| | Disability | .11 | .54 (.47) | | |
| | Workplace racial discrimination | -.37** | -.41 (.10)** | | |
| 3 | Sex | -.16 | -.51 (.28) | .21* | .04* |
| | Race | -.05 | -.26 (.54) | | |
| | Disability | .10 | .49 (.46) | | |
| | Workplace racial discrimination | -.34** | -.38 (.10)** | | |
| | Efforts to support diversity | .20* | .19 (.09)* | | |
| 4 | Sex | -.19* | -.59 (.28)* | .24* | .03* |
| | Race | -.04 | -.21 (.53) | | |
| | Disability | .11 | .58 (.46) | | |
| | Workplace racial discrimination | -.28** | -.31 (.11)** | | |
| | Efforts to support diversity | .21* | .20 (.09)* | | |
| | Efforts to support diversity x Workplace racial discrimination | .19* | .12 (.06)* | | |

Note: Two-tailed tests.

Sex was coded as 0 = female, 1 = male.

Race was coded as 0 = non-Caucasian, 1 = Caucasian.

Disability was coded as 0 = no disability, 1 = disability.

$N = 103$.

* $p \leq .05$.

** $p \leq .01$.

Table 3

Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Inter-correlations

| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|----------|-----------|------|------|------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1. Sex | .44 | .50 | | | | | | |
| 2. Race | .89 | .32 | .09 | | | | | |
| 3. Graduate | .54 | .50 | -.10 | -.13 | | | | |
| 4. Perceived workplace racial discrimination | 2.12 | 1.07 | .10 | -.06 | .15 | | | |
| 5. Perceived organizational support for diversity | 3.68 | 1.16 | -.05 | -.02 | .03 | -.13 | | |
| 6. Affective commitment | 3.60 | .91 | .06 | .09 | .13 | -.27** | .25** | |
| 7. Turnover intent | 3.55 | 1.37 | -.05 | -.04 | -.10 | .33** | -.20** | -.63** |

Note: *N* = 171.
 Two-tailed tests.
 Sex was coded as 0 = male, 1 = female.
 Race was coded as 0 = non-minority, 1 = minority.
 Graduate was coded as 0 = undergraduate, 1 = graduate.
 ** *p* ≤ .01.

Table 4

Results of Regression Analysis Regressing Affective Commitment on Perceptions of Workplace

Racial Discrimination and Perceived Organizational Efforts to Support Diversity for Study 2

| Step | Variable | Standardized β | Unstandardized b (standard error) | R ² | ΔR^2 |
|------|---|----------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------|--------------|
| 1 | Sex | .07 | .12 (.14) | .03 | |
| | Minority | .10 | .29 (.22) | | |
| | Graduate | .15* | .28 (.14)* | | |
| 2 | Sex | .10 | .19 (.14) | .12** | .09** |
| | Minority | .08 | .24 (.21) | | |
| | Graduate | .20** | .36 (.14)** | | |
| | Workplace racial discrimination | -.30** | -.26 (.06)** | | |
| 3 | Sex | .10 | -.41 (.28) | .17** | .05** |
| | Minority | .09 | -.02 (.54) | | |
| | Graduate | .19* | .66 (.47) | | |
| | Workplace racial discrimination | -.27** | -.29 (.08)** | | |
| | Efforts to support diversity | .22** | .20 (.09)** | | |
| 4 | Sex | .11 | .20 (.13) | .19* | .02* |
| | Minority | .08 | .22 (.21) | | |
| | Graduate | .19 | .34 (.13) | | |
| | Workplace racial discrimination | -.24** | -.21 (.06)** | | |
| | Efforts to support diversity | .22** | .17 (.06)* | | |
| | Efforts to support diversity x Workplace racial discrimination | .15* | .10 (.05)* | | |

Note: N = 171.

Two-tailed tests.

Sex was coded as 0 = male, 1 = female.

Race was coded as 0 = non-minority, 1 = minority.

Graduate was coded as 0 = undergraduate, 1 = graduate.

* $p \leq .05$.

** $p \leq .01$.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics (Means, Standard Deviation, Standard Errors, Confidence Intervals, and Sample Size) for Affective Commitment in Study 3

| | Organizational Efforts to Support Diversity | |
|-----------------------------------|--|----------------------|
| | Low | High |
| Low Racial Discrimination | Affective Commitment | Affective Commitment |
| <i>M</i> | 4.52 _a | 4.70 _a |
| <i>SD</i> | .84 | 1.14 |
| <i>SE</i> | .17 | .18 |
| <i>CI</i> | 4.18 - 4.87 | 4.36 – 5.04 |
| <i>N</i> | 34 | 35 |
| High Racial Discrimination | Affective Commitment | Affective Commitment |
| <i>M</i> | 2.47 _b | 3.38 _c |
| <i>SD</i> | .81 | 1.16 |
| <i>SE</i> | .17 | .18 |
| <i>CI</i> | 2.12 – 2.88 | 3.03 – 3.73 |
| <i>N</i> | 33 | 33 |

Note: _{a,b,c} Means with different subscripts are significantly different from one another. Reported means are adjusted for the covariates.

Table 6

Study 3 Means, Standard Deviations, and Inter-correlations

| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|----------|-----------|-------|------|--------|-------|--------|
| 1. Sex | .44 | .50 | | | | | |
| 2. Race | .81 | .39 | .08 | | | | |
| 3. Workplace racial discrimination | .49 | .50 | -.22* | .01 | | | |
| 4. Organizational support for diversity | .50 | .50 | -.01 | -.02 | -.01 | | |
| 5. Affective commitment | 3.79 | 1.33 | .07 | -.01 | -.62** | .21* | |
| 6. Turnover intent | 2.87 | 1.37 | .01 | -.03 | .51** | -.22* | -.60** |

Note: $N = 135$.

Two-tailed tests.

Sex was coded as 0 = female, 1 = male.

Race was coded as 0 = non-Caucasian, 1 = Caucasian.

Workplace racial discrimination was coded as 0 = low, 1 = high.

Organizational support for diversity was coded as 0 = low, 1 = high.

* $p \leq .05$.

** $p \leq .01$.

Figure 1. Interaction between perceived workplace racial discrimination and perceived efforts to support diversity on affective commitment for Study 1.

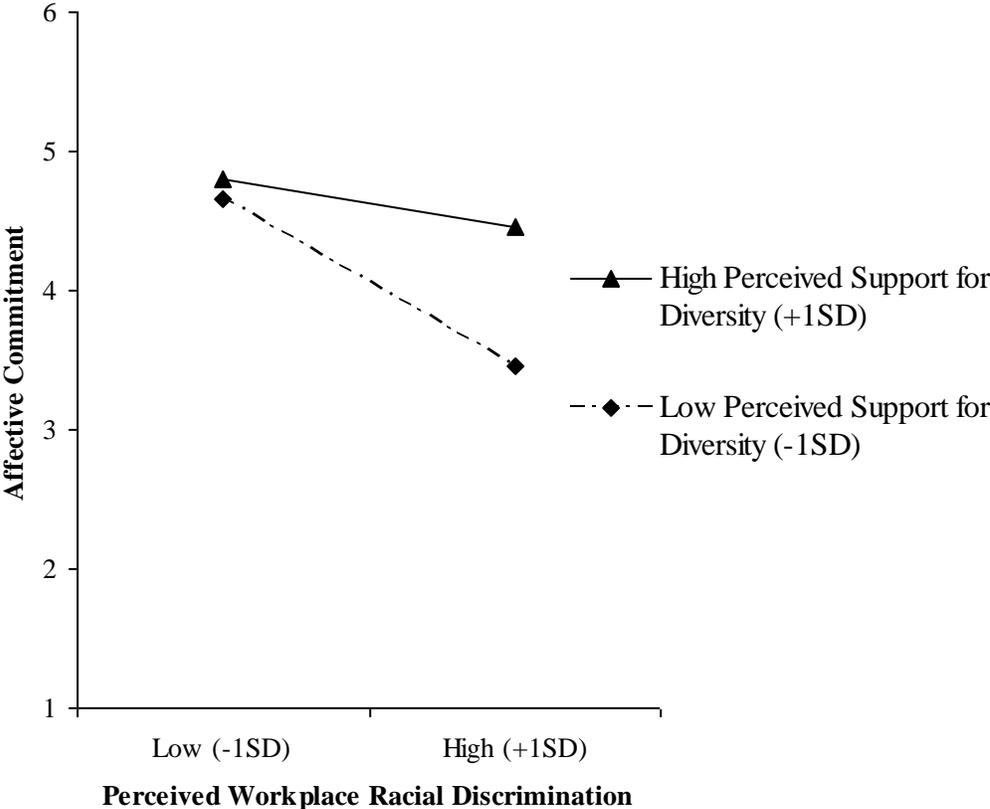


Figure 2. Interaction between perceived workplace racial discrimination and perceived efforts to support diversity on affective commitment for Study 2.

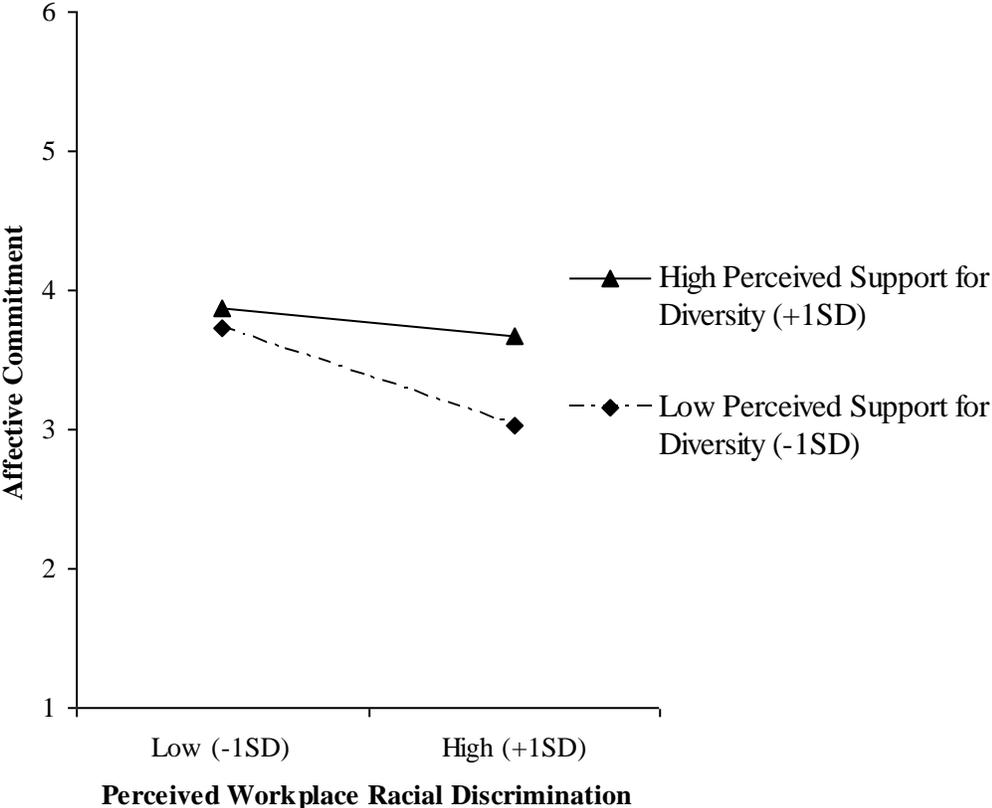
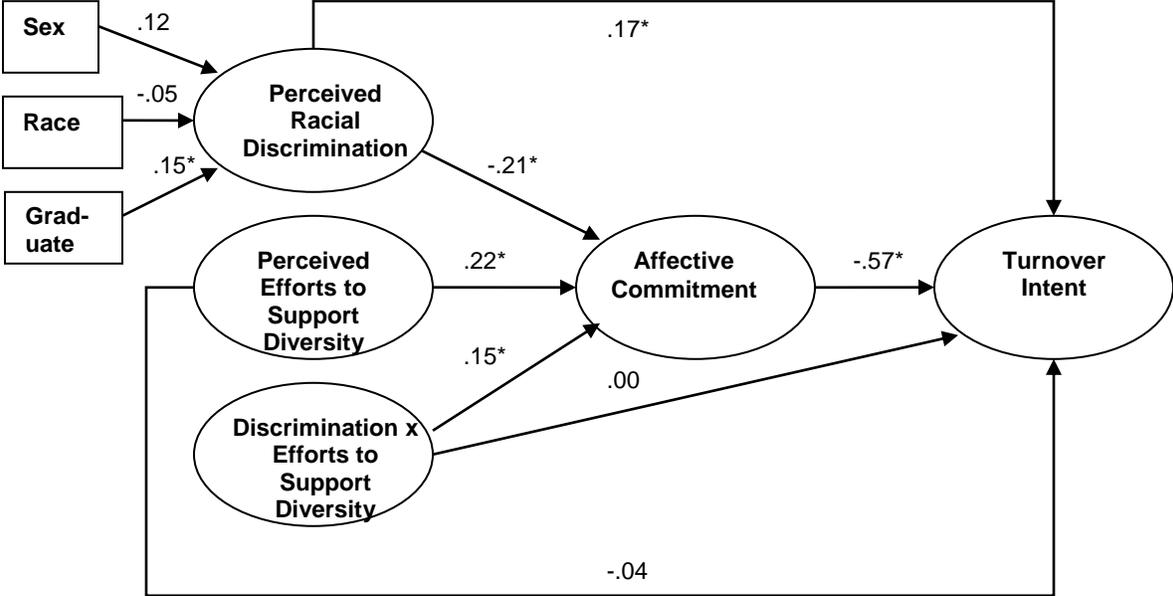


Figure 3. Path model with standardized path coefficients for Study 2.



N = 171.
Sex was coded as 0 = male, 1 = female.
Race was coded as 0 = non-minority, 1 = minority.
Graduate was coded as 0 = undergraduate, 1 = graduate.
* $p \leq .05$.

Figure 4. Interaction between workplace racial discrimination and organizational efforts to support diversity on affective commitment for Study 3.

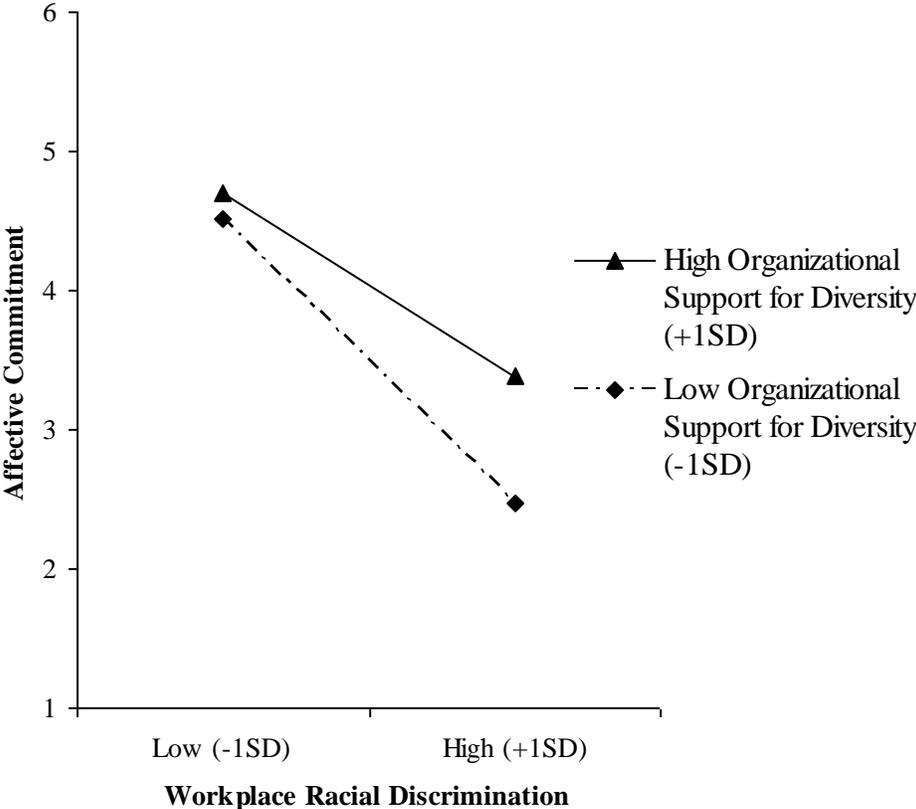
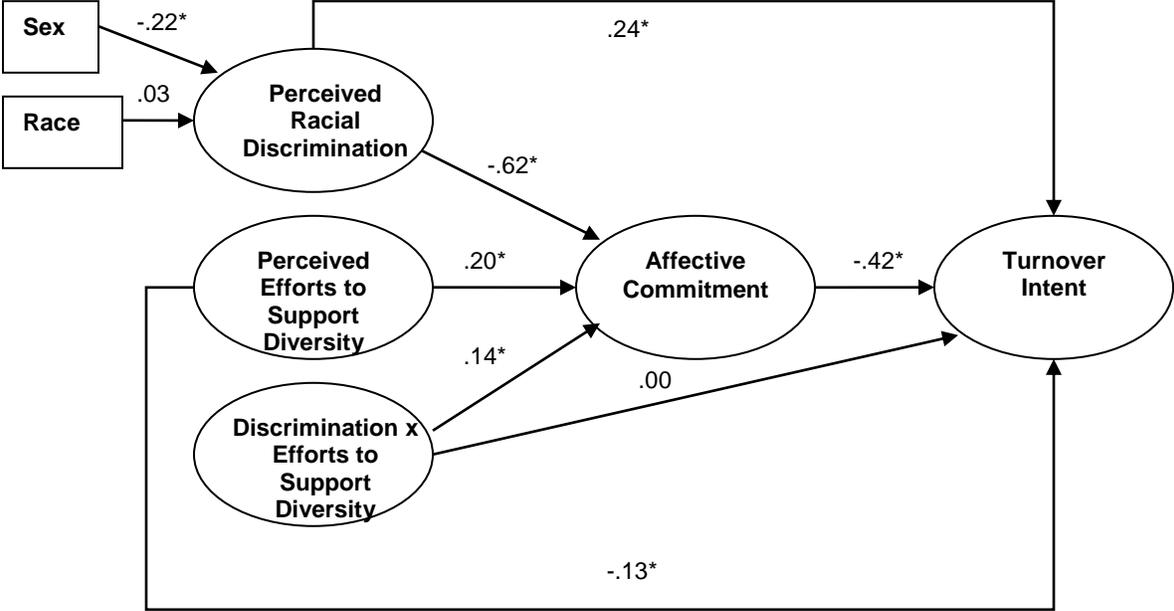


Figure 5. Path model with standardized path coefficients for Study 3.



N = 135.
Sex was coded as 0 = female, 1 = male.
Race was coded as 0 = non-Caucasian, 1 = Caucasian.
Workplace racial discrimination was coded as 0 = low, 1 = high.
Organizational support for diversity was coded as 0 = low, 1 = high.
* $p \leq .05$.