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Perceived Organizational Discrimination. Its Societal Antecedents, Individual Outcomes, and the
Effects of Organizational Culture across Contexts

By

Arief B. Kartolo

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
through the Department of Psychology
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Master of Arts
at the University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

2016

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Effects of Organizational Culture across Contexts

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September 20, 2016

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

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ABSTRACT

Research has found that perceived discrimination leads to a range of negative outcomes across various contexts. In the societal context, it is associated with stress, mental health related issues, and a decrease in quality of life (Tummala-Narra *et al.*, 2011). In the organizational level, it is negatively linked with psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job attitude, and turnover intention (Shaffer *et al.*, 2000; Triana *et al.*, 2015). Although there is an abundance of research looking into factors that mitigate the impact of perceived discrimination in the workplace, there is a lack of research that looks into the antecedents of perceived discrimination in an organizational context. This research project looked into the association of perceived discrimination between societal and organizational contexts, its impact on psychological well-being, and turnover intention. Furthermore, this research predicted that organizational culture (i.e. constructive culture norms, passive-defensive culture norms, aggressive-defensive culture norms) affects the association of perceived societal and organizational contexts. Overall, a weak but significant correlation was found on the relationship between perceived societal and organizational discrimination, but the culture of an organization did not impact the association of perceived discrimination between contexts. However, the culture of an organization made a contribution on predicting perceived discrimination in the workplace. Constructive culture norms were found to significantly reduce, while aggressive-defensive culture norms were found to significantly increase an individual's perception of discrimination in the workplace; passive-defensive culture norms, on the other hand, did not have significant impact to predict perceived organizational discrimination. Consistent with previous literature, perceived discrimination in the workplace predicted an individual's psychological well-being and turnover intention.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Discrimination is the act of denying equal treatment to individuals because of their group membership (Allport, 1954). Discrimination exists in every social group and may occur due to a variety of demographic factors, including, but not limited to, skin colour, ethnicity, gender, or sexual orientation. However, the act of discrimination is often directed towards members in the minority group; in other words, those who are considered as subordinate and those who hold less social power and status in the society are the typical victims of discrimination (Jones, 2002).

Although discrimination can be observed across different cultures, the types and impact of discrimination varies from culture to culture. For example, discrimination may be described as verbal or physical harassments, institutional and systematic inequality, preferential and unfair treatment, or acceptable norms (Shaffer, Joplin, Bell, Lau, & Oguz, 2000; Pérez, Fortuna, Alegría, 2008). Discrimination can be observed on different levels such as societal, institutional, and individual levels (Dovidio, Glick, & Rudman, 2005). Black Canadians are often mentally associated by law enforcement authorities with dealing in drugs, and are racially profiled for unwarranted searches, seizures, and arrests more often than White Canadians (Khenti, 2014); Asian international students reported having experiences with racially motivated aggressive behaviours during their visit in Canadian Universities (Houshman, Spanierman, & Tafarodi, 2014); and although the wage gap between male and female workers has decreased over the past few decades, there is still a significant gap for wages between male and female employees (Cool, 2010). Studies have shown a wide range of negative consequences for individuals who experience and perceive discrimination across various contexts. Individuals reported having lower levels of self-esteem, as well as a negative impact on physical health and psychological

well-being when they are racially discriminated against in the community and workplace (Caldwell, Kohn-Wood, Schmeelk-Cone, Chavous, & Zimmerman, 2004; Khenti, 2014; Hope, Hoggard, & Thomas, 2015; Tran & Sangalang, 2015). Older adults reported lower levels of life satisfaction and overall well being when they perceive discrimination due to their age, weight, physical ability, and appearance (Sutin, Stephan, Carretta, & Terracciano, 2015).

Both actual experience of discrimination and perception of discrimination in the society play a role in predicting a wide range of individual outcomes, including physical health, psychological well-being, and self-esteem (Showers, 2015; Tummala-Narra, Alegria, & Chen, 2012; Triana, Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015). It is important to note, however, that the actual experience of discrimination is different than perceived discrimination. Whereas actual experience denotes the first hand experience of discriminatory action against individuals, perceived discrimination refers to an attitude or judgment where an individual believes that he or she is receiving unfair treatment due to his or her demographic differences, such as ethnicity, gender, age, sexual orientation, or any other characteristic (Pascoe & Richman, 2009; Harris, Lievens, & Hoye, 2004). This research is focused on the perception of discrimination, because the issue of blatant and systematic discrimination has improved drastically over legislation changes (Government of Canada, 1985; Government of Canada, 1995), whereas the impact of perceived discrimination is still relevant in both societal and organizational contexts (Triana, Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015). Moreover, while much research in the field often focuses on only one type of perceived discrimination, the current study approaches perceived discrimination as a general perception to any possible characteristic that applies to each individual, without limiting the perception to a single characteristic or demographic.

The issue of obvious discrimination has improved systematically over the past few decades through legislation changes. The federal government of Canada has implemented two legislative acts to help reducing the issue of discrimination in the community and to set the groundwork of increased diversity in the workplace. The Human Rights Act (1985) states that every individual has an equal opportunity regardless of race or colour, national or ethnic background, religious beliefs, age, sex, sexual orientation, marital status, family status, or disability; and discriminatory practices based on individual differences are not permitted. The Employment Equity Act (1995) ensures improved job opportunities for minority groups, including women, Aboriginal people, members of visible minority groups, and individuals with disabilities.

Although the changes in legislation and increased awareness of the human rights movements have resulted in more diversity and reduced obvious discrimination (Harris, Lievens, & Hoye, 2004), the issue of perceive discrimination is still prevalent in the workplace (Triana, Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015). The issue of perceived discrimination has become a particular concern for many organizations due to its relative costs to both the individual and the organization. From an employee's standpoint, the perception of discrimination in the workplace can lead to lower levels of psychological well-being, organizational commitment, reduce employee morale, and decreases job performance (Connor & Miller, 2014; Goldman, Gutek, Stein, & Lewis, 2006). For an organization, perceived discrimination became increasingly important as organizations realized that not only does it have an effect through lower morale and job performance, it also has a negative impact through human rights complaints that leads to class action lawsuits, which can amount a cost up to millions of dollars (James & Wooten, 2006). For example, companies must pay attorney related costs, compensate for settlements, and

potentially lose the case. In addition to the direct cost of lawsuits, organizations have to take actions to control the negative public image and relations, as well as manage consumer and stakeholder backlashes. Therefore, perceived discrimination is an important variable of interest because it predicts a wide range of key outcomes on both individual and organizational levels (e.g. Triana, Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015; Blau & Tatum 2000; Shaffer, Joplin, Bell, Lau, & Oguz, 2000).

Being aware of the negative consequences, researchers and practitioners in the field focus on ways to control and manage the impact of perceived discrimination in the workplace (e.g. Larsen, Nye, Ormerod, Ziebro, & Siebert, 2013; Day & Schoenrade, 2000; Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013; McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007). For example, active communication, diversity training, and interaction between leaders and employees help reduce instances of discriminatory practices (Larsen, Nye, Ormerod, Ziebro, & Siebert, 2013; Day & Schoenrade, 2000); employees' equal access to opportunities and fair treatment from the management team leads to a decrease of discriminatory issues in the workplace (Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013); and employees respond positively when diversity is promoted in the workplace (McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007).

There is a general assumption in the literature that perceived discrimination is related to the demographic make up of the organization; in other words, perceived discrimination amongst minority group members is only prevalent when there is dissimilar demographic make up and when diversity is poorly supported in the workplace (Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008; Triana, Asinghe, & Pieper, 2015). However, it has been theorized that perceived discrimination in the workplace is affected by more than the demographic make up of the organization (Blau & Tatum, 2000; Shaffer, Joplin, Bell, Lau, & Oguz, 2000), suggesting that it has a wider scope

beyond the organizational and institutional level. The perceptions of discrimination have been shown to exist in both societal and organizational contexts; however, there is no empirical evidence that explores the association of perceived discrimination between these contexts. The culture of an organization tends to reflect the societal culture it is imbedded in to an extent (Kwantes & Dickson, 2011), further confirming the possibility that the perception of discrimination in the workplace is affected by the societal force to a degree. The purpose of this research is to fill this gap – approaching perceived discrimination from both societal and organizational contexts, as well as testing the impact of organizational culture on the association between these contexts.

Past studies have suggested various programs and interventions to counter or control for perceived discrimination in the workplace. These suggestions were approached from a relatively micro scale – changing attitudes of employees or encouraging supportive environment by the supervisor (Jeanquart-Barone & Sekaran, 1996; Larsen *et al.*, 2013). That is, changes suggested by past studies are on a smaller scale, such as changing attitudes through dyadic interactions or improving workgroup relationships. This proposed research tackles the issue of perceived discrimination from a macro perspective, looking into how organizational culture shapes and moderates individual's perception of discrimination in the workplace. This approach can create changes on a much bigger scale, placing emphasis on changes at the organizational level by changing the culture of an organization (i.e. norms or expected behaviours), rather than the individuals.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Perceived Organizational Discrimination

Perceived discrimination refers to a negative attitude or judgment where an individual believes that an unfair treatment was received due to one's demographic group membership (Pascoe & Richman, 2009; Harris, Lievens, & Hoye, 2004), including and not limited to ethnicity, gender, age, appearance, or sexual orientation. Perceived discrimination in the workplace has been found to predict and relate to a wide range of key outcomes in organizational research, especially amongst members who are considered as part of the minority group (Triana, Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015; Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008). For example, high levels of perceived discrimination has a negative impact on employee's job attitudes, physical health, and psychological well-being; it also decreases employee's organizational commitment level and increases overall turnover intention (Triana, Asinghe, & Pieper, 2015; Blau & Tatum 2000; Shaffer, Joplin, Bell, Lau, & Oguz, 2000). Additionally, high levels of perceived organizational discrimination were found to reduce employees' citizenship behaviour; that is, it decreases employees' voluntary commitment to engage in tasks or altruistic behaviours that are beyond the formal requirements of their respective roles in the workplace (Triana, Asinghe, & Pieper, 2015; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Accordingly, a great deal of attention has been given to factors that counter and control perceived discrimination when it occurs.

One of the factors that has received considerable attention in the current literature of perceived organizational discrimination is organizational climate. Organizational climate refers to employees' perception towards organizational structures and environment; it reflects how it feels to be associated as a member of the organization (Cooke & Rousseau, 1998; Barak, Cherin,

& Berkman, 1998). The climate of an organization has been found to affect the impact of perceived discrimination on employee outcomes (Jeanquart-Barone & Sekaran, 1996; Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013; McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007). When the organization provides a supportive and affirmative climate, perceived discrimination become less prevalent. That is, when the organization is perceived as providing equal access to opportunities, treating every employee fairly, and supporting a diverse workforce, individuals perceive a lower level of discrimination – which leads to higher levels of organizational commitment and lower levels of turnover intention (McKay *et al.*, 2007; Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013). Other research suggests that the diversity climate of an organization can be shaped through leadership (Larsen *et al.*, 2013). Leaders that show active effort to address discriminatory issues were found to be related to a positive climate that reduce the frequency and impact of discriminatory instances. For example, leaders that enforce sanctions against offenders, follow policies to protect minority members, and investigate complaints to related problems were found to have a positive impact on the diversity climate in the workplace.

A vast majority of research in the organizational field assumes perceived discrimination to be a function of diversity in the workplace. For example, Chrobot-Mason and Aramovich (2013) approached the perception of discrimination as a result of diversity within the workgroup; Goldman, Gutek, Stein, and Lewis (2006) argued that demographic dissimilarity in the workplace impact employee's perception of discrimination; and Avery, McKay, and Wilson (2008) provided that perceived discrimination is most prevalent when there is demographic dissimilarity between supervisors and employees. However, there is evidence that perceived discrimination in society is often brought into the workplace, and can be present even if there is an over representation of minority groups within the organization. In fact, this is found in a study

conducted by Blau and Tatum (2000), which looked into the effect of perceived discrimination in a female-dominated workforce. The sample of the study was recruited from an organization in which there was an under representation of male employees and over representation of female employees. Indeed, the study found reported levels of perceived discrimination, and it is associated with employees' intention to leave the workplace. Contrary to their hypothesis, however, female employees reported perceiving a higher level of discrimination in comparison to male employees despite being in a female-dominated workforce. This finding suggests that there is a possibility that the perception of discrimination in the workplace extends beyond the demographic make up and environment of the workplace.

Indeed, individual's behavioural expectations, attitudes, and values in the organizational context often mirror the societal culture to an extent (Kwantes & Dickson, 2011). This association between societal and organizational cultures was found in the context of perceived discrimination with a study using cross-cultural samples from the United States, Hong Kong, and Beijing (Shaffer et al., 2000). The results of the study demonstrated geographical and regional differences in the reported levels and types of perceived gender discrimination in the workplace. Women in the United States were suspected to have a heightened awareness towards gender inequality, which resulted in a more frequent report of gender harassment in comparison to other samples. The women of Hong Kong were culturally influenced by both Traditional Chinese and Western values. Therefore, the traditional segregation of work by gender in Hong Kong, coupled with Western influence of values, created a higher level of awareness towards gender inequality by Hong Kong women. Gender discrimination may be more socially acceptable in Beijing (Kuhn & Shen, 2012; China Labour Bulletin), which could explain a much less frequent report of gender harassment in the workplace. The result of the study suggests that, indeed, societal

culture affects not only actual experience of discrimination, but also the perception of discrimination in a workplace to a degree. Women in the United States perceived higher levels of gender discrimination in the workplace due to their heightened awareness towards gender discriminatory acts on a societal level, in comparison to women from Beijing who perceived lower levels of gender harassment due to gender related discrimination being more accepted in their societal culture. Therefore, it is theorized that perceived discrimination in the workplace, indeed, has a wider scope beyond the organizational and institutional level; and in theory, the level of perceived discrimination occurring in the workplace is influenced beyond organizational context, possibly extending into the societal force.

Perceived Societal Discrimination

Although the issue of blatant discrimination on the institutional level is reduced and controlled by federal legislation, many members of the minority groups still experience discrimination in the society and workplace on a regular basis (Jones, 2002). A recent report compiled by Preston *et al.* (2011) indicated that approximately 50% of visible minority immigrants experience and perceive discrimination in Canada. Members of minority groups also reported having frequent experience with discrimination and harassment in the workplace, despite of the regulations and policies in place within the organization; for example, individuals reported being harassed verbally with derogatory comments and slurs, or being excluded and treated unfairly in general (Bergman, Palmieri, Drasgow, & Ormerod, 2007; Schneider, Hitlan, & Radhakrishnan, 2000). This frequent experience of discrimination in the societal context shapes individual's perception of discrimination across various contexts.

Inman and Baron (1996) use the concept of prototype and expectation as the determining functions that affect individual perception of discrimination. One underlying assumption is that perception is affected by an individual's prototypical concept of discrimination, such as the image of a stereotypical perpetrators and victims of discriminatory instances. This prototypic approach on perceived discrimination stems from the theoretical framework of prototype and social categorization in the field of social cognitive psychology (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). That is, individuals have the tendency to categorize experiences with objects, events, opinions, people, or concepts into a specific group of membership. Those that have the most average, or the most representative, characteristics of specific categories are known as the prototypes. High prototypical instances are presumed to trigger stereotypical effects in individual perceptions, memories, and behaviours (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Inman & Baron, 1996), which serve as the basis of prejudice and discrimination in human interactions. Given the historical background and media portrayal of discrimination in North American culture, individuals are likely to develop prototypes of sexism, racism, and other discriminatory behaviour. For example, sexist behaviour is predominantly associated with female oppression by men, and racist instances are usually associated with White on non-White prejudice. In addition, this prototypical perception of discrimination may lead individuals to have expectations regarding the demographic characteristics of the perpetrators (Inman & Baron, 1996). In fact, the authors argue that it is easier to detect discriminatory treatment when the demographic characteristics of the perpetrator is consistent with people's expectations (e.g. White men), regardless of the characteristics of the victim.

Indeed, Inman and Baron (1996) found that participants were more likely to detect and label prejudiced action when incidents involved prototypical and expected perpetrator-victim

combinations. Specifically, participants were more likely to label interactions as racist when they involved White-on-Black discrimination, and were more likely to label sexist interactions when they involved men-on-women derogatory behaviour, in comparison to Black-on-White discrimination and women-on-men derogatory behaviour respectively. Inman and Baron (1996) also predicted that frequent recipients of discrimination are better able to detect and perceive unfair treatment towards their own group. In addition, those frequently targeted individuals become more sensitive to discriminatory information and behaviour that is directed towards other targeted groups, because they can easily empathize with other discriminated and prejudiced minorities. Indeed, results of their study suggested that women and Black participants were more likely to label potential acts of racism as discriminatory than white men, and women were more likely to detect sexist actions than men when it involves anti-male behaviour. This is also empirically supported by other research. Using vignettes describing interactions between male supervisors and female subordinates in the workplace, a study using undergraduate students found that female students were more aware and likely to detect subtle gender related aggressive behaviours and harassments in comparison to male students (Basford, Offermann, & Berhrend, 2014). Another study found that perceived gender-based discrimination at work is more prevalent among female than male employees, and perceived race-based discrimination at work is more prevalent among Black and Hispanic than White employees (Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008). Furthermore, individuals are more likely to perceive certain selection or promotion situations to be discriminatory when it involves typical perpetrator-victim combinations; that is, individuals are more likely to report discriminatory and biased selection when the interviewers are White males and the interviewees are members of a minority group (Harris, Lievens, & Hoye, 2004). It is important to note that actual experience of discrimination and perceived

discrimination are not mutually exclusive; however, due to its blatant nature, actual experiences of discrimination are addressed more frequently by organizations while perceived discriminations are often ignored in the literature (Pascoe & Richman, 2009). The current study, therefore, focuses on the concept of perceived discrimination as it is connected to a wide range of negative outcomes in both societal and organizational contexts (Pascoe & Richman, 2009; Triana, Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015).

It is evident that individuals who are considered as part of a minority group may be more aware than members of the majority group of discriminatory issues in the society (Inman & Baron, 1996). These individuals become more sensitive towards information or behaviour that depict discriminatory treatment in comparison to members from the dominant group. Therefore, it is hypothesized that individuals who self-identify as members of a minority group in the societal context are expected to perceive a higher level of discrimination in both societal and organizational contexts in comparison to individuals who self-identify as a member of the dominant group.

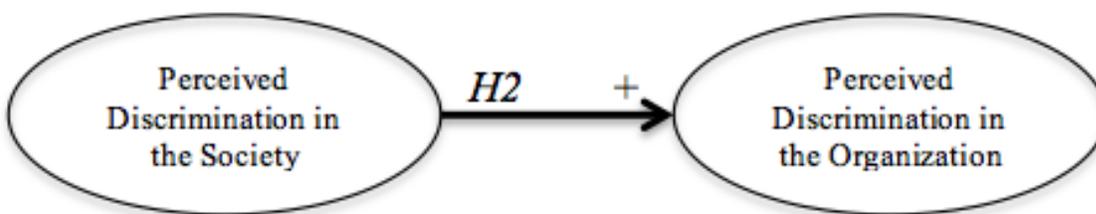
H1. Individuals who self-identify as members of a minority group in the societal context are more likely to perceive a higher level of discrimination in both societal and organizational contexts in comparison to members who self-identify as part of the dominant group.

In addition, studies have shown that minority members are better able to detect prejudice instances across various contexts in comparison to members in the dominant group, such as detecting discriminatory instances in the society, workplace, interviews, and universities (Inman

& Baron, 1996; Basford, Offermann, and Berhrend, 2014; Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008; Harris, Lievens, & Hoye, 2004). In fact, female employees reported higher levels of perceived discrimination than male employees, despite being in a female-dominated workforce (Blau & Tatum, 2000). In addition, other research also found that there were cultural differences when considering the content of perceived discrimination in the workplace (Shaffer *et al.*, 2000) - suggesting that perceptions of discrimination are associated between societal and organizational contexts. Therefore, it is hypothesized that higher levels of perceived discrimination in the societal contexts are associated with higher levels of perceived discrimination in the organizational contexts (Figure 1).

H2. Perceived discrimination in societal contexts are positively associated with perceived discrimination in the organizational contexts.

Figure 1. Perceived Discrimination across Societal and Organizational Contexts



Culture

Culture represents values, beliefs, and expectations that are shared collectively by members of the same group; it exerts pressure on the members to conform in a way that is consistent with its shared codes, and to act and behave in accordance to its norms and values (Lahiry, 1994). Different cultures are manifested through different values and various levels of practices, which are categorized as symbols, heroes, and rituals (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Symbols represent the most superficial manifestation, followed by heroes and ritual. Values, on the other hand, are described as the deepest manifestation of cultures – imbedded within a group of individuals. Symbols may be words, gestures, pictures, or objects that can be observed and learned, but the meanings of those manifestations are only recognized by individuals within the shared culture. Heroes are referred to as persons – whether real or imaginary, dead or alive. These particular heroes possess characteristics that are respected, prized, and highly regarded; furthermore, these characteristics are often set as standards of behaviours for members of shared cultures. Rituals represent the tradition, the collective activities, that are desired and considered essential by members of shared culture. Values, the deepest manifestation of cultures, are cognitive states and beliefs that are shared by individuals within the same culture.

Societal Culture

Culture can be assessed at different levels, including societal and organizational level (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). At the societal level, culture is learned through one's social environment and inherited from the previous generation to the next generation. Societal cultures are absorbed by individuals at an early age, are relatively stable and have potent effects

on individual's values and beliefs. At the organizational level, culture is learned through a group of members, within the given structures and guidelines (Kwantes & Dickson, 2011). In comparison to societal cultures, organizational cultures are learned at a relatively later age – it is more malleable and superficial, therefore having a more significant impact on individual practices and behaviour, or norms, rather than values and beliefs.

Hofstede (1980) approached culture as a construct consisting several dimensions. Societal culture was first conceptualized into four value dimensions: power distance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, and uncertainty avoidance. These dimensions characterize the preferences of shared values and beliefs by members of a society. Power distance represents how a society approaches inequalities of power distribution amongst individual members. Individualism versus collectivism dimension represents societal preferences of self or group as the fundamental unit of individual concern. Masculinity versus femininity dimension represents the degree to which a society prefers assertive or modesty approach in life. Uncertainty avoidance is a dimension that describes the extent to which members in the society accept uncertainty and ambiguity.

More recently, Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) expanded the construct of societal culture into six dimensions, including the original four and two additional dimensions: long-term orientation versus short-term orientation, and indulgence versus restraint. Long-term versus short-term orientation dimension is related to how society approach or prioritize challenges of the present and the future. Indulgence versus restraint dimension is associated with the regulation of social norms; that is, the extent to which members are expected to abide to the social norms.

Following Hofstede's (1980) original approach to culture as values-based, many researchers in the culture field introduced alternate taxonomies of values in the conceptualization

of societal cultures (e.g. Trompenaars, 1994; Triandis, 1995; Schwartz, Lehmann, & Rocca, 1999). For example, Trompenaars (1994) approached culture as a set of values that is processed to resolve social dilemmas. The basis of culture, according to Trompenaars (1994), consisted of seven distinct orientations: universalism versus particularism, individualism versus communitarianism, neutral versus emotional, specific versus diffuse, achievement versus ascription, sequential time versus synchronous time, and internal direction versus outer direction. Triandis (1995), on the other hand, refined Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions by introducing the concept of vertical versus horizontal cultural dimensions of individualism and collectivism. Another approach for understanding culture as values was introduced by Schwartz, Lehmann, & Rocca (1999), in which culture was composed of ten universal values. While Hofstede (1980) approached societal culture on a macro-scale, conceptualizing the cultural dimensions on national levels, Schwartz *et al.* (1999) approached societal culture on a more micro-scale, conceptualizing cultural values on individual levels. More specifically, societal culture was conceptualized into ten distinct types of values, including: power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, and security.

An alternate approach by Leung *et al.* (2002) conceptualized societal culture into five belief factors: cynicism, social complexity, reward for application, spirituality, and fate control – collectively known as the social axioms. Whereas Hofstede *et al.* (1980) focuses on value dimensions within societal cultures, Leung *et al.* (2002) emphasized societal culture as shared beliefs about the personal, social and physical environment. Cynicism represents negative beliefs toward human nature; which is characterized by mistrust towards some group members and institutions, as well as a lack of ethical and moral conscience in general. Social complexity represents beliefs that individuals behave differently through different situations, and that there

are multiple ways to achieve similar results. Reward for application represents beliefs that effort, knowledge, and hard-work leads to success. Spirituality represents beliefs toward the existence of supernatural beings, and religious functions. Lastly, fate control represents a belief that “life events are predetermined and that there are some ways for people to influences these outcomes” (pg. 292; Leung *et al.*, 2002).

Societal cultures and organizational cultures represent different levels of culture, and organizational cultures may be conceptualized as nested within societal cultures. Organizations operate in specific societal contexts, and they are bounded by shared societal cultures. They reflect and practice under shared governmental regulations and policies. Individual employees of an organization within a societal culture share similar cognitive perspectives and behavioural expectations regarding norms and values. For example, there are cultural differences when it comes to definitions of work, organizational practices, leadership effectiveness, employee effectiveness, and extra-role related behaviours (Brannan, 2004; Kwantes & Boglarsky, 2007; Kwantes, Karam, Kuo, & Towson, 2008).

Organizational Culture

The concept of culture has been accepted widely as a construct and has become an integral aspect in organizational research. While the culture of an organization is imbedded within a society, some aspects of organizational culture functions independently to a degree (Kwantes & Dickson, 2011). Derived from the six societal culture dimensions, Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) conceptualized six organizational culture dimensions that are based on organizational practices, including: process-oriented versus results oriented cultures, job-oriented versus employee-oriented cultures, parochial versus professional cultures, open

system versus closed system cultures, loose versus tight cultures, and normative versus pragmatic cultures. There is a general consensus in the literature that organizational culture reflects, and is shaped by, values, attitudes, and expectations that are held in common by members in the organization (Lahiry, 1994). It is approached as patterns of unconscious basic assumptions for members in the organizations (Schein, 2004), which are observed through shared behaviours and artifacts (Brettel, Chomik, & Flatten, 2015). It is characterized as a force that holds organizations together (Goffee & Jones, 1996), and is found to be associated with organizational growth (Bates *et al.*, 1996). The culture of an organization is crucial to its success or failure in various aspects, ranging from new strategy implementation, or the mergers and acquisitions of other companies (Vaara *et al.*, 1996; Weber, Shenkar, & Raveh, 1996). From a more micro approach, studies have found associations between organizational culture and a range of individual outcomes, including performance, job satisfaction, and turnover intention (Murphy, Cookie, & Lopez, 2013).

Similar to societal culture, organizational culture has been assessed through various approaches in organizational research, such as assessing shared values, beliefs, or behaviours. In general, organizational culture has been operationalized as a set of values that's shared by members within the organization (e.g. Lahiry, 1994; Schein, 2004; Goffee & Jones, 1996). However, several concerns were raised when approaching organizational culture as sets of values. Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) asserted that organizational cultures are more superficial, and less stable in comparison to societal cultures. Organizational cultures tend to have a stronger impact on behavioural practices and weaker influence on values (Kwantes & Dickson, 2011). Furthermore, approaching organizational cultures as shared behaviours and

norms are more relevant to managerial practices; that is, it is observable and more accessible than values (Alvesson, 2011).

Cooke and Szumal (1993) suggest that culture of an organization can best be described with two main social components: normative beliefs and shared behavioural expectations. Normative beliefs refers to individuals' beliefs or cognitions about a set of behavioural acts that are expected or desired by others under specific circumstances or as a member of a particular group or organization (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1972). The strength of normative beliefs is represented by the extent to which specific contents, substances, or behaviours are associated and emphasized within the organization (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). Shared behavioural expectations are derived from normative beliefs, which refers to a set of behaviours that are expected and shared by the members within a group or organization (Cooke & Szumal, 1993). The strength of shared behavioural expectations is correlated with the intensity of the culture. It is the degree of consensus among members within group or organization regarding the range of behaviours that are expected within the culture (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). The beliefs and behavioural expectations, or norms, create standards for members to comply with and specify the ways in which members are expected to approach their work and to behave in specified contexts; and help members to evaluate events or interactions to be appropriate or inappropriate (O'Reilly, 1989).

Based on the approach to culture that focuses on normative beliefs and shared behavioural expectations, Cooke and Szumal (1993) conceptualized two underlying dimensions that are often emphasized within the culture of an organization. The first dimension, the task-people dimension, distinguishes an organization's concerns between tasks versus people. That is, the extent to which an organization shows or emphasizes concern on the quality of the tasks that

are performed by the individuals, or on the quality of relationships and interactions between individuals within the workplace. The second dimension, the security-satisfaction dimension, distinguishes differences between behavioural expectations that are directed towards protecting and maintaining personal status and security versus behavioural expectations that fulfill the growth of higher-order (i.e. the organization). These two dimensions are conceptualized as two axes within a circular continuous spectrum, or circumplex. The task-people dimension is conceptualized on one axis, where task and people are defined as polar opposites; the security satisfaction dimension is conceptualized as the other axis, where security and satisfaction are defined as polar opposite (Figure 2). The two axes are orthogonal, which arrange the dimensions into a circular spectrum. With the conceptualization of these two dimensions, Cooke and Szumal (1993) further categorize organizational culture into twelve styles that comprise three general clusters: constructive culture norms, passive-defensive culture norms, and aggressive-defensive culture norms (See Table 1).

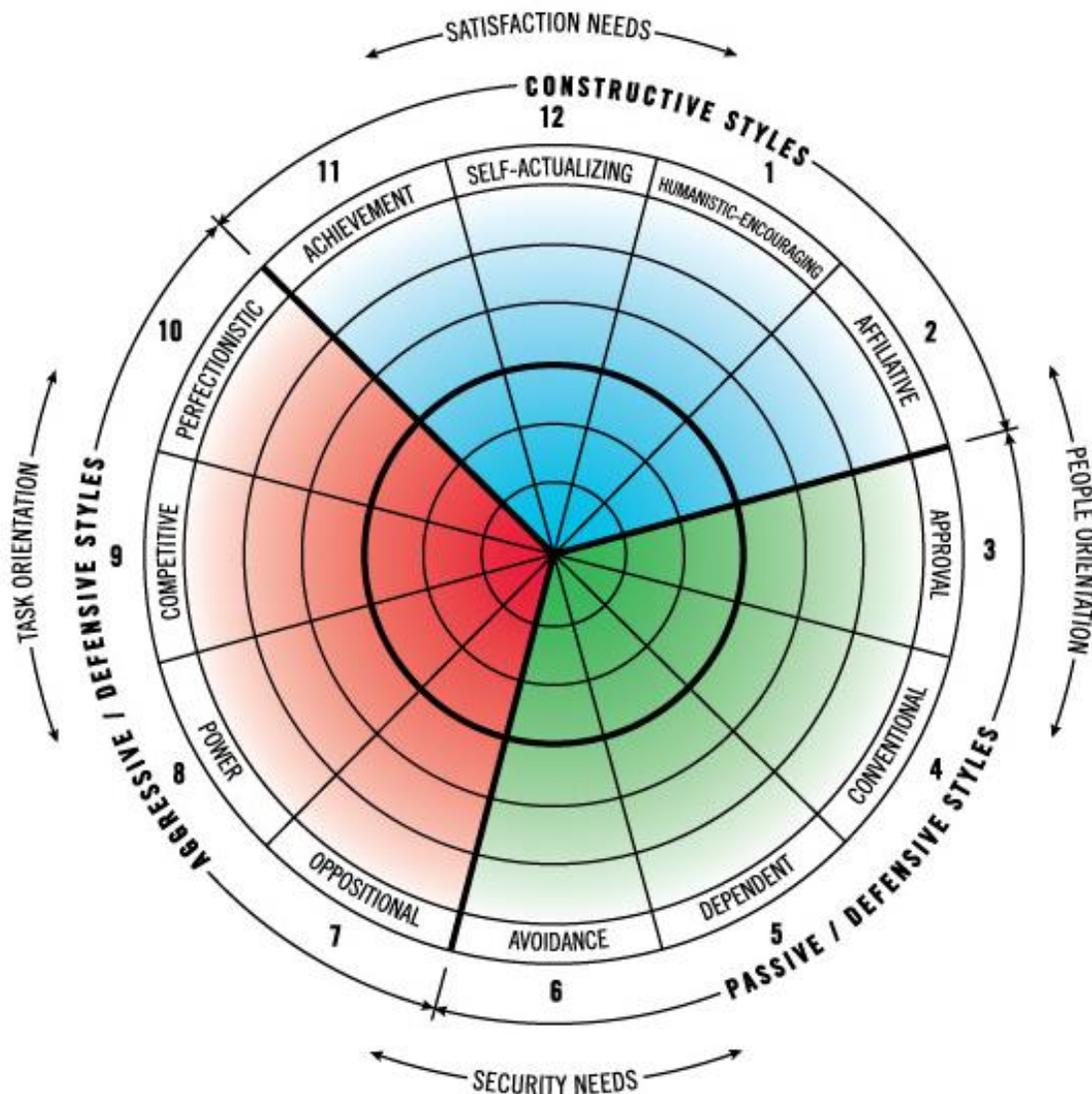


Figure 2. Organizational Culture Inventory Circumplex®

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Table 1. Descriptions of the 12 styles measured by the Organizational Culture Inventory ®

Clusters and Styles	Description (Sample Items)
<i>Constructive Norms – cultural styles promoting satisfaction behaviours</i>	
Achievement	An Achievement culture characterizes organizations that do things well and value members who set and accomplish their own goals. Members are expected to set challenging but realistic goals, establish plans to reach these goals, and pursue them with enthusiasm. (<i>Pursue a standard of excellence; Openly show enthusiasm</i>)
Self-Actualizing	A Self-Actualizing culture characterizes organizations that value creativity, quality over quantity, and both task accomplishment and individual growth. Members are encouraged to gain enjoyment from their work, develop themselves, and take on new and interesting activities. (<i>Think in unique and independent ways; Do even simple tasks well</i>)
Humanistic-Encouraging	A Humanistic-Encouraging culture characterizes organizations that are managed in a participative and person-centered way. Members are expected to be supportive, constructive, and open to influence in their dealings with one another. (<i>Help others to grow and develop; Take time with people</i>)
Affiliative	An Affiliative culture characterizes organizations that place a high priority on constructive interpersonal relationships. Members are expected to be friendly, open, and sensitive to the satisfaction of their work group. (<i>Deal with others in a friendly, pleasant way; share feelings and thoughts</i>)
<i>Passive/Defensive Norms – cultural styles promoting people/security behaviours</i>	
Approval	An Approval culture describes organizations in which conflicts are avoided and interpersonal relationships are pleasant--at least superficially. Members feel that they should agree with, gain the approval of, and be liked by others. (<i>"Go along" with others; Be liked by everyone</i>)
Conventional	A Conventional culture is descriptive of organizations that are conservative, traditional, and bureaucratically controlled. Members are expected to conform, follow the rules, and make a good impression. (<i>Always follow policies and practices; Fit into the "mold"</i>)
Dependent	A Dependent culture is descriptive of organizations that are hierarchically controlled and do not empower their members. Centralized decision making in such organizations leads members to do only what they are told and to clear all decisions with superiors. (<i>Please those in positions of authority; Do what is expected</i>)
Avoidance	An Avoidance culture characterizes organizations that fail to reward success but nevertheless punish mistakes. This negative reward system leads members to shift responsibilities to others and avoid any possibility of being blamed for a mistake. (<i>Wait for others to act first; Take few chances</i>)

Aggressive/Defensive Norms – cultural styles promoting task-security behaviours

Oppositional	An Oppositional culture describes organizations in which confrontation and negativism are rewarded. Members gain status and influence by being critical and thus are reinforced to oppose the ideas of others. (<i>Point out flaws; Be hard to impress</i>)
Power	A Power culture is descriptive of nonparticipative organizations structured on the basis of the authority inherent in members' positions. Members believe they will be rewarded for taking charge, controlling subordinates and, at the same time, being responsive to the demands of superiors. (<i>Build up one's power base; Demand loyalty</i>)
Competitive	A Competitive culture is one in which winning is valued and members are rewarded for outperforming one another. Members operate in a "win-lose" framework and believe they must work against (rather than with) their peers to be noticed. (<i>Turn the job into a contest; Never appear to lose</i>)
Perfectionistic	A Perfectionistic culture characterizes organizations in which perfectionism, persistence, and hard work are valued. Members feel they must avoid any mistakes, keep track of everything, and work long hours to attain narrowly defined objectives. (<i>Do things perfectly; Keep on top of everything</i>)

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The constructive culture norms of organizational culture reflect norms and behaviours where members are expected to interact and build relationship with others in order to approach tasks that meet the higher-order satisfaction needs. Members in organizations dominated by constructive culture norms are characterized as achievement oriented, self-actualizing, humanistic, encouraging, and possess affiliative norms. It is associated with a range of positive outcomes: including high levels of performance, low levels of job stress and tension, decrease levels of turnover intention, and increase levels of job satisfaction and job commitment (Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988).

The passive-defensive culture norms of organizational culture reflects norms and behaviours where members believe that they have to interact with others in ways that do not threaten their own status and security. Members in organizations dominated by passive-defensive culture norms are characterized with approval seeking behaviours, conservative and traditional values, dependent of authorities, and avoidance of responsibilities to minimize mistakes. It is associated with low level of performance and overall employees' well being (Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988).

The aggressive-defensive culture norms of organizational culture reflect norms and behaviours where members focus on tasks and approach them in a forceful manner to protect their own status and security. Members in organizations dominated by aggressive-defensive culture norms are often oppositional towards other members, and approach tasks in perfectionistic and competitive manner. This cluster of culture styles encourages members to perform the task on a sufficient level, but at a cost of negating the people that are involved in the organization. It promotes a steady and reliable performance but does not strive for outstanding levels of performances and innovation (Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988).

Organizational Culture and Perceived Discrimination

The culture of an organization operates within a societal context; and literature in organizational sciences has suggested that organizational culture is associated with societal culture to an extent (Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2011). However, although organizational and societal cultures share similarities in some aspects, organizational cultures fundamentally have different functions that diverge itself from societal cultures (Kwantes & Dickson, 2011; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). More specifically, organizational

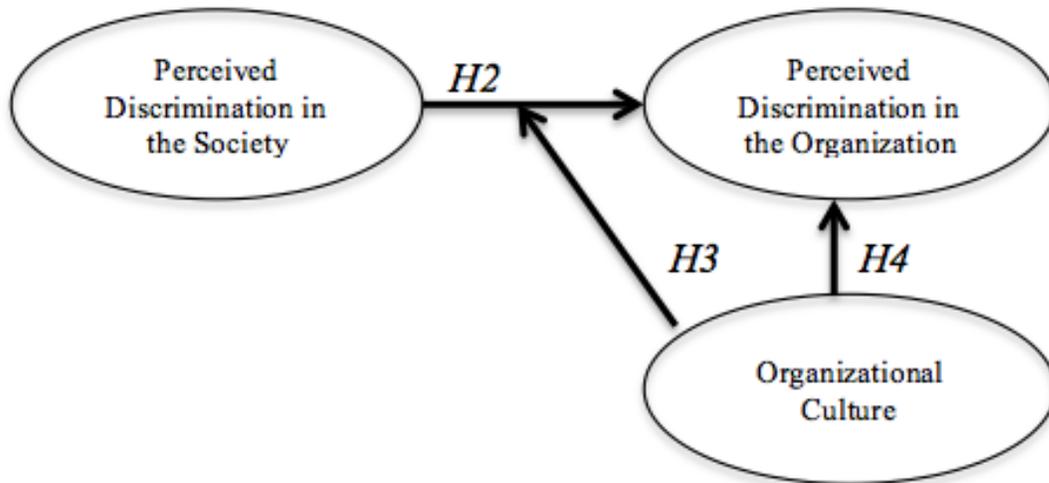
cultures have a more superficial impact, which influence individual behaviour and practices in a specific context; societal cultures, on the other hand, have a stronger impact on individual values and beliefs.

Organizational cultures have an impact on employee's behavioural outcomes, such as performance and overall well-being (Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). It is plausible, therefore, that organizational culture has an impact on the association of perceived discrimination between societal and organizational context. Furthermore, as it represents behavioural norms in the workplace, the culture of an organization may be directly related to individual's level of perceived discrimination in the workplace (Figure 3).

Overall H3. Organizational culture moderates the association between societal and organizational contexts such that constructive culture norms weaken, and passive- and aggressive-defensive culture norms strengthen the association of perceived discrimination between societal and organizational contexts.

Overall H4. Organizational culture is directly associated with the level of perceived discrimination in the workplace such that constructive culture norms are negatively associated, and passive- and aggressive-defensive culture norms are positively associated with the level of perceived discrimination in an organization.

Figure 3. Perceived Discrimination in Relation to Organizational Culture Across Contexts



Constructive cluster of organizational culture norms. Constructive culture norms encourage members in the organization to work in a team environment to meet high-order satisfaction needs. They promote participation in team effort and rewards quality task performances. Members in organizations dominated by constructive culture norms are expected to be supportive, constructive, and open to influence as well as being sensitive in their relationships with others. Members who set and accomplish goals are rewarded, and they are treated fairly in the work group (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). Research in the diversity field suggests that the level of perceived discrimination is decreased when employees perceive an equal treatment from the organization and when their demographic dissimilarity is not made salient (Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013; Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008). Therefore, it is hypothesized that the constructive culture cluster of norms moderate the association of perceived discrimination between societal and organizational contexts; that is, the association between contexts is reduced when there is a high level of perceived discrimination in the societal context. It is further hypothesized that constructive culture norms also have a direct effect on the

perception of discrimination in the workplace, and are negatively associated with the level of perceived discrimination in the workplace.

H3a. Constructive culture norms moderate the association of perceived discrimination between societal and organizational contexts, such that the association between contexts is reduced when there is a high level of perceived discrimination in the societal context.

H4a. Constructive culture norms are negatively associated with the level of perceived discrimination in the workplace.

Passive-defensive cluster organizational culture norms. Members in organizations with passive-defensive culture norms often avoid conflicts and responsibilities in the workplace. Interpersonal relationships are expected to be in a pleasant state; that is, members should agree and avoid conflicts with others in order to gain approval and be liked by their peers, as well as supervisors (Cooke & Rousseau, 1998). Organizations with passive-defensive culture norms have a conservative and traditional hierarchy; the power distance exists in the organization, and members are expected to conform and abide to rules and policies that are in place. Quality performances are often not rewarded, but mistakes are often punished, therefore creating an environment that does not promote participation of individuals; members only take on responsibilities when they are ordered to by the higher ranking members (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). In this type of culture, relationships with supervisors become a very important aspect of one's career. Members approach relationships in the workplace carefully as it dictates their individual security and success with the organization. In a diverse workplace, individual differences become salient, and the power distance between employees and supervisor can

potentially create a higher level of perceived discrimination (Inman & Baron, 1996; Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008). When passive-defensive culture norms are strong, members' task performances become irrelevant when it comes to reward and promotion, therefore potentially creating the perception of unfair treatment in the workplace (Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013). It is hypothesized therefore that passive-defensive culture cluster of norms moderate the association of perceived discrimination between societal and organizational contexts, such that the association between contexts is increased when there is a high level of perceived discrimination in the societal context. It is further hypothesized that passive-defensive culture norms are associated with a higher level of perceived discrimination in the workplace.

H3b. Passive-defensive culture norms moderate the association of perceived discrimination between societal and organizational contexts, such that the association between contexts is increased when there is a high level of perceived discrimination in the societal context.

H4b. Passive-defensive culture norms are positively associated with the level of perceived discrimination in an organization.

Aggressive-defensive organizational culture norms. Organizations with aggressive-defensive culture norms value perfectionism, persistence, and hard work. Members are rewarded based on their performances, and often praised for out-performing their peers. It creates a competitive environment, which encourages confrontation amongst members in order to gain or maintain their status in the workplace. Members in organizations with aggressive-defensive

culture norms prioritize tasks over relationships with others in the group (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988).

It is suggested that a competitive environment, where perfectionism is valued in the workplace, can create a hostile setting for minorities in the workplace (Emerson & Murphy, 2014). Minorities are perceived to be at a disadvantage, as they expect to be discriminated against more often in the workplace; members of the dominant group, on the other hand, are viewed as having competitive advantage over the minorities when the organization promotes a competitive environment. It is therefore hypothesized that aggressive-defensive culture cluster of norms moderate the association of perceived discrimination between societal and organizational contexts; more specifically, the association between contexts is increased when there is a high level of perceived discrimination in the societal context. In addition, it is hypothesized to be associated with a higher level of perceived discrimination in the workplace.

H3c. Aggressive-defensive culture norms moderate the association of perceived discrimination between societal and organizational contexts, such that the association between contexts is increased when there is a high level of perceived discrimination in the societal context.

H4c. Aggressive-defensive culture norms are positively associated with the level of perceived discrimination in an organization.

Perceived Discrimination and Psychological Well-Being

The topic of psychological well-being and its related issues has become an important area of research in the field of organizational psychology (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). In general, psychological well-being is characterized by individual attitude and feelings toward personal satisfaction (Banks *et al.*, 1980). It is well documented that psychological well-being in the workplace is associated with various organizational related outcomes, such as absenteeism, job performance, employee productivity, employee attitude, and motivation (Harnois & Gabriel, 2002).

Studies have shown the relationship between perceived discrimination and psychological well-being in both societal and organizational contexts. Perceived discrimination based on immigration status, ethnicity, gender, age, cognitive ability, and weight was found to be highly predictive of individual's psychological well-being in the societal context (Joseph & Kuo, 2009; Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, & Perhoniemi, 2006; Schneider, Hitlan, & Radhakrishnan, 2000; Caldwell, Kohn-Wood, Schmeelk-Cone, Chavous, & Zimmerman, 2004; Sutin, Stephan, Carretta, & Terracciano, 2015). In the organizational context, the perception of discrimination was reported to be highly associated with employee's psychological well-being (e.g. Triana *et al.*, 2015; Wated & Sanchez, 2006; Connon & Miller, 2014). For example, a meta-analytic report suggested that the deprivation of fair treatment in the workplace was found to result in individual frustrations and lower levels of psychological well-being (Triana, Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015). In addition, a study using Hispanic student population reported that perceived discrimination based on language barriers was found as the source of work stress, which led to lower levels of employee mental well-being (Wated & Sanchez, 2006). Over a series of interviews, immigrant nurses also reported experiencing communication and discrimination problems in the workplace,

which intensified stressors related to their occupation that lead to lower levels of psychological well-being (Connon & Miller, 2014). Therefore, it is evident that the perception of discrimination is associated with individual's psychological well-being across contexts and a variety of demographic characteristics. Following previous findings, it is hypothesized that perceived discrimination in the organizational context is negatively associated with individual psychological well-being.

H5. Perceived discrimination in the organizational context is negatively associated with psychological well-being.

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention refers to an employee's desire to leave an organization, and the intention to look for a new position with another employer (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Research in the field of workplace diversity has found that perceived discrimination is associated with employee's turnover intention (Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013; Blau & Tatum, 2000; McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007; Triana, Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015). That is, when employees perceive access to equal opportunities and fair treatment in the workplace, they are less likely to leave their organization. Following previous findings, it is hypothesized that perceived discrimination in the workplace is related with turnover intention.

H6. Perceived discrimination in the organizational context is positively associated with turnover intention.

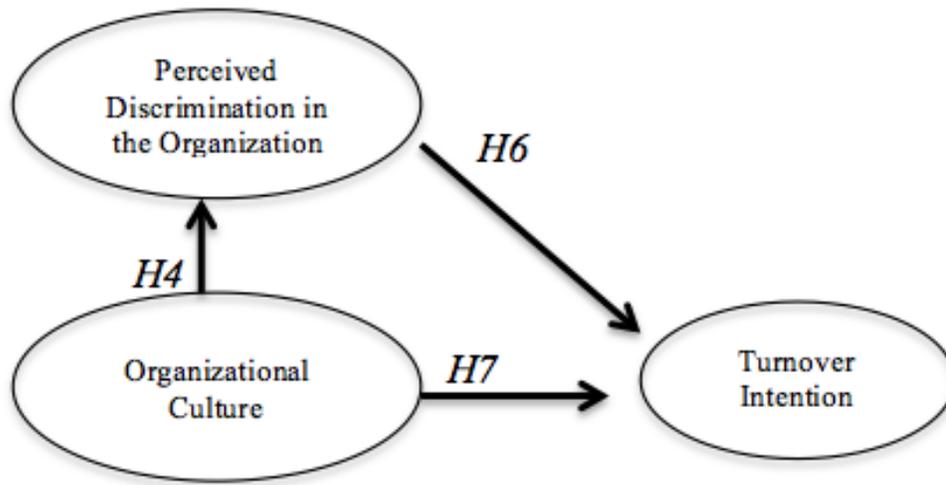
In addition to perceived discrimination, the culture of an organization was found to have an association with turnover intention as well (Balthazard, Cooke, & Potter, 2006). More specifically, constructive culture norms were negatively related to turnover intention, passive-defensive culture norms were positively related to turnover intention, and aggressive-defensive culture norms were positively related to turnover intention. Following previous findings, it is hypothesized that the culture of an organization is associated with turnover intention. Furthermore, it is expected that organizational culture is directly associated with perceived discrimination in the organizational context, and perceived discrimination in the organizational context is directly associated with turnover intention; therefore, this research further hypothesized that the association between organizational culture and turnover intention is mediated by perceived discrimination in the workplace (Figure 4). However, since organizational culture was also found to be directly associated with turnover intention (Balthazard, Cooke, & Potter, 2006), it is therefore hypothesized that the mediation is partial rather than full.

H7a. Constructive culture norms are negatively associated with turnover intention, and this relationship is partially mediated by perceived discrimination in the workplace.

H7b. Passive-defensive culture norms are positively associated with turnover intention, and this relationship is partially mediated by perceived discrimination in the workplace.

H7c. Aggressive-defensive culture norms are positively associated with turnover intention, and this relationship is partially mediated by perceived discrimination in the workplace.

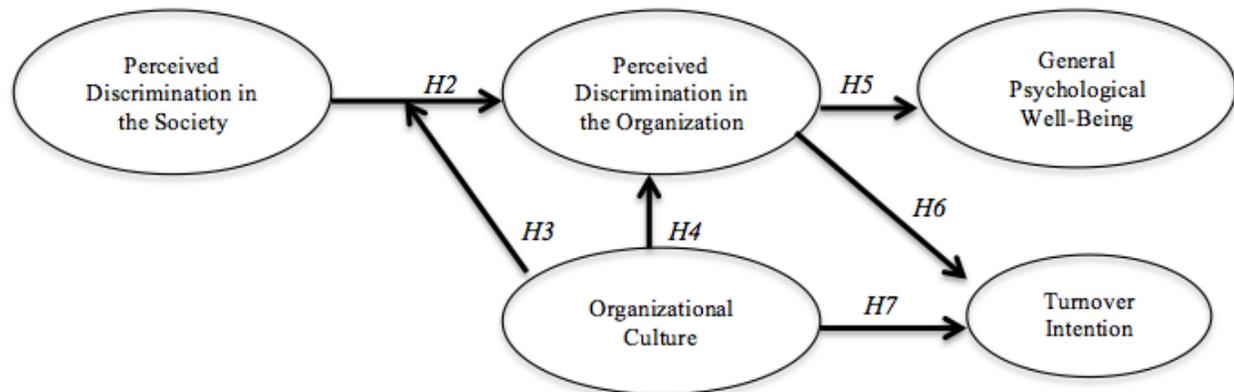
Figure 4. Organizational Culture, Perceived Discrimination, and Turnover Intention



Overall Research Model

The purpose of this research is to understand the function of perceived discrimination across societal and organizational contexts, and how the culture of an organization impacts the perception of discrimination and its consequences on individual outcomes (Figure 5). Overall, seven hypotheses are formulated to test this research model. First, using the concept of prototype and expectation of perceived discrimination (Inman & Baron, 1996), it is hypothesized that individuals who self-identify as members of a minority group in the society are more likely to perceive a higher level of discrimination in both societal and organizational contexts. Second, the prototype and expectation explanations of perceived discrimination (Inman & Baron, 1996) lead this research to further hypothesize that there is perceived discrimination are associated between societal and organizational contexts. Third, studies have asserted that while the culture of an

organization is imbedded within the societal context, organizational cultures function differently from societal cultures to a degree (Kwantes & Dickson, 2011; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). It is therefore hypothesized that the culture of an organization will moderate the association of perceived discrimination between societal and organizational context. Fourth, it is evident that the culture of an organization impacts employee's normative beliefs and behavioural expectations (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988); therefore, it is hypothesized that the culture of an organization is directly related to employee's perception of discrimination in the workplace. Fifth, it is well documented in the field that the perception of discrimination in both societal and organizational context is related to individual psychological well-being (Harnois & Gabriel, 2002); following previous findings, it is hypothesized that perceived discrimination in the workplace is associated with employee's psychological well-being. Sixth, it is also well documented that perceived discrimination is highly correlated with employee's desire to leave the organization (Triana, Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015); therefore, it is hypothesized that perceived discrimination in the organizational context is associated with turnover intention. Finally, research suggests that the culture of an organization is related to employee's turnover intention (Balthazard, Cooke, & Potter, 2006); thus, it is hypothesized that organizational culture is related to turnover intention, and it is partially mediated by perceived discrimination in the organizational context.

Figure 5. Overall Research Model

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Participants

A total of N=176 American participants completed the online survey through Amazon Mechanical Turk. Prior to hypotheses testing, preliminary data analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 21.0, including: detecting missing data, analyzing item response checks, and diagnosing univariate outliers.

Missing data were first diagnosed using visual inspection, and one case was removed as a result due to high volume of missing data with 35 items missing. In addition to visual inspection, Little's MCAR test was conducted to diagnose for missing data after the deletion of one case. Results of the test proved to be non-significant, $\chi^2(1534) = .000, p = 1.000$ – which suggested missing data in the analyses were completely at random. A total of 5 of the 175 cases had missing data, with an average 0.82% of the responses per case. Considering that the missing data were completely at random, and the low percentage of missing responses per case, mean substitution technique was used to impute the missing values. To ensure participants read through each item carefully and did not respond to the items randomly, two item checks were included in the survey, with one placed within the Social Perceived Discrimination Scale, and the other within the General Health Questionnaire. The first item required the participant to respond with “7 – Completely Agree”, and the second item to respond with “4 – Much More Than Usual.” Inspection of these two items suggested that 12 cases failed both the first and the second item checks, and 9 failed the second item check. As a result, a total of 21 cases were removed from the data set, with 6 cases from the minority group and 15 from the majority group. In addition to missing data and item checks, univariate outliers were also diagnosed in the

preliminary analyses. Using a z-score of $|3|$ as the cut-off (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), 1 outlier was detected and removed from the dataset. Therefore, a total of $N=153$ participants (67 female, 86 male) were included in the subsequent assumptions and hypotheses testing.

All participants included in the subsequent analyses were employed full time in various industries (See Table 2) and in a wide range of roles (See Table 3). Of the 153 participants, the majority identified as White/Caucasian, followed by Asian, Hispanic, and Black/African American respectively (See Table 4). Participants were composed of various age groups (See Table 5), and majority of participants reported having at least a Bachelor's Degree (See Table 6). Out of the 153 participants, 66 identified as part of a minority group due to their gender, age, sexual orientation, ethnicity, religious beliefs, socioeconomic status, or other demographic characteristics. Participants were able to identify with more than one demographic group as a minority; 26 (39.39%) participants identified with one group, 16 (24.24%) with two groups, 13 (19.70%) with three groups, 5 (7.58%) with four groups, 2 (3.03%) with five groups, and 4 (6.06%) with six groups.

Table 2. Organization Industries (N=153)

	Frequency	Percent
Accounting	8	5.2
Communication/Publishing	1	0.7
Computers	19	12.4
Construction	2	1.3
Consulting	4	2.6
Educational	9	5.9
Energy	2	1.3
Financial	15	9.8
Healthcare	15	9.8
Hospitality	10	6.5
Insurance	5	3.3
Manufacturing	10	6.5
Military	1	0.7
Not-for-Profit	5	3.3
Public Sector	2	1.3
Retail	17	11.1
Transportation/Distribution	8	5.2
Other	18	11.8
Prefer not to Respond	2	1.3

Table 3. Occupation (N=153)

	Frequency	Percent
Accounting	14	9.2
Administrative Staff	20	13.1
Assembly Line	3	2
Consulting	3	2
Data Processing	4	2.6
Direct Labor	5	3.3
Education	4	2.6
Engineering	8	5.2
Finance	6	3.9
Law	5	3.3
Management (General)	11	7.2
Management Information Systems	7	4.6
Nursing	2	1.3
Personnel/Training	3	2
Production	4	2.6
Public Relations	3	2
Purchasing	1	0.7
Research/Development	3	2
Sales	21	13.7
Secretarial/Clerical	2	1.3
Skilled trade	7	4.6
Social Work/Psychology	1	0.7
Student	2	1.3
Other	12	7.8
Prefer Not to Respond	2	1.3

Table 4. Ethnic Background (N=153)

	Frequency	Percent
White/Caucasian	100	65.4
Asian	18	11.8
Hispanic	17	11.1
Black/African American	13	8.5
Other	3	2
Prefer not to Respond	2	1.3

Table 5. Age Groups (N=153)

	Frequency	Percent
Under 20	2	1.3
20-29	60	39.2
30-39	57	37.3
40-49	14	9.2
50-59	15	9.8
60 or Over	5	3.3

Table 6. Education (N=153)

	Frequency	Percent
Associate's/Technical Degree	19	12.4
Bachelor's Degree	57	37.3
Doctoral Degree	5	3.3
High School	8	5.2
Master's Degree	27	17.6
Some College	33	21.6
Some Graduate Work	4	2.6

Procedure

The study was advertised, and participants recruited, using a data collection website based in the United States – Amazon Mechanical Turk. Amazon Mechanical Turk is an online crowd sourcing work-for-hire service that was designed for researchers or organizations to obtain access to a large number of individuals in order to collect data from a large pool of participants at a cost. On average, members of Amazon Mechanical Turk are willing to participate in studies that pay \$1.38 per hour (Mason & Suri, 2012); this research compensated each participant a total of USD\$1 for 30 minutes to an hour of their time.

This research required participants to be a full-time employee of an organization (at least 30 hours per week), and employed with only one organization. Participants were screened through fluidsurveys before they were given the questionnaires. That is, participants were required to indicate their employment status by responding to a screening item (i.e. “*Please*

indicate your employment status), and were given the following choices – Unemployed, Full Time (30 hours per week), or Part time (less than 30 hours per week). Participants who were eligible to be part of the research (i.e. full time employees) were given a link to complete the rest of the study on the Human Synergistics International server. Participants who were not eligible to be part of the research due to their employment status were directed back to the study advertisement on Amazon Mechanical Turk.

Measures

Eligible participants were given 5 sets of questionnaires to assess five main variables included in this study. The five variables were perceived societal discrimination, perceived organizational discrimination, organizational culture, psychological well-being, and turnover intention. The respective measures used to assess the five variables were Everyday Discrimination scale (Williams, Jackson, & Anderson, 1997), Workplace Prejudice/Discrimination Inventory (James, Lovato, and Cropanzano, 1994), Organizational Culture Inventory[®] (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989), 12-item version General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12) (Goldberg, 1972; Banks *et al.*, 1980), and 3-item Intention to Quit Scale (Ballinger *et al.*, 2010). Overall descriptives and reliability of each scale is provided in Table 7.

Perceived Societal Discrimination. The Everyday Discrimination Scale (Williams, Jackson, & Anderson, 1997) was adapted to measure participants' level of perceived discrimination in the societal context (See Appendix B). The original scale was used to measure participants' actual experience of discrimination, whereas the adapted version measured participants' general perception of discrimination in the societal context. The referent from the scale was changed

from “you” in the original version, to “some people” in the adapted version. Participants were presented with 9 statements in the scale, and were asked to rate each statement on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Completely Disagree) to 7 (Completely Agree). Some examples of the items include: “*Some people are treated with less courtesy than others because of their demographic characteristics,*” “*Some people are treated with less respect than others because of their demographic characteristics,*” “*People act as if they think some other people are not smart because of their demographic characteristics,*” and “*Some people are threatened or harassed because of their demographic characteristics.*” The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was $\alpha = .968$.

Perceived Organizational Discrimination. The Workplace Prejudice/Discrimination Inventory (James, Lovato, and Cropanzano, 1994) was adapted to assess participants’ level of perceived discrimination in the organization (See Appendix C). The original version of the scale only assessed perceived discrimination in the workplace related to ethnicity and racial groups. The adapted version, on the other hand, measured respondent’s perceived discrimination in relation to every possible demographic characteristic in the workplace. Participants were presented with 15 statements in the scale, and were asked to rate each scale on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Completely Disagree) to 7 (Completely Agree). Some examples of the items include “*Few of the example items in the adapted version include “Prejudice exists where I work,” “At work I feel socially isolated because of my racial/ethnic group, gender, age, or other demographic characteristics,” and “At work people are intolerant of others of different racial/ethnic backgrounds, gender, age, or other demographic characteristics.”*” The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was $\alpha = .942$.

Organizational Culture. The Organizational Culture Inventory ® (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989) was used to measure participants' perceptions of organizational culture. The inventory presented 12 different sets of thinking and behavioural styles that made up the three clusters of culture norms: constructive culture norms, passive-defensive culture norms, and aggressive-defensive culture norms. Constructive culture norms were associated with achievement, self-actualizing, humanistic-encouraging, and affiliative behavioural cultural styles; passive-defensive culture norms were associated with approval, conventional, dependent, and avoidance behavioural cultural styles; and aggressive-defensive culture norms were associated with oppositional, power, competitive, and perfectionistic behavioural cultural styles (See Table 1). Participants were presented with 120 items in the inventory, and were asked to rate each item using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (To a Very Great Extent). Specifically, participants were presented with one overarching statement, followed by 120 items. The overarching statement was "*Please think about the behaviors that are expected and encouraged in your organization. Using the response options to the right, indicate the extent to which members are expected to...*" Some examples of the following items were "*Help others grow and develop,*" "*Deal with others in a friendly way,*" and "*Turn the job into a contest.*" The Cronbach's alpha for constructive culture norms subscale was $\alpha = .948$; passive-defensive culture norms subscale $\alpha = .943$; and aggressive-culture norms subscale $\alpha = .940$.

Psychological Well-Being. The 12-item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12) (Goldberg, 1972; Banks *et al.*, 1980) was used to measure participants' psychological well-being (see Appendix D). Participants were presented with 12 items, and were asked to respond to each item on a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Less Than Usual) to 4 (Much More Than Usual).

Example items in GHQ-12 were “*Have you recently felt that you are playing a useful part in things?*” “*Have you recently felt constantly under strain?*” and “*Have you recently been feeling unhappy and depressed?*” The Cronbach’s alpha for the GHQ-12 was $\alpha = .88$.

Turnover Intention. The 3-item Intention to Quit Scale (Ballinger *et al.*, 2010) was used to assess participants’ turnover intention (See Appendix E). Participants were presented with 3 items, and were asked to respond to each item with a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). The Cronbach’s alpha for the scale was $\alpha = .93$.

Table 7. Descriptives and Reliability of each Variable

Variables	Scales	Items	α	Mean (SE)	SD	Minority		Non-Minority	
						Mean (SE)	SD	Mean (SE)	SD
Perceived Societal Discrimination (PSD)	Everyday Discrimination Scale (Adapted)	9	0.97	5.14 (.120)	1.49	5.58 (.160)	1.30	4.80 (.166)	1.54
Perceived Organizational Discrimination (POD)	Workplace Prejudice/Discrimination Inventory (Adapted)	15	0.94	3.27 (.111)	1.38	3.82 (.175)	1.42	2.85 (.128)	1.20
Organizational Culture (OC)	Organizational Culture Inventory								
Constructive Cluster (CC)	OCI-Subscale	40	0.95	37.72 (.488)	6.03	38.34 (.690)	5.60	37.26 (.678)	6.33
Passive/Defensive Cluster (PC)	OCI-Subscale	40	0.94	29.59 (.524)	6.48	29.90 (.821)	6.67	29.35 (.682)	6.36
Aggressive/Defensive Cluster (AC)	OCI-Subscale	40	0.94	27.50 (.517)	6.40	28.40 (.793)	6.45	26.83 (.678)	6.31
Psychological Well-Being (PWB)	General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12)	12	0.88	33.22 (.517)	6.39	32.74 (.812)	6.59	33.59 (.670)	6.25
Turnover Intention (TI)	Intention to Quit Scale	3	0.93	3.19 (.160)	1.98	3.35 (.234)	1.90	3.07 (.218)	2.03

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Assumptions Testing

Prior to the assumption analyses, it should be noted that the proposed models utilized various statistical analyses methods, including: analysis of variance (ANOVA), bivariate correlation, hierarchical multiple regression analysis, multiple regression analysis (MRA), and mediation analysis. Furthermore, some variables in the proposed model were considered as both predictor and outcome variables, depending on the hypotheses. Predictor variables in the hypotheses testing were perceived societal discrimination (PSD), perceived organizational discrimination (POD), constructive culture norms (CC), passive/defensive culture norms (PC), and aggressive/defensive culture norms (AC). Outcome variables in the hypotheses testing were perceived organizational discrimination, psychological well-being (PWB), and turnover intention (TI). Univariate assumptions were checked prior to the hypotheses testing on first and second hypotheses, as the first two hypotheses were analyzed using univariate methods (i.e. ANOVA and bivariate correlation). Two variables were included in the univariate assumption analyses: PSD and POD. Multivariate assumptions were checked prior to the hypotheses testing for hypotheses three to seven, as they were analyzed using multivariate methods (i.e. hierarchical multiple regression analysis, MRA, and mediation analysis).

Assumptions of ANOVA

Homogeneity of Variance

ANOVA assumes that there is an equivalent of variances across each group. Using the Levene's Test of variances, it appears that the assumption of homogeneity in variance was met

for PSD and POD. The Levene's Test indicated non-significant results on both variables:

$F(1,151) = .79, p > .05$ for PSD, and $F(1,151) = 1.12, p > .05$ for POD.

Normal Distribution

The assumption of normal distribution was tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality. The test indicated significant results on both PSD and POD, suggesting violation of the assumptions across variables. The results of the test were as followed: $D(153) = .106, p < .001$ for PSD, and $D(153) = .095, p < .05$ for POD. Visual inspection on the histogram of PSD and POD also indicated slight deviations from normality, further supporting the violation of the assumption. However, skewness and kurtosis of PSD (-.734 and .216 respectively) and POD (.31 and -1.14 respectively) were both within the acceptable range (-2 and 2 for skewness, -3 and 3 for kurtosis; Field, 2009).

Schmider *et al.* (2010) and Field (2009) indicated that ANOVA is robust despite non-normality if the assumption on homogeneity of variances is met. In addition, log and square root transformation techniques were used in attempt to improve normality on both PSD and POD. However, both log and square root transformation did not make significant improvement on normality. As such, no transformations were made for the hypotheses testing analyses.

Assumptions of Multivariate Analysis

Several assumptions of multivariate analyses were checked prior to testing hypotheses 3 to 7. These multivariate assumptions are: absence of influential variables, adequate sample size, absence of multicollinearity, homoscedasticity of error, independence of error, multivariate normality, and linearity between independent and dependent variables.

Influential variables are multivariate outliers that have great influence on the overall results of multivariate analyses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Field, 2009). Several diagnostics values were obtained to detect for influential variables in the proposed models, including values of DFFIT, Cook's distance, and Leverage. Results of the diagnostic tests suggest no influential variables in the dataset (DFFIT cutoff at 2.0, Cook's distance value to be less than 1, and leverage value to be less than $(2(k+1))/n$; Field, 2009). Therefore, the assumption of absence of influential variables was met.

Sample size requirement was calculated for every subsequent main analysis using the equation $50+8k$ (k is the number of variables included in the analysis; Field, 2009). The assumption of adequate sample size was met across all hypotheses testing.

Multicollinearity occurs when two or more predictor variables are highly correlated (Field, 2009). The variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance values were calculated to detect multicollinearity within the dataset. Field (2009) indicated that in order to meet the assumption of absence of multicollinearity, VIF must not be over 10 and tolerance values must be lower than 0.2. No variables in the proposed models were found to have VIF over 10, or tolerance value lower than 0.2; therefore, the assumption of absence of multicollinearity was met, suggesting that none of the variables were redundant in the subsequent analyses.

Homoscedasticity of error indicates that the variance is consistent across all levels of predictor variables within the analyses (Field, 2009). Visual examination of the standardized residuals plots was conducted in order to test for homoscedasticity of error. This assumption was met for all multivariate analyses.

Independence of error means that the residuals of one independent variable are not related to the residuals of another independent variable (Field, 2009). This assumption is

diagnosed using the Durbin-Watson value; the assumption is met when the value is between 1 and 3. Values for Durbin-Watson were calculated for each of the relevant analyses in the proposed models, and results demonstrated Durbin-Watson values within the acceptable range across analyses. Therefore, the assumption of independence of error was met for subsequent analyses.

The assumption of multivariate normality was diagnosed using visual examination of the histogram on related dependent variables for all subsequent analyses. Results suggested no violation of normality occurred; therefore the assumption was met.

Linearity between independent and dependent variables were examined visually using scatterplot. Results suggested no violation of linearity; hence no changes were made on the dataset for the subsequent analyses. Overall, all multivariate assumptions were met in the dataset.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1. *Individuals who self-identify as members of a minority group in the societal context are more likely to perceive a higher level of discrimination in both societal and organizational contexts in comparison to members who self-identify as part of the dominant group.*

An ANOVA was conducted in order to test the first hypothesis. Results of the analysis demonstrated statistically significant differences between minority and majority members on both PSD and POD (See Table 8 & 9). Minority members (M=5.58, SD=1.30) reported higher score of PSD than majority members (M=4.81, SD=1.54); minority members (3.82, SD=1.42) also reported higher score of POD than majority members (M=2.85, SD= 1.20). The results of the analyses indicated that participants who identified as part of the minority

groups did perceive higher levels of discrimination in both societal and organizational contexts, in comparison to those who identified as part of the dominant group; therefore, hypothesis 1 was supported.

Table 8. ANOVA of PSD between Majority and Minority Groups

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	ω^2
Between	1	22.733	22.733	10.88	.001	.06
Within	151	315.495	2.089			
Total	152	338.228				

Table 9. ANOVA of POD between Majority and Minority Groups

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	ω^2
Between	1	35.211	35.211	20.91	.000	.12
Within	151	254.318	1.684			
Total	152	289.528				

Hypothesis 2. *Higher levels of perceived discrimination in societal contexts are associated with higher levels of perceived discrimination in the organizational contexts.*

Bivariate correlational analyses were conducted to assess the relationship between PSD and POD. Results of the one-tailed Pearson correlational analyses suggested a weak but statistically significant correlation between the two variables, $r = .15$, $n = 153$, $p < .05$. A scatterplot was created to demonstrate the relationship between PSD and POD. An inspection of the scatterplot suggested that lower level of perceived societal discrimination is associated with lower level of perceived organizational discrimination. However, an increase in perception of discrimination in the societal context may not be associated with an increase of perceived organizational discrimination; thus further confirming the results of the one-tailed correlational analyses. Overall, there was a weak one-tailed correlation on the perception of discrimination between societal and organizational contexts; therefore, the hypothesis was marginally supported.

Hypothesis 3. *Organizational culture moderates the association between societal and organizational contexts such that constructive culture norms (H3a) weaken, and passive-defensive (H3b) and aggressive-defensive culture norms (H3c) strengthen the association of perceived discrimination between societal and organizational contexts.*

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to investigate the potential moderating effect of three organizational cultures (OC: constructive culture norms, CC; passive-defensive culture norms, PC; and aggressive-defensive culture norms, AC) on perceived societal discrimination (PSD) and perceived organizational discrimination (POD). Predictor and moderating variables were centered to avoid potential multicollinearity issues in the interaction

(Field, 2009), and the interaction of PSD-by-OC was computed prior to the analyses. The hierarchical multiple regression analyses in this model were conducted in two steps. First step of the analyses included the predictor variables (i.e. PSD and OC) and the outcome variable (i.e. POD). Second step of the analyses included the previous variables as well as the moderating variable in the multiple regression models. The moderator variable was calculated by multiplying PSD and OC for the interaction effect.

The first analysis examined the moderating effect of CC on PSD and POD (See Table 10). Results of the overall multiple regression (first step) suggested a statistically significant effect PSD and CC on POD, $R^2 = .06$, adjusted $R^2 = .05$, $SE = 1.35$, $F(2,150) = 4.78$, $p < .05$. The interaction effect between PSD and CC was added into the second step of the analyses. Results of the second step suggested that the interaction variable (PSD \times CC) did not significantly increase the predictive ability of PSD on POD, $B = .00$, $SE = .01$, $t(149) = -.12$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-0.026, 0.023]. Therefore, hypothesis 3a was not supported as the interaction effect between PSD and CC did not have a significant effect on the outcome variable.

Table 10.
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of PSD, CC, and PSD \times CC
(N=153)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	$SE B$		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Step 1					
PSD	.17*	.07	.18*	0.025	0.318
CC	-.04*	.02	-.19*	-0.080	-0.008
Step 2					
PSD	.17*	.08	.19*	0.024	0.322
CC	-.04*	.02	-.19*	-0.081	-0.008
PSD \times CC	.00	.01	-.01	-0.026	0.023

Note. Outcome variable: POD. $R^2 = .06$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .00$ for Step 2 ($p > .05$)

* $p < .05$

The second analysis looked into the moderating effect of PC on PSD and POD (See Table 11). Results of the overall multiple regression (first step) suggested a statistically significant effect of PSD and PC on POD, $R^2 = .14$, adjusted $R^2 = .13$, $SE = 1.29$, $F(2,150) = 12.08$, $p < .05$. The interaction effect between PSD and PC was added into the second step of the analyses. Results of the second step suggested that the interaction variable (PSD \times PC) did not significantly increase the predictive ability of PSD on POD, $B = .00$, $SE = .02$, $t(149) = .56$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-0.028, 0.030]. Therefore, hypothesis 3b was not supported as the interaction effect between PSD and PC did not have a significant effect on the outcome variable.

Table 11.
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of PSD, PC, and PSD \times PC
(N=153)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	$SE B$		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Step 1					
PSD	.14*	.07	.15*	0.001	0.278
PC	.07*	.02	.34*	0.040	0.104
Step 2					
PSD	.14	.07	.15	-0.001	0.279
PC	.07*	.02	.34*	0.038	0.106
PSD \times PC	.00	.02	.01	-0.028	0.030

Note. Outcome variable: POD. $R^2 = .14$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .00$ for Step 2 ($p > .05$)

* $p < .05$

The last analysis looked into the moderating effect of AC on PSD and POD (See Table 12). Results of the overall multiple regression (first step) suggested a statistically significant effect of PSD and AC on POD, $R^2 = .287$, adjusted $R^2 = .28$, $SE = 1.17$, $F(2,150) = 30.16$, $p < 0.05$. The interaction effect between PSD and AC was added into the second step of the analyses. Results of the second step suggested that the interaction variable (PSDxAC) did not significantly increase the predictive ability of PSD on POD, $B = .02$, $SE = .011$, $t(149) = 1.81$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-0.002, 0.042]. Therefore, hypothesis 3c was not supported as the interaction effect between PSD and AC did not have a significant effect on the outcome variable.

Table 12.
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of PSD, AC, and PSDxAC
(N=153)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	$SE B$		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Step 1					
PSD	.15*	.06	.16*	0.026	0.278
AC	.11*	.02	.51*	0.081	0.140
Step 2					
PSD	.15*	.06	.16*	0.023	0.273
AC	.11*	.02	.50*	0.079	0.137
PSDxAC	.20	.01	.12	-0.002	0.042

Note. Outcome variable: POD. $R^2 = .29$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .02$ for Step 2 ($p > .05$)

* $p < .05$

Hypothesis 4. *Organizational culture predicts the level of perceived discrimination in the workplace, such that constructive culture norms are negatively associated, and passive-defensive and aggressive-defensive culture norms are positively associated with the level of perceived discrimination in an organization.*

A linear multiple regression was calculated to investigate perceived organizational discrimination (POD) based on organizational culture (OC), specifically constructive culture norms (CC), passive-defensive culture norms (PC), and aggressive-defensive culture norms (AC). Results showed statistically significant multiple regression (See Table 13), $R^2 = .29$ $SE = 1.175$, $F(3,149) = 20.273$, $p < .001$. A closer look at the variables individually indicated that PC did not have a significant impact in predicting POD, $B = -.028$, $SE = .023$, $t(149) = -1.192$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-.074, .018]. On the other hand, CC and AC demonstrated statistical significant impact on predicting POD, with $B = -.035$, $SE = .016$, $t(149) = -.2184$, $p < .05$, 95% CI[-.066, -.003] for CC and $B = .131$, $SE = .024$, $t(149) = 5.564$, $p < .05$, 95% CI[.084, .177] for AC (See Table 14). That is, the predicted perceived organizational discrimination is equal to $1.788 - .035(CC) - .028(PC) + .131(AC)$. Perceived organizational discrimination decreased by 0.35 for every level of constructive culture norms, .028 for every level of passive-defensive culture norms, and increased by .131 for every level of aggressive-defensive culture norms. Therefore, hypothesis 4 was only partially supported (with *H4a* and *H4c* being supported, and *H4b* not supported).

Table 13, H4 Overall Multiple Regression of OC on POD (N=153)

R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of Estimate	F	(df1, df2)	<i>p</i>
0.29	0.28	1.17	20.27	(3, 149)	<0.001

Predictor Variables: CC, PC, and AC

Dependent Variable: POD

Table 14, Coefficient Table for CC, PC, and AC on POD (N=153)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	1.78*	0.76		0.293	3.283
CC	-0.35*	0.02	-.15*	-0.066	-0.003
PC	-0.03	0.02	-.13	-0.074	0.018
AC	0.13*	0.02	.61*	0.084	0.177

*Dependent Variable: POD, *p<. 05*

Hypothesis 5. *Perceived discrimination in the organizational context is negatively associated with psychological well-being.*

A simple linear regression was calculated to investigate individual psychological well-being (PWB) based on POD. A simple linear regression was selected over correlation because simple linear regression introduces a constant variable or error term, which allows researchers to create a predictive equation over two variables (Field, 2009). Results showed a significant regression equation, $R^2 = .05$, $SE = 6.25$, $F(1,151) = 8.01$, $p < .01$ (See Table 15). Specifically, $B = -1.04$, $SE = .37$, $t(151) = -2.83$, $p < .01$, 95% CI[-1.765, -.314] for POD on PWB (See Table 16). Individual's predicted PWB is equal to $36.319 - 1.04$ (POD); that is, individual's psychological well being decreased by 1.04 for every level of perceived organizational discrimination. Therefore, hypothesis 5 was supported.

Table 15, H5 Overall Multiple Regression of POD on PWB (N=153)

R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of Estimate	F	(df1, df2)	<i>p</i>
0.050	0.044	6.249	8.011	(1, 151)	<.05

Predictor Variables: POD

Dependent Variable: PWB

Table 16, Coefficient Table for POD on PWB (N=153)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	36.619*	1.302		34.046	39.192
POD	-1.039*	.367	-.224*	-1.765	-.314

*Dependent Variable: PWB, * $p < .05$*

Hypothesis 6. *Perceived discrimination in the organizational context is positively associated with turnover intention.*

A simple linear regression was calculated to investigate turnover intention (TI) based on POD. The overall linear regression model was significant, $R^2 = .16$, $SE = 1.82$, $F(1,151) = 27.90$, $p < .05$ (Table 17). Result for the coefficient analysis for POD on TI was $B = .57$, $SE = .11$, $t(151) = 5.28$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.354, .777] (Table 18). The regression equation was computed as predicted turnover intention equal to $1.34 + 0.57$ (POD); that is, individual's turnover intention increased by 0.57 for every level of perceived organizational discrimination (Table 18). Therefore, hypothesis 6 was supported.

Table 17, H6 Overall Multiple Regression of POD on TI (N=153)

R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of Estimate	F	(df1, df2)	<i>p</i>
.16	.15	1.82	27.90	(1, 151)	< .05

Predictor Variables: POD

Dependent Variable: TI

Table 18, Coefficient Table for POD on TI (N=153)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	1.34*	.38		.594	2.094
POD	.57*	.11	.40*	.354	.777

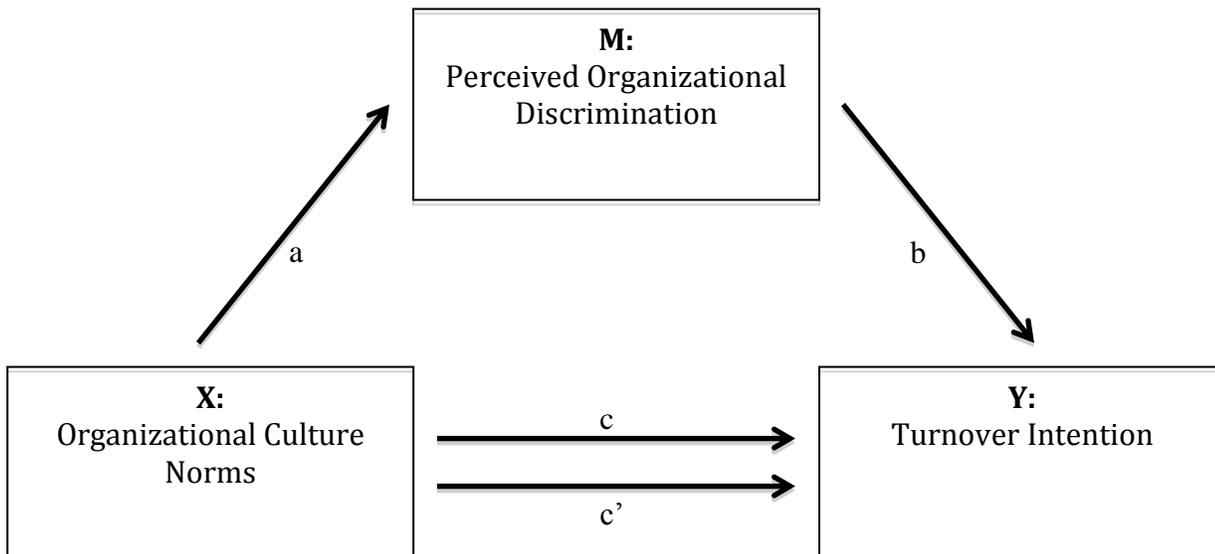
*Dependent Variable: TI, * $p < .05$*

Hypothesis 7. *Organizational culture predicts turnover intention (constructive culture norms predict negatively, passive-defensive and aggressive-defensive norms predict positively), and the impact of organizational culture on turnover intention is partially mediated by perceived discrimination in the workplace.*

Mediation analyses were conducted to address the relationship between three culture norms, turnover intention, and perceived organizational discrimination. Organizational culture norms (i.e. constructive culture norms, passive-defensive culture norms, and aggressive-culture norms) were the independent variables, turnover intention the dependent variable, and perceived organizational discrimination was the mediating variable.

The Baron and Kenny (1986) mediation method was used to test for the intervening effect of POD on OC and TI (See Figure 6). Three steps were involved in the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach. First, significance testing of the relationship between OC and TI was conducted to assess the main effect between the independent and dependent variables (shown as path c). Second, the mediating variable (POD) was introduced in the analyses to assess the relationship between independent and mediating variables (shown as path a). Lastly, the total effect of all variables (i.e. independent, dependent, and mediating variables) was calculated, and significance testing of independent and dependent variables were conducted again (shown as path c') when the mediator was introduced and statistically controlled (shown as path b). According to Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, and Petty (2011), when the effect of independent on dependent variable was no longer significant after the introduction of mediating variable, the effect would be concluded as complete mediation. On the other hand, if the effect of independent on dependent variable decreased but remained significant, the relationship would be concluded as partial mediation.

Figure 6. Overall Baron and Kenny (1986) mediation model (X= OC, M= POD, Y= TI)



The Baron and Kenny (1986) method has a few limitations, however. Baron and Kenny (1986) discussed the importance of a significant relationship between independent and dependent variable; that is, a significant relationship was argued as a required condition for every mediation analysis. However, using a simulation study, Rucker *et al.* (2011) provided evidence that significant indirect effect was possible despite absence of a significant relationship between independent and dependent variables. In addition, the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach was demonstrated to have low statistical power (Mackinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002; Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011), which increased the probability of Type II error. The conclusion of a mediation analysis is also influenced by the sample size. Increase in sample size may also increase the probability of finding significant effect of independent on dependent variable (path c), and decrease in sample size may lead to a higher probability of

complete mediation, due to increased probability of path c' to be nonsignificant (Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011).

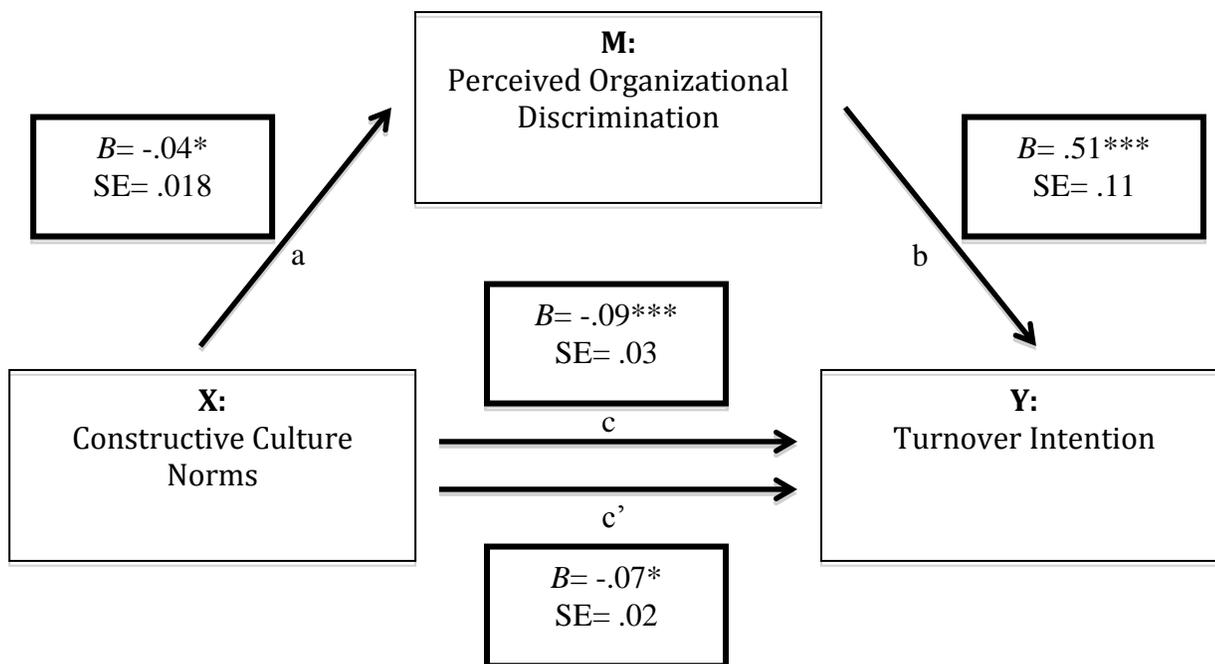
Preacher and Hayes (2004) suggested using both the Baron and Kenny (1986) method and the Sobel test in order to test mediation effect more accurately. It is a statistical method that calculates the indirect effect by comparing the strength of path c' to c using a direct bootstrapping test (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). Bootstrapping is a non-parametric process that generates a large sample by resampling a dataset multiple times (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). With Preacher and Hayes's (2004) recommendation in mind, both the Baron and Kenny (1986) and the Sobel test were used to analyze for the mediation effect of POD on the relationship between OC and TI.

In the first mediation analysis, the constructive culture norms (CC) served as the independent variable, perceived organizational discrimination (POD) was the mediating variable, and turnover intention (TI) was the outcome variable. Overall, the results of the analyses suggested no significant mediation effect of POD on CC and TI (See Table 19 and Figure 7). The Baron and Kenny (1986) method suggested that POD did not significantly mediate the relationship between CC and TI. Results of the bootstrapped Sobel test (1000 resamples) supported the results using the Baron and Kenny (1986) method, suggesting no significant mediation effect of POD on CC and TI, $P_M = .21$, $z = -1.84$, $p > .05$. Therefore, hypothesis 7a was not supported.

Table 19, Mediator Analysis of CC (X), POD (M), and TI (Y)

Steps	Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	SE B	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Step 1					
Outcome	OPD	-	-	-	-
Predictor (a)	CC	-.04*	.02	-.074	-.001
Step 2					
Outcome	TI	-	-	-	-
Predictor (c)	CC	-.09***	.03	-.141	.040
Step 3					
Outcome	TI	-	-	-	-
Mediator (b)	OPD	.52***	.11	.306	.724
Predictor (c')	CC	-.07*	.02	-.119	-.023

Note: (a) path a, (b) path b, (c) path c, (c') path c', * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$,

Figure 7. Mediation Model (X= CC, M= POD, Y= TI) (N=153)

Note: Bootstrapped (1000 samples); * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

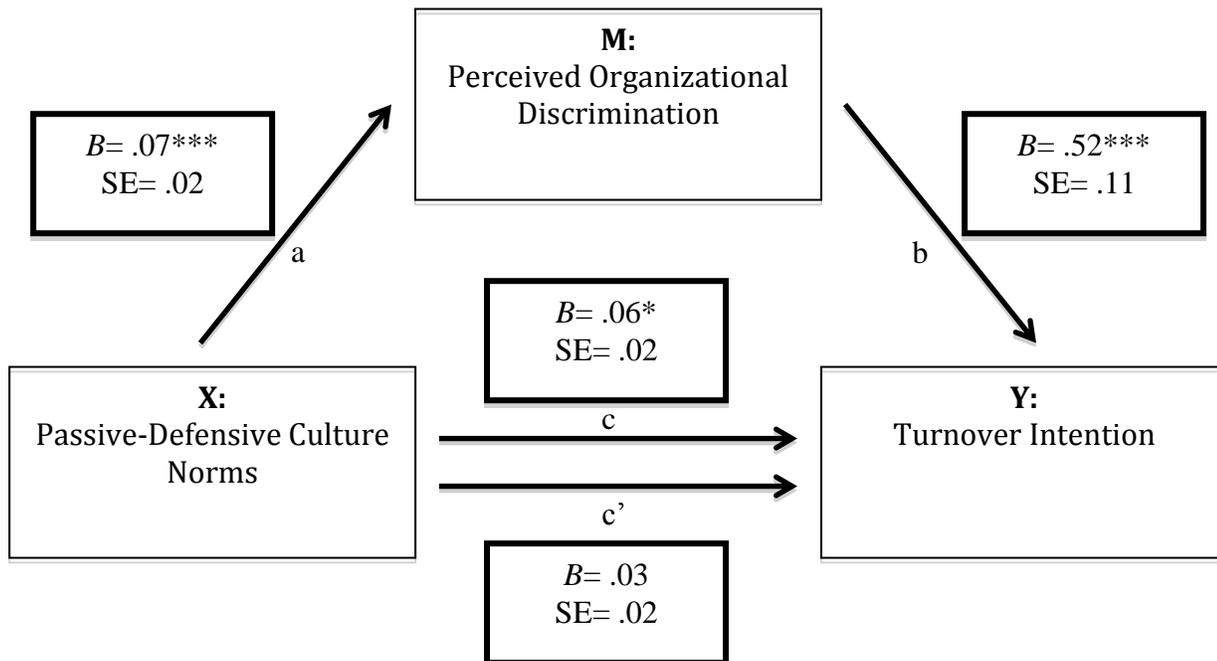
The second mediation analysis calculated the mediation effect of perceived organizational discrimination (POD) on the relationship between passive-defensive culture norms (PC) and turnover intention (TI), where PC was the independent variable, POD as the mediating variable, and TI as the outcome variable. Overall, results of the analyses demonstrated a significant mediation effect of POD on PC predicting TI (See Table 20 and Figure 8). The Baron and Kenny (1986) method suggested that POD significantly mediate the relationship between AC and TI. Results of the bootstrapped Sobel test (1000 resamples) supported the results using the Baron and Kenny (1986) method, suggesting significant mediation effect of POD on PC and TI, $P_M = .58$, $z = 3.16$, $p < .05$. Therefore, hypothesis 7b was supported.

Table 20, Mediator Analysis of PC (X), POD (M), and TI (Y)

Steps	Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	SE B	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Step 1					
Outcome	OPD	-	-	-	-
Predictor (a)	PC	.07***	.02	.040	.105
Step 2					
Outcome	TI	-	-	-	-
Predictor (c)	PC	.06**	.02	.017	.113
Step 3					
Outcome	TI	-	-	-	-
Mediator (b)	OPD	.52***	.11	.297	.747
Predictor (c')	PC	.03	.02	-.021	.075

Note: (a) path a, (b) path b, (c) path c, (c') path c', * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$,

Figure 8. Mediation Model (X= PC, M= POD, Y= TI) (N=153)



*Note: Bootstrapped (1000 samples); * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$*

The third mediation analysis investigated the mediation effect of perceived organizational discrimination (POD) on aggressive-defensive culture norms (AC) and turnover intention (TI), where AC was the independent variable, POD as the mediating variable, and TI as the outcome variable. Overall, results of Baron and Kenny (1986) and Sobel test analyses showed a significant mediation effect of POD on AC predicting TI (See Table 21 and Figure 9). The Baron and Kenny (1986) method suggested that POD significantly mediate the relationship between AC and TI. Results of the bootstrapped Sobel test (1000 resamples) supported the results using the Baron and Kenny (1986) method, suggesting significant mediation effect of POD on AC and TI: $P_M = .55$, $z = 3.32$, $p < .01$. Therefore, hypothesis 7c was supported.

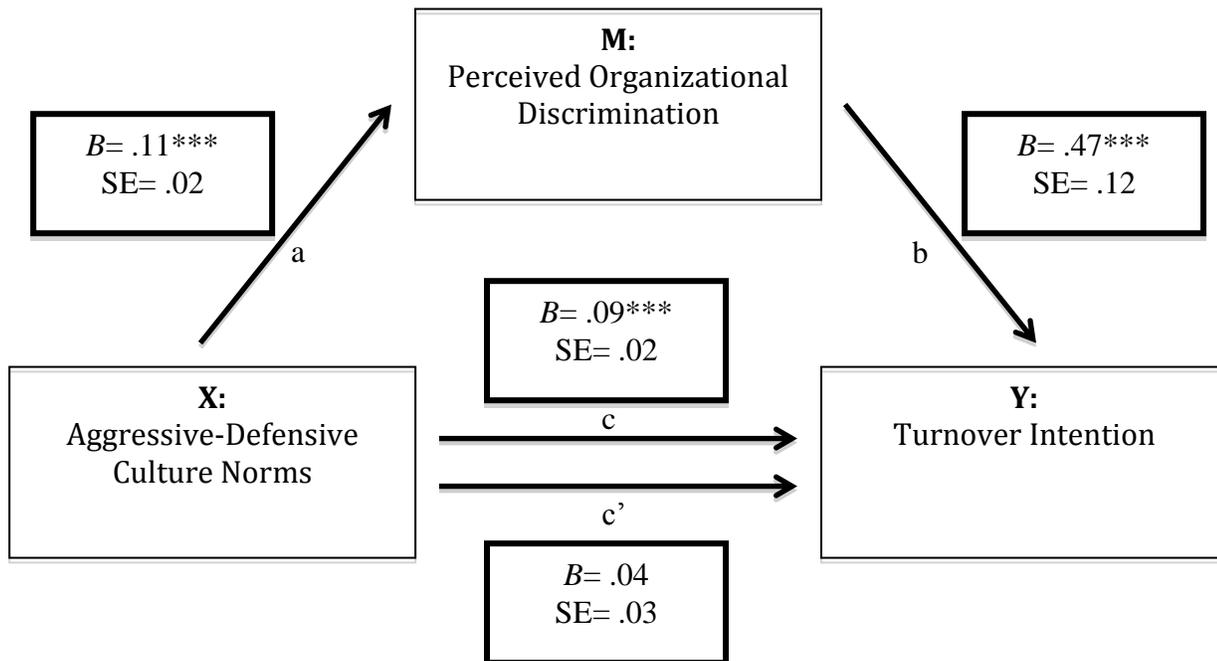
Overall, hypothesis 7 was partially supported. The mediation effect of POD was found between defensive culture norms and turnover intention, supporting hypotheses 7b and 7c. However, no significant mediation of POD was found for constructive culture norms and turnover intention; therefore, hypothesis 7a was not supported.

Table 21, Mediator Analysis of AC (X), POD (M), and TI (Y)

Steps	Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	SE B	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Step 1					
Outcome	OPD	-	-	-	-
Predictor (a)	AC	.11***	.02	.080	.140
Step 2					
Outcome	TI	-	-	-	-
Predictor (c)	AC	.09***	.02	.046	.141
Step 3					
Outcome	TI	-	-	-	-
Mediator (b)	OPD	.47***	.12	.22	.71
Predictor (c')	AC	.04	.03	-.011	.095

Note: (a) path a, (b) path b, (c) path c, (c') path c', * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$,

Figure 9. Mediation Model (X= AC, M= POD, Y= TI) (N=153)



*Note: Bootstrapped (1000 samples); * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$*

Exploratory Testing

Studies have suggested that minority and non-minority members tend to perceive similar situations or events differently, and in turn report having different experiences in given contexts (e.g. Pelled, 1996; Lichtenstein & Alexander, 2000; Bacharach & Bamberger, 2004). In order to highlight potential differences and experiences between minority and non-minority groups, the sample was split into two groups for further exploratory investigation. While most of the exploratory findings suggested similar results with hypotheses testing, few differences were found in the analyses. For example, non-significant results were found between perceived organizational discrimination and psychological well-being amongst the minority group;

perceived organizational discrimination, however, did significantly reduce psychological well-being amongst the non-minority group. Additionally, contrary to expectations, no relationship was found between perceived societal and organizational discrimination for both minority and non-minority groups in exploratory testing (See Appendix F for more detailed information).

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The goal of this research was to examine the relationship of perceived discrimination in societal and in organizational contexts, and to investigate the impact of perceived discrimination in the workplace on employee outcomes (i.e. psychological well-being and turnover intention). Furthermore, this study explored the extent to which organizational culture norms can potentially mitigate the perception of discrimination in organizational settings (i.e. constructive culture norms, passive-defensive culture norms, and aggressive-defensive culture norms).

Overall, results showed that minority members reported higher levels of perceived discrimination in both societal and organizational contexts. A weak but statistically significant relationship of perceived discrimination was found between the societal and organizational level; and organizational culture did not moderate the association between two contexts. Organizational culture, nevertheless, predicted individual's perceived discrimination in the workplace to an extent. Constructive culture norms predicted a low level and aggressive-defensive culture norms predicted a high level of perceived discrimination, while passive-defensive culture norms did not significantly predict perceived discrimination in the workplace. Consistent with previous research, perceived discrimination in the workplace was found to have an impact on individual's psychological well-being and turnover intention. Such that higher level of perceived organizational discrimination predicted lower level of psychological well-being and higher level of turnover intention. Furthermore, organizational culture was found to have an impact on turnover intention, which was partially mediated by perceived discrimination in the workplace. Specifically, both passive-defensive and aggressive-defensive culture norms lead to higher levels of turnover intention through partial mediation of perceived discrimination in the workplace,

while constructive culture norms lead to lower levels of turnover intention without mediation effect.

As expected, minority members perceived higher levels of discrimination in both societal and organizational contexts than majority members. It is not surprising as minority members are more sensitive towards discriminatory cues and are better able to detect discriminatory actions than majority members (Inman & Baron, 1996). Indeed, this finding has been reported across different contexts. Female students were more likely to identify discriminatory actions in comparison to male students (Basford, Offermann, & Berhrend, 2014), workplace gender- and ethnic-discrimination were more prevalent amongst minority employees (Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008), and minority members were more likely to label acts of racism and sexism as discriminatory than majority members (Inman & Baron, 1996).

Previous studies suggested that individual's perception of discrimination in the workplace may be influenced by societal forces to an extent (Shaffer *et al.*, 2000; Blau & Tatum, 2000), and the results of this research supported this argument. Although the relationship between perceived societal and organizational discrimination was weak, it was found to be statistically significant nonetheless. Contrary to expectations, organizational culture was found to have no impact on moderating the association between perceived societal discrimination and perceived organizational discrimination. It is plausible that the perception of discrimination in the workplace is affected by factors beyond individual's demographic characteristics, and is affected by other forces within the organization. For example, studies found that demographic compositions of supervisor-subordinate dyads (Tsui & O'Reilly III, 1989; Tsui, Porter, & Egan, 2002) and workgroups (Riordan & Shore, 1997) have significant impact on individual's attitude in the workplace. Demographic similarity between supervisor-subordinate dyads and workgroups

were related to higher effectiveness and group cohesion; demographic dissimilarity, on the other hand, was associated with increased role ambiguity and decreased attraction with the organization (Tsui & O'Reilly III, 1989; Riordan & Shore, 1997; Tsui, Porter, & Egan, 2002). Therefore, it is possible that the demographic composition of workgroups and supervisor-subordinate dyads have a more prominent impact on individual's perception of discrimination in the workplace than other forces.

In addition to demographic composition, the length of time with an organization was also found to affect attitudes towards diverse work groups (Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998). Individuals tend to focus more on unobservable characteristics (i.e. attitude and beliefs), rather than observable characteristics (i.e. gender, age, ethnicity), as they are able to build meaningful relationships with others in the workplace over time. Demographic characteristics become less salient, which eventually lead to higher group cohesion amongst work groups. In societal contexts, however, individuals are more likely to rely on the prototypical characteristics and expectations as means to detect discrimination (Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008). In fact, out of 176 participants in the current study, only 27 participants reported having worked with the same organization for less than one year; 37 participants have worked with the same employer for 1 to 2 years, 52 participants for 2 to 4 years, 27 participants for 4 to 6 years, 18 for 6 to 10 years, 16 participants for 10 to 15 years, and 9 participants for more than 15 years. As such, it is possible that the low association of perceived discrimination between societal and organizational contexts were caused by participants' length of time with their respective organizations.

Organizational culture, collectively, made a contribution to predicting perceived organizational discrimination, but only the constructive and aggressive-defensive culture norms made an independent contribution to explain the variance, while passive-defensive culture norms

did not significantly predict perceived organizational discrimination. When organizations have values and expectations that align closely with constructive culture norms, members tend to perceive lower levels of perceived discrimination in the workplace. This is not surprising as the act of discrimination is often motivated by one's group membership (Allport, 1954); it is an intergroup conflict caused by in-group and out-group membership. Members in organizations with constructive culture norms are expected to create meaningful interactions with other members, build relationship with others, and approach tasks in order to meet the collective goal of the organization (Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). Members work collectively and are supportive with one another, which create a sense of in-group within the organization. Demographic dissimilarities become less salient as meaningful relationships are established and interactions are encouraged amongst members of the organization. Consequently, members in organizations dominated by constructive culture norms perceive lower levels of discrimination through meaningful relationships and collective goal.

Members of organizations with aggressive-defensive culture norms tend to emphasize on personal tasks and goals, while negating meaningful relationships and interactions with others. They often achieve their goals in forceful manners to protect their own status and security (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke & Szumal, 1993). These culture norms promote personal achievement and competitive performance, but fail to emphasize on peer-to-peer relationship within the organization. As a result, in-group and out-group dynamics are formed, and members perceive a higher level of discrimination in the workplace. Not surprisingly, individuals in organizations dominated by aggressive-defensive culture norms have higher turnover intentions due to higher levels of perceived discrimination in the workplace.

The non-significant finding on passive-defensive culture norms and perceived organizational discrimination may be explained by the member's length of time with an organization. Passive-defensive culture norms are characterized by high power distance, and members are expected to conform and abide the rules strictly in the workplace (Cooke & Rousseau, 1998). Pleasant interpersonal relationships with peers are expected as members try to avoid conflicts with others in order to gain approval from co-workers and supervisors. Relationship building and interpersonal harmony is, therefore, one of the core aspects for members in organizations that are dominated by passive-defensive culture norms (Cooke & Rousseau, 1998). Over the course of time, members who build meaningful relationships may have a more positive attitude and decreased perceived discrimination in the workplace. However, power distance between employees and supervisors may create a hostile climate (Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013), which may potentially increase individual's perceived organizational discrimination. As a result, the two conflicting factors (i.e. relationship building and power distance) may explain the non-significant finding between passive-defensive culture norms and perceived organizational discrimination.

Perceptions of discrimination in the workplace have been studied and linked to a wide range of individual outcomes, such as lower levels of psychological well-being, decreased organizational commitment, reduced performance effectiveness, and increased turnover intention (Triana, Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015; Connor & Miller, 2014; Blau & Tatum, 2000). Results from the current study further confirm the negative impact of perceived discrimination in the workplace. High level of perceived discrimination decreases individual's psychological well-being and increases turnover intention. In addition, the current study found that the perception of

discrimination partially mediated the impact of passive-defensive and aggressive-defensive culture norms on turnover intention.

Exploratory Testing

Exploratory analyses was conducted using a split sample two groups (i.e. minority and non-minority groups). Although the sample size was small for each subgroup, some intriguing findings emerged. For example, exploratory testing suggested that there was no relationship between the perception of discrimination between societal and organizational contexts for the subgroups. This was unexpected as it was inconsistent with the results using the whole sample.

Most notably, perceived organizational discrimination was found to have no predictive impact on psychological well-being amongst the minority group, although it did decrease psychological well-being in the non-minority group. One explanation for these results may be the fact that minority individuals are better able to cope and more resilient towards stress related to discrimination and diversity. Indeed, studies have demonstrated stronger resilience and better coping strategies amongst minority members (Romero, Edwards, Fryberg, & Orduña, 2014; Meyer, 2015). For example, children adopted by sexual minority parents were more resilient towards discriminatory and aggressive behaviours from their peers (Farr, Crain, Oakley, and Cashen, 2016); religious minority were better able to cope with negative stressors due to positive religious identity and higher resilience towards prejudice in general (Forrest-Bank & Dupper, 2016); sexual minority adolescents devised new coping strategies and use various coping resources to maintain positive perception towards minority stress (Goldbach & Gibbs, 2015); and visible minority youth employed various coping strategies against racial violence (Kubiliene, Yan, Kumsa, & Burman, 2015). Therefore, constructive culture norms did not have an impact on

members of minority groups perceived organizational discrimination, and perceived organizational discrimination did not predict lower level of psychological well-being for minority members, because members from minority groups may already be employing various coping strategies and were more resilient towards discriminatory perception and experience in the workplace in comparison to non-minority members.

Limitations

The current study has several limitations. First, it should be noted that some variables included in this study were not normally distributed. Perceived discrimination in the societal context was negatively skewed, while perceived discrimination in the workplace had negative kurtosis. Participants had the tendency to report higher perceived societal discrimination, and mostly in the middle range for perceived organizational discrimination. It is possible that the non-normal distribution contributed to the non-significant findings of the relationship between societal and perceived organizational discrimination. Additionally, all participants were recruited from the United States; therefore, the high perception of discrimination in the society may be the result of the current political situation in the country.

Self-selection bias and online self-report measures were other potential limitations of this study. The study was conducted through an online data collecting website – Amazon Mechanical Turk. It is possible that those who chose to participate in the study were gravitated towards the subject of discrimination, which may result in the negative skew of perceived discrimination in the societal context. In addition, this study relied solely through an online server and self-report measures. Thus, extraneous variables may be introduced to the study as the environment in which the study took place was not controlled. Participants may have completed the surveys at

their respective workplace, creating potentially skewed responses on measures related to organizational discrimination. For example, participants may have responded to items related to organizational measures in ways that were desirable to their respective employers. Furthermore, participants may have responded to items without paying much attention to the items as they may be distracted by other factors in the environment. Although this study attempted to control for participants' attention by including two check items in the measure, it is still possible that participants approached the items without seriously considering the implications before responding to them.

Fatigue is another limitation that may skew the result of the study. A total of 191 items were included in the survey, and all participants completed the measures in the same order. Specifically, every participant completed the Organizational Culture Inventory ® first, then the minority status questionnaire, the everyday discrimination scale, workplace discrimination scale, general health questionnaire (GHQ-12), and lastly, intention to quit scale. Counter-balancing was not applied in this study, but future research should consider counter-balancing to avoid the fatigue effect.

Given to the length of the survey, several potential confound variables were not included in this study. Demographic similarities and dissimilarities between participants and their respective workgroups or supervisors/subordinates were not considered. As discussed previously, the extent to which the demographic characteristics of a workgroup is similar or dissimilar have an impact on individual's attitude and perception in the workplace (Riordan & Shore, 1997). Furthermore, individual's attraction, attitude, and effectiveness in the workplace are also affected by demographic similarities to their respective supervisors or subordinates (Tsui & O'Reilly III, 1989; Tsui, Porter, & Egan, 2002). Another confound variable that was not

considered is cultural intelligence. Essentially, cultural intelligence is the individual's capability in which he or she can interact with others from different culture effectively (Earley & Ang, 2003). In an organizational context, cultural intelligence is related to a wide range of outcomes, including workgroup cohesion, workplace performance and effectiveness, and attitude/perception towards diversity (Earley & Ang, 2003; van Driel & Gabrenya, 2012; Chen, Liu, & Portnoy, 2012). It is possible that demographic make up in the workplace and individual cultural intelligence have unexpected impacts on perception of discrimination in both societal and organizational contexts. Therefore, future research would benefit from examining the impact of demographic make up and individual cultural intelligence on perceived societal and organizational discrimination.

Another factor that was not considered in the current research is the potential impact of personality traits on perceived discrimination in both societal and organizational contexts. For example, affectivity refers to one of the personality variable that precedes individual emotional reactivity and self-concept in any given contexts (Watson & Clark, 1984; Forgas & Fiedler, 1996). Negative affectivity, on one hand, is related to a list of negative experience and emotions (i.e. self-dissatisfaction, a sense of rejection, aggression; Watson & Clark, 1984). Positive affectivity, on the other hand, is associated with positive experience and emotions (i.e. enthusiasm, cheerfulness; DeNeve & Cooper, 1998). A study conducted by Forgas and Fiedler (1996) demonstrated that, surprisingly, individuals with positivity affect are more likely to engage in discriminatory behaviours in comparison to those with negative affectivity. This may be due to the over-reliance on heuristics when processing intergroup interactions and other social information. Therefore, along with demographic differences and cultural intelligence, it is

possible that affectivity may have an unexpected impact on perceived discrimination in both societal and organizational contexts.

It should also be noted that structural equation modeling would be an ideal method to analyze the given dataset as it considers every path in the model simultaneously (Klein, 2011). The current research used a series of univariate and multivariate analyses (i.e. ANOVA, simple regression, MRA) to describe the relationship between 7 variables (i.e. PSD, POD, CC, PC, AC, PWB, TI). That is, using a series of individual analyses reflect the fact that this study approached organizational culture as three distinct clusters rather than a profile composed of three non-mutually exclusive culture norms. Structural equation modeling would allow a more conclusive analysis by considering organizational culture as one construct made up of twelve variables (See Table 1 for a list of 12 organizational culture variables). However, given the small sample size at $N=153$, structural equation modeling was not suitable for the current project, as a minimum of $N=200$ is required for structural equation modeling to be accurate and effective (Klein, 2011). It is therefore recommended that the current findings be replicating using larger sample sizes in order to test the model using structural equation modeling.

It is important to note that the exploratory testing was limited to a smaller sample size than the generally acceptable cut-off (i.e. 50+8k; Field, 2009) for several analyses. That is, using the equation provided in Field (2009), the multiple regression analyses of constructive culture norms, passive-defensive culture norms, and aggressive-defensive culture norms on perceived organizational discrimination and turnover intention required a minimum of 82 participants to obtain an acceptable statistical power in the analyses. However, the exploratory testing only included $N=66$ minority members in the analyses. Therefore, it is possible that the non-significant result of constructive culture norms on perceived organizational discrimination was

due to the low statistical power, which made it harder to detect significant findings in the analysis (Field, 2009). However, several statistically significant results were found despite lower statistical power in the non-minority sample; for example, aggressive-defensive culture norms had statistically significant impact on perceived organizational discrimination, and perceived organizational discrimination was found to mediate the relationship between defensive culture norms and turnover intention. However, it may be that these significant results are due to chance findings as a result of low statistical power; therefore it is suggested that future research should replicate the study with larger sample sizes in order to more accurately reflect the shared and different experiences between minority and non-minority individuals.

Implications and Future Research

This study contributed to the field of research on perceived discrimination in organizational context. Previous studies demonstrated the impact of perceived discrimination on a wide range of individual outcomes (Triana, M., Jayasinghe, M., & Pieper, J., 2015), as well as possible factors that may control or mitigate the perception of discrimination in the workplace, such as the environment or the climate of an organization (Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013; McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007). However, there is a lack of research that examines the antecedents of perceived organizational discrimination, and the impact of organizational culture on perceived discrimination in general. While previous studies explored the more immediate factors in attempts to control for perceived discrimination (i.e. environment), this study focused on the effect of the culture of an organization (i.e. values and norms) on perceived discrimination. Results of this study provided evidence that there is an

association between perceived societal and organizational discrimination. Although organizational culture was not found to have an impact on the association between perceived societal and organizational discrimination, organizational culture was found to have a direct impact on employee's perceived discrimination in the workplace.

On a positive note, the results of the current study suggested a weak, albeit statistically significant, relationship between perceived societal and perceived organizational discrimination. This means there is a possibility that the perception of discrimination in the workplace can be controlled for, and may only be affected minimally by forces beyond organizational context. That is, the perception of discrimination can be different within an organization than it is in society at large. Business owners can use diversity as a tool to improve performance and productivity by creating a workplace that values meaningful interactions. Rather than criticizing employees for individual mistakes or sanctioning creative approach within the organization, constructive feedback should be appreciated and teamwork should be emphasized. Practices such as respecting cultural differences and celebrating different cultural traditions can be beneficial for a diverse workplace (Shih, Young, & Bucher, 2013). For example, employers can dedicate one week annually to educate employees various cultural traditions and practices; employees, on the other hand, can use this opportunity to educate themselves with various cultural traditions, and have constructive and positive interaction with members of other cultures within the organization.

Organizations should be aware that, even though there are policies in place to control for obvious and blatant discrimination in the workplace, employees can still perceive varied levels of discrimination within the organization. It is evident from the current research as well as other research that such perception of discrimination leads to a range of negative outcomes (i.e. lower

levels of psychological well-being and increased turnover intention; Triana, Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015), which can, in turn, impact the performance of an organization as a whole (i.e. high turnover rate; McKay *et al.*, 2007). In order to control or mitigate the impact of perceived discrimination in the workplace, organizations should create a culture that emphasizes collective goals and positive relationships; as such, demographic differences may be less salient and minority members may feel more inclusive and accepted within the workplace.

With the already abundant information on the significance of perceived discrimination on individual outcomes, future research should focus on factors that can mitigate the impact of perceived discrimination in the workplace. Additionally, further exploration into the antecedents or causes of perceived organizational discrimination in the workplace is also an important area to consider. Factors such as negative and positive affectivity may have an impact on predicting perceived discrimination in both societal and organizational contexts (Forgas & Fiedler, 1996). Including other measures (i.e. demographic similarity, cultural intelligence) to control for possible confounds would also extend the findings of the current research. Larger sample sizes should also be used in future studies in order to replicate the current findings using structural equation modeling, and possibly make more accurate comparisons and analyses for minority versus non-minority groups. Furthermore, similar studies should be conducted across various geographical regions for cross-cultural comparison purposes. It is evident that the perception and experience of discrimination may be different across societal and organizational contexts for different cultural groups (i.e. USA, Hong Kong, Beijing; Shaffer *et al.*, 2000); thus, results from this study should be generalized very cautiously to different cultural groups.

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APPENDIX A: DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE AND MINORITY STATUS

Items below are items concerning your demographic background and characteristics. Please read each item carefully, and respond to each item as accurately as possible.

Gender: Male Female Other Please specify: _____

Age: _____

Current employment status:

Unemployed

Full time

Part time

Do you consider yourself as part of the minority group of the society? Yes No

If YES, which of the following demographic characteristics make you a minority member of the society? Please select all that applies.

Your gender

Your age

Your sexual orientation

Your racial/ethnic background

Your religion

Your socioeconomic status/income level

Other demographic characteristics Please specify: _____

If YES, how often do you experience discrimination or harassment because of your demographic characteristics?

Almost everyday At least once a week A few times a month A few times a year

Less than once a year Never

APPENDIX B: THE EVERYDAY DISCRIMINATION SCALE (ADAPTED)

Listed below are a number of statements concerning general perception of discrimination in society. Please read each of the following items carefully and indicate the number that best reflects your agreement with the statement.

1 = *Completely Disagree*

2 = *Disagree*

3 = *Somewhat Disagree*

4 = *Neither Agree nor Disagree*

5 = *Somewhat Agree*

6 = *Agree*

7 = *Completely Agree*

1. Some people are treated with less courtesy than others because of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.
2. Some people are treated with less respect than others because of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.
3. Some people receive poorer service than other people at restaurants or stores because of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.
4. People act as if they think some other people are not smart because of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.
5. People act as if they are afraid of some other people because of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.
6. People act as if they think some other people are dishonest because of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.
7. People act as if they're better than some other people because of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.
8. Some people are called names or insulted because of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.
9. Some people are threatened or harassed because of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.

If you were thinking of "*other demographic characteristics*" when you were rating the statements above, please specify the demographic characteristic that you had in mind.

**APPENDIX C: THE WORKPLACE PREJUDICE/ DISCRIMINATION INVENTORY
(ADAPTED)**

Listed below are a number of statements concerning discrimination in the workplace. Please think of the organization you are currently employed with, and read each of the following items carefully. Then, indicate the number that best reflects your agreement with the statement.

1 = *Completely Disagree*

2 = *Disagree*

3 = *Somewhat Disagree*

4 = *Neither Agree nor Disagree*

5 = *Somewhat Agree*

6 = *Agree*

7 = *Completely Agree*

1. Some people have sometimes been unfairly singled out because of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.
2. Prejudice exists where I work.
3. Where I work all people are treated the same, regardless of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics. (R)
4. At work some people are socially isolated because of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.
5. At work minority employees receive fewer opportunities.
6. There is no discrimination on my present job. (R)
7. Where I work members of some gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic groups are treated better than members of other groups.
8. At work people are intolerant of others from different gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.
9. Supervisors scrutinize the work of members of some groups more than that of members of other gender, ethnicity, age, or other demographic group.
10. Where I work people of different demographic groups get along well with each other. (R)
11. At my present job, some people get better treatment because of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.

12. There is discrimination where I work.
13. At work some people are treated poorly because of their gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics.
14. At my present place of employment, people of other demographic groups do not tell me some job-related information that they share with members of their own group.
15. Where I work promotions and rewards are not influenced by gender, ethnic background, age, or other demographic characteristics. (R)

If you were thinking of “*other demographic characteristics*” when you were rating the statements above, please specify the demographic characteristic that you had in mind.

APPENDIX D: GENERAL HEALTH QUESTIONNAIRE (GHQ-12)

Listed below are a number of statements concerning general mental well-being. Please read each of the following items carefully. Then, indicate the number that best reflects your agreement with the statement.

1 = *Less Than Usual*

2 = *No More Than Usual*

3 = *More Than Usual*

4 = *Much More Than Usual*

Have you recently...

1. Been able to concentrate on whatever you're doing?
2. Lost much sleep over worry?
3. Felt that you are playing a useful part in things?
4. Felt capable of making decisions about things?
5. Felt constantly under strain
6. Felt you couldn't overcome your difficulties?
7. Been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities?
8. Been able to face up to your problems?
9. Been feeling unhappy and depressed?
10. Been losing confidence in yourself?
11. Been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?
12. Been feeling reasonably happy all things considered?

APPENDIX E: INTENTION TO QUIT SCALE

Listed below are a number of statements concerning your intention to leave the organization. Please think of the organization you are currently employed with, and read each of the following items carefully. Then, indicate the number that best reflects your agreement with the statement.

1 = *Strongly Disagree*

2 = *Disagree*

3 = *Slightly Disagree*

4 = *Neither Agree nor Disagree*

5 = *Slightly Agree*

6 = *Agree*

7 = *Strongly Agree*

1. I am actively looking for a job outside my current company.
2. As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave my current company.
3. I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.

APPENDIX F: EXPLORATORY TESTING

In Chapter IV, hypotheses testing for H2 to H7 was done using the entire sample (N=153). However, in order to highlight potential differences in experiences between minority and non-minority sample, for exploratory purposes, the sample was split into two groups for exploratory testing. Analyses from the previous section were repeated with the split sample. Specifically, N= 66 for the minority group and N= 87 for the non-minority group.

Proposition 2. *Higher levels of perceived discrimination in societal contexts are associated with higher levels of perceived discrimination in the organizational contexts for both minority and non-minority groups.*

To check if findings differed related to the analyses conducted to test Hypothesis 2, two bivariate correlational analyses were conducted to assess the relationship between PSD and POD, on both minority and non-minority sample. Results of the one-tailed Pearson correlational analyses suggested weak but statistically non-significant correlation between the two variables for both sample. For the minority sample, $r = .039$, $n = 66$, $p > .05$; for the non-minority sample, $r = .095$, $n = 87$, $p > .05$. Although non-minority sample showed a slightly higher correlation between PSD and POD, both samples had statistically non-significant results. Therefore, the findings related to the relationship between PSD and POD were the same in both samples.

Proposition 3. *Organizational culture moderates the association between societal and organizational contexts such that constructive culture norms (P3a) weaken, and passive- (P3b) and aggressive-defensive culture norms (P3c) strengthen the association of perceived discrimination between societal and organizational contexts for both minority and non-minority groups.*

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to investigate the potential interaction effect between organizational cultures (i.e. CC, PC, AC) and PSD on POD in each subsample. The analyses were conducted with split sample of minority and non-minority. In the first step of this hierarchical multiple regression, PSD and OC were included to test the overall effect on POD. In the second step, the interaction effect between PSD and OC were included along with previous variables to test for the interaction effect on POD. Similar to hypotheses testing, variables were centered prior to the exploratory testing to avoid potential multicollinearity.

The first analysis explored the interaction effect of PSD and CC on POD with both minority and non-minority sample. For the minority sample (See Table 22), results of the multiple regression (first step) showed a statistically non-significant effect, $R^2 = .01$, adjusted $R^2 = -.02$, $SE = 1.44$, $F(2,63) = 0.25$, $p > 0.05$. The interaction between PSD and CC was added into the second step of the analyses; as expected, results showed that the interaction variable (PSD \times CC) for minority group did not significantly impact the predictive ability of PSD on POD, $B = -.05$, $SE = .03$, $t(62) = -1.67$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-0.103, 0.009]. For the non-minority sample (See Table 23), results of the multiple regression (first step) demonstrated a statistically significant effect, $R^2 = .12$, adjusted $R^2 = .10$, $SE = 1.14$, $F(2,84) = 5.77$, $p < 0.05$. The second step of the analysis showed statistically non-significant interaction effect of PSD and CC on POD, $B = .01$,

SE= .01, $t(83)= .46$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-0.020, 0.032]. Therefore, similar to the hypothesis testing using the whole sample, the interaction of PSDxCC on POD was statistically non-significant in both minority and non-minority samples.

Table 22.
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of PSD, CC, and PSDxCC, Minority Group (N=66)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Step 1					
PSD	.06	.14	.06	-0.219	0.339
CC	-.02	.03	-.08	-0.085	0.044
Step 2					
PSD	.06	.14	.05	-0.216	0.334
CC	.02	.04	.06	-0.062	0.092
PSDxCC	-.05	.03	-.25	-0.103	0.009

Note. Outcome variable: POD. $R^2 = .01$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .04$ for Step 2 ($p > .05$)

* $p < .05$

Table 23.
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of PSD, CC, and PSDxCC, non-Minority Group (N=87)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Step 1					
PSD	.10	.08	.13	-0.055	0.263
CC	-.06*	.02	-.34*	-0.102	-0.025
Step 2					
PSD	.10	.08	.12	-0.069	0.259
CC	-.06*	.02	-.32*	-0.102	-0.020
PSDxCC	.01	.01	.05	-0.020	0.032

Note. Outcome variable: POD. $R^2 = .12$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .002$ for Step 2 ($p > .05$)

* $p < .05$

The second analysis explored the interaction effect of PSD and PC on POD with both minority and non-minority samples. For the minority sample (See Table 24), results of the multiple regression (first step) showed a statistically significant effect, $R^2 = .13$, adjusted $R^2 = .10$, $SE = 1.35$, $F(2,63) = 4.69$, $p < 0.05$. The interaction between PSD and CC was added into the second step of the analyses. Results showed that the interaction variable (PSD \times PC) for minority group did not significantly impact the predictive ability of PSD on POD, $B = .001$, $SE = .02$, $t(62) = .06$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-0.043, 0.046]. For the non-minority sample (See Table 25), results of the multiple regression (first step) showed a statistically significant effect, $R^2 = .13$, adjusted $R^2 = .11$, $SE = 1.13$, $F(2,84) = 6.19$, $p < .05$. The second step of the analysis showed statistically non-significant interaction effect of PSD and PC on POD, $B = -.01$, $SE = .02$, $t(83) = -.56$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-0.047, 0.026]. Therefore, similar to the hypothesis testing using the whole sample, the interaction of PSD \times PC on POD was statistically non-significant for both minority and non-minority samples.

Table 24.
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of PSD, PC, and PSDxPC,
Minority (N=66)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Step 1					
PSD	.004	.13	.004	-0.253	0.261
PC	.08*	.03	.36*	0.026	0.127
Step 2					
PSD	.004	.13	.004	-0.255	0.263
PC	.08*	.03	.36*	0.019	0.132
PSDxPC	.001	.02	.004	-0.043	0.046

Note. Outcome variable: POD. $R^2 = .13$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .00$ for Step 2 ($p > .05$)

* $p < .05$

Table 25.
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of PSD, PC, and PSDxPC,
non-Minority (N=87)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Step 1					
PSD	.09	.08	.12	-0.066	0.249
PC	.07*	.02	.35*	0.027	0.103
Step 2					
PSD	.10	.08	.13	-0.062	0.258
PC	.07*	.02	.36*	0.028	0.106
PSDxPC	-.01	.02	-.06	-0.047	0.026

Note. Outcome variable: POD. $R^2 = .13$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .003$ for Step 2 ($p > .05$)

* $p < .05$

The last analysis explored the interaction effect of PSD and AC on POD with both minority and non-minority sample. For the minority sample (See Table 26), results of the multiple regression (first step) showed a statistically significant effect, $R^2 = .24$, adjusted $R^2 = .22$, $SE = 1.26$, $F(2,63) = 10.01$, $p < 0.05$. The second step of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses added the interaction effect between PSD and AC. Results showed that the interaction variable (PSD \times AC) for the minority group did not significantly impact the predictive ability of PSD on POD, $B = .03$, $SE = .02$, $t(62) = 1.33$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-0.014, 0.068]. For the non-minority sample (See Table 27), the first step of the hierarchical multiple regression showed statistically significant results, $R^2 = .30$, adjusted $R^2 = .28$, $SE = 1.02$, $F(2,84) = 17.87$, $p < 0.05$. The second step of the analysis showed a statistically non-significant interaction effect of PSD and AC on POD, $B = .01$, $SE = .01$, $t(83) = .71$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-0.047, 0.026]. Therefore, similar to the hypothesis testing using the whole sample, the interaction of PSD \times AC on POD was statistically non-significant for both minority and non-minority samples.

Table 26.
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of PSD, AC, and PSDxAC,
Minority (N=66)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Step 1					
PSD	-.02	.12	-.02	-0.257	0.224
AC	.11*	.02	.49*	0.060	0.157
Step 2					
PSD	-.02	.12	-.02	-0.262	0.216
AC	.10*	.03	.44*	0.045	0.148
PSDxAC	.03	.02	.16	-0.014	0.068

Note. Outcome variable: POD. $R^2 = .24$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .02$ for Step 2 ($p > .05$)

* $p < .05$

Table 27.
Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of PSD, AC, and PSDxAC,
non-Minority (N=87)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Step 1					
PSD	.14	.07	.18	-0.001	0.285
AC	.10*	.02	.55*	0.068	0.138
Step 2					
PSD	.15	.07	.19	0.002	0.290
AC	.11*	.02	.55*	0.070	0.140
PSDxAC	.01	.01	.07	-0.016	0.034

Note. Outcome variable: POD. $R^2 = .30$ for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .004$ for Step 2 ($p > .05$)

* $p < .05$

Proposition 4. *Organizational culture predicts the level of perceived discrimination in the workplace, such that constructive culture norms are negatively associated, and passive- and aggressive-defensive culture norms are positively associated with the level of perceived discrimination in an organization for both minority and non-minority groups.*

Multiple linear regression analyses were conducted to explore the impact of constructive culture norms, passive-defensive culture norms, and aggressive-defensive culture norms on perceived organizational discrimination for both minority and non-minority groups. For minority group, results suggested statistically significant multiple regression (See Table 28), $R^2 = .25$, $SE = 1.26$, $F(3,62) = 6.72$, $p < .05$. Further investigation of the variables individually indicated that only AC had statistically significant impact in predicting POD, $B = .12$, $SE = .04$, $t(62) = 3.05$, $p < .05$, 95% CI[0.042, 0.199]. On the other hand, CC and PC did not have significant impacts on predicting POD, with $B = -.01$, $SE = .03$, $t(62) = -.46$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-0.069, 0.043] for CC and $B = -.02$, $SE = .04$, $t(62) = -.42$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-0.092, 0.060] for PC (See Table 29). In other words, the predicted POD is equal to $1.37 - .01(CC) - .02(PC) + .12(AC)$. The perception of organizational discrimination had a constant of 1.37, and decreased by .01 for every level of CC, .02 for every level of PC, and increased .12 for every level of AC.

Table 28, Overall Multiple Regression of OC on POD for Minority (N=66)

R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of Estimate	F	(df1, df2)	<i>p</i>
0.25	.21	1.26	6.72	(3, 62)	<0.05

Predictor Variables: CC, PC, and AC

Dependent Variable: POD

Table 29, Coefficient Table for CC, PC, and AC on POD, Minority (N=66)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	1.37	1.35		-1.329	4.060
CC	-.01	.03	-.05	-0.069	0.043
PC	-.02	.04	-.07	-0.092	0.060
AC	.12*	.04	.55*	0.042	0.149

*Dependent Variable: POD, *p<.05*

For the non-minority group, results demonstrated a statistically significant multiple regression (See Table 30), $R^2 = .37$, $SE = .97$, $F(3,83) = 15.93$, $p < .05$. Further investigation of the variables individually indicated that, similar to previous hypotheses testing, PC did not have a statistically significant impact on POD, $B = -.02$, $SE = .03$, $t(83) = -.72$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-0.070, 0.033]. On the other hand, CC and AC had significant impacts on predicting POD, with $B = -.06$, $SE = .02$, $t(83) = -3.46$, $p < .05$, 95% CI[-0.091, -0.024] for CC and $B = .11$, $SE = .03$, $t(83) = 4.28$, $p < .05$, 95% CI[0.059, 0.162] for AC (See Table 31). The predicted POD is equal to $2.57 - .06(CC) - .02(PC) + .11(AC)$. The perception of organizational discrimination had a constant of 1.37, and decreased by .06 for every level of CC, .02 for every level of PC, and increased .11 for every level of AC. Therefore, similar to the hypothesis testing using the whole sample, results suggested CC and AC to be statistically significant in predicting POD for the non-minority sample; for minority sample, however, only AC was statistically significant in predicting POD.

Table 30, Overall Multiple Regression of OC on POD for non-Minority (N=87)

R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of Estimate	F	(df1, df2)	<i>p</i>
0.37	.34	.97	15.93	(3, 83)	<0.05

Predictor Variables: CC, PC, and AC

Dependent Variable: POD

Table 31, Coefficient Table for CC, PC, and AC on POD, non-Minority (N=87)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	2.57*	.79		0.988	4.148
CC	-.06*	.02	-.30*	-0.091	-0.024
PC	-.02	.03	-.10	-0.070	0.033
AC	.11*	.03	.58*	0.059	0.162

*Dependent Variable: POD, *p<. 05*

Proposition 5. *Perceived discrimination in the organizational context is negatively associated with psychological well-being for both minority and non-minority groups.*

To explore the impact of POD on PWB for both minority and non-minority groups, simple linear regression analyses were conducted with POD as the predictor variable and PWB as the outcome variable. For minority group, results suggested statistically non-significant regression equation, $R^2 = .03$, $SE = 6.54$, $F(1,64) = 2.11$, $p > .05$ (See Table 32). A closer look at the variable individually suggested POD did not have statistically significant result, $B = -.83$, $SE = .57$, $t(64) = -1.45$, $p > .05$, 95% CI[-1.971, 0.312] (See Table 33).

Table 32, Overall Multiple Regression of POD on PWB, Minority (N=66)

R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of Estimate	F	(df1, df2)	<i>p</i>
.03	.02	6.54	2.11	(1, 64)	>.05

Predictor Variables: POD

Dependent Variable: PWB

Table 33, Coefficient Table for POD on PWB, Minority (N=66)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	35.91*	2.33		31.263	40.556
POD	-.83	.57	-.18	-1.971	0.312

*Dependent Variable: PWB, * $p < .05$*

For non-minority group, results suggested statistically significant regression equation, $R^2 = .06$, $SE = 6.08$, $F(1,85) = 5.73$, $p < .05$ (Table 34). A closer look at the variable individually suggested POD had statistically significant result, $B = -1.31$, $SE = .55$, $t(85) = -2.39$, $p < .05$, 95% CI[-2.393, -0.222] (See Table 35). Therefore, the analyses demonstrated different results between minority and non-minority samples; specifically, non-significant results were found for minority sample and significant results were found for non-minority sample.

Table 34, Overall Multiple Regression of POD on PWB, non-Minority (N=87)

R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of Estimate	F	(df1, df2)	<i>p</i>
.06	.05	6.08	5.73	(1, 85)	< .05

Predictor Variables: POD

Dependent Variable: PWB

Table 35, Coefficient Table for POD on PWB, non-Minority (N=87)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	37.32*	1.69		33.959	40.685
POD	-1.31*	.55	-.25*	-2.399	-0.222

*Dependent Variable: PWB, * $p < .05$*

Proposition 6. *Perceived discrimination in the organizational context is positively associated with turnover intention for both minority and non-minority groups.*

Simple linear regression analyses were conducted to explore turnover intention based on POD for both minority and non-minority group. For minority group, results showed statistically significant linear regression, $R^2 = .19$, $SE = 1.73$, $F(1,64) = 14.92$, $p < .05$ (See Table 36). Result for the coefficient analysis for POD on TI was $B = .58$, $SE = .15$, $t(64) = 3.86$, $p < .05$, 95% CI[0.281, 0.883] (See Table 37).

Table 36, Overall Multiple Regression of POD on TI, Minority (N=66)

R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of Estimate	F	(df1, df2)	<i>p</i>
.19	.18	1.73	14.92	(1, 64)	< .05

Predictor Variables: POD

Dependent Variable: TI

Table 37, Coefficient Table for POD on TI, Minority (N=66)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	1.13	.61		-0.096	2.356
POD	.58*	.15	.44*	0.281	0.883

*Dependent Variable: TI, * $p < .05$*

For non-minority group, results showed statistically significant linear regression, $R^2 = .14$, $SE = 1.90$, $F(1,85) = 13.32$, $p < .05$ (See Table 38). Result for the coefficient analysis for POD on TI was $B = .63$, $SE = .17$, $t(85) = 3.65$, $p < .05$, 95% CI[0.284, 0.965] (See Table 39). Therefore, similar results found in comparison to the hypothesis testing using the whole sample; POD was found to have statistically significant effect in predicting TI for both minority and non-minority samples.

Table 38, Overall Multiple Regression of POD on TI, non-Minority (N=87)

R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error of Estimate	F	(df1, df2)	<i>p</i>
.14	.13	1.90	13.32	(1, 85)	< .05

Predictor Variables: POD

Dependent Variable: TI

Table 39, Coefficient Table for POD on TI, non-Minority (N=87)

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficient		β	95.0% Confidence Interval for <i>B</i>	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	1.29	.53		0.237	2.340
POD	.63*	.17	.57*	0.284	0.965

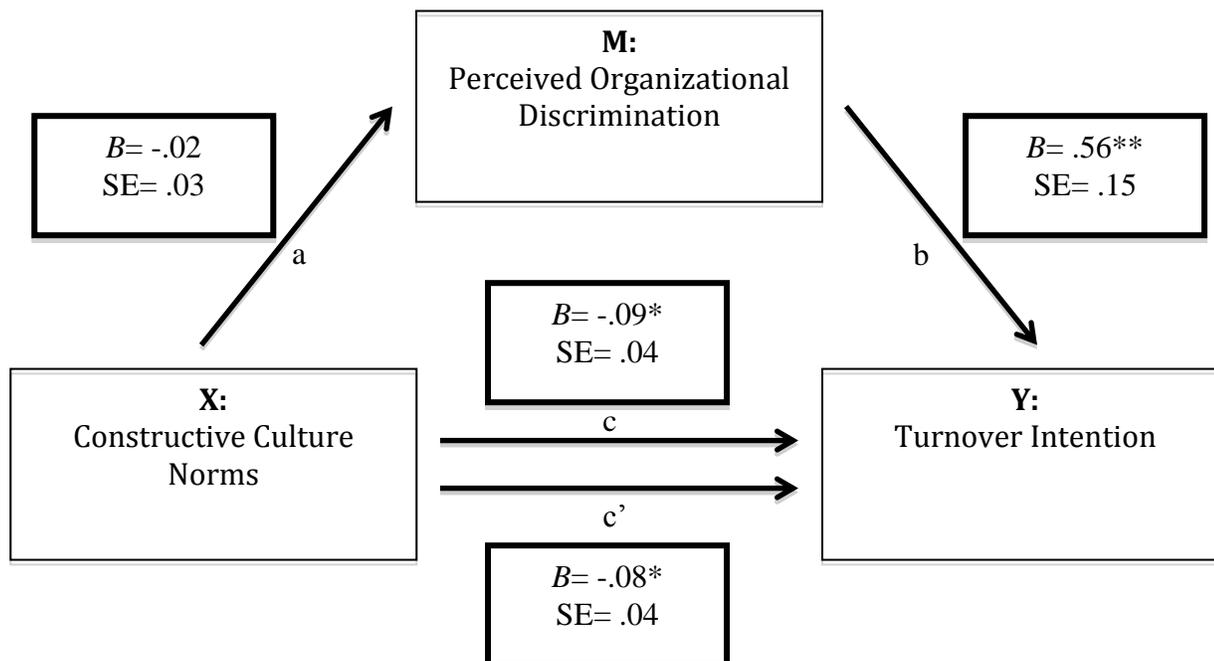
*Dependent Variable: TI, *p < .05*

Proposition 7. *Organizational culture predicts turnover intention (constructive culture norms predict negatively, passive- and aggressive-defensive predicts positively), and the impact of organizational culture on turnover intention is partially mediated by perceived discrimination in the workplace for both minority and non-minority groups.*

Both the Baron and Kenny (1986) method and the Sobel test were used to analyze for mediation effect of POD on the relationship between organizational culture (i.e. CC, PC, AC) and TI for both minority and non-minority groups.

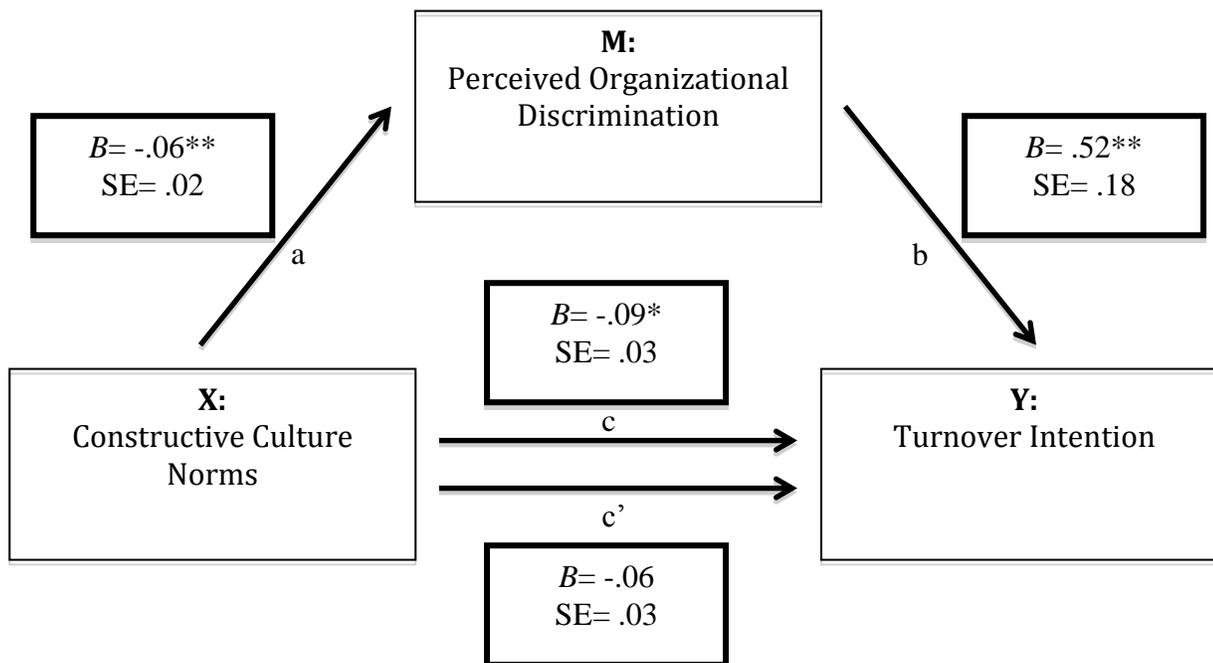
In the first mediation analysis, CC was the independent variable, POD was the mediating variable, and TI was the outcome variable. For the minority group, results of the analyses suggested no significant mediation effect of POD on CC and TI. Figure 10 demonstrated the breakdown of Baron and Kenny (1986) mediation analysis of POD on CC and TI for the minority group. Furthermore, results of the bootstrapped Sobel test (1000 resamples) supported the results using the Baron and Kenny (1986) method, suggesting no significant mediation effect of POD on CC and TI, $P_M = .11$, $z = -.54$, $p > .05$. For the non-minority group, results suggested statistically significant mediation effect of POD on CC and TI as demonstrated in Figure 11. Results of the bootstrapped Sobel test (1000 resamples) also supported the results, suggesting significant mediation effect of POD on CC and TI for the non-minority sample, $P_M = .33$, $z = -2.1$, $p < .05$. Therefore, the mediation analyses suggested different findings between minority and non-minority samples; POD did not mediate the relationship between CC and TI for minority, but POD did have statistically significant mediation effect on CC and TI for non-minority sample.

Figure 10. Mediation Model (X= CC, M= POD, Y= TI), Minority (N=66)



*Note: Bootstrapped (1000 samples); * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$*

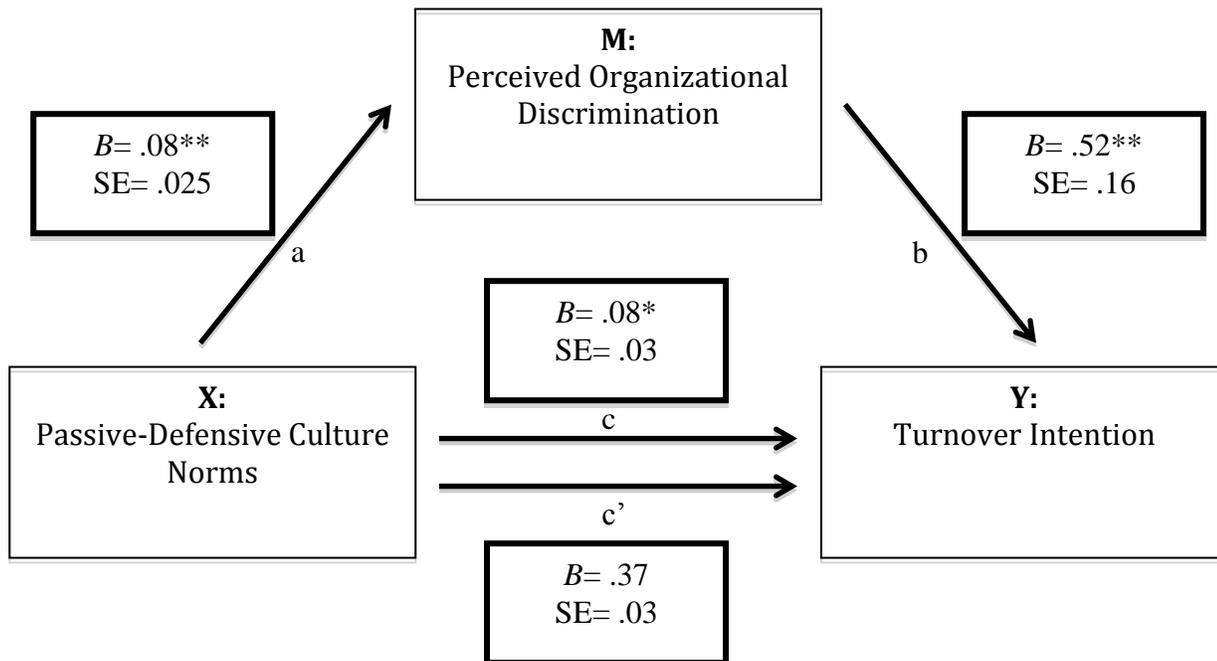
Figure 11. Mediation Model (X= CC, M= POD, Y= TI), non-Minority (N=87)



*Note: Bootstrapped (1000 samples); * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$*

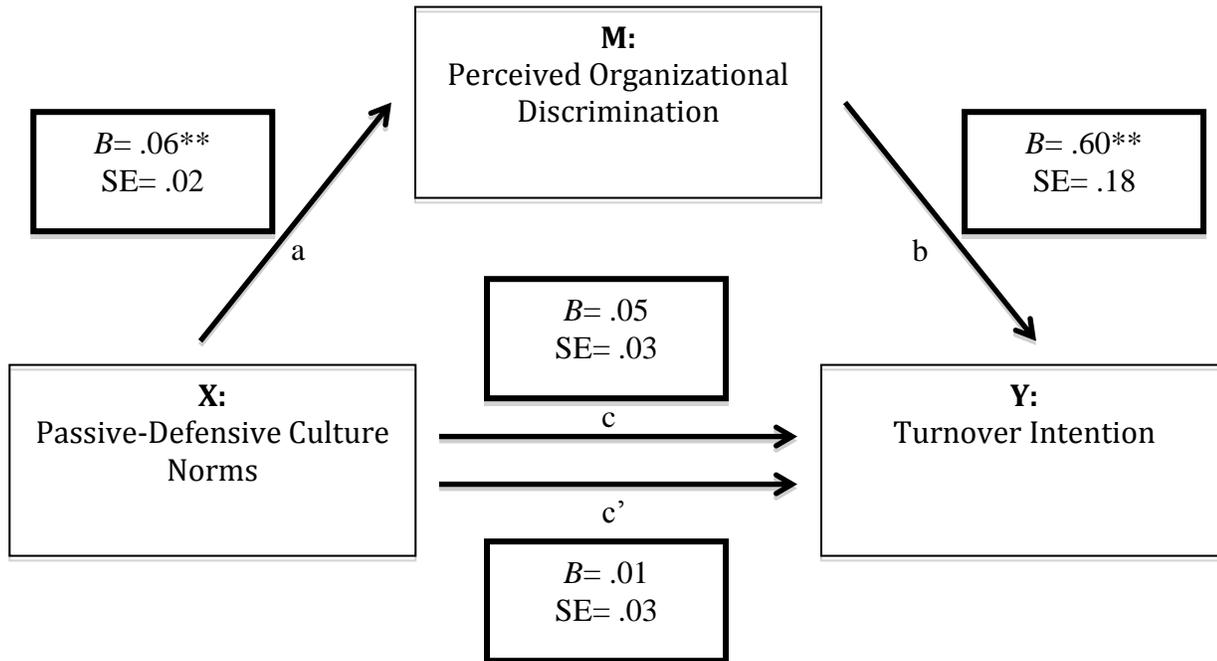
The second mediation analyses explored the mediation effect of POD on the relationship between PC and TI, where PC was conducted as the independent variable, POD as the mediating variable, and TI as the outcome variable for both minority and non-minority groups. For the minority group, results of the analyses suggested a statistically significant mediation effect of POD on PC and TI. Figure 12 demonstrated the breakdown of Baron and Kenny (1986) mediation analysis of POD on PC and TI. Furthermore, results of the bootstrapped Sobel test (1000 resamples) supported the results, indicating significant mediation effect of POD on PC and TI for the minority sample, $P_M = .52$, $z = 2.18$, $p < .05$. For the non-minority group, results of the mediation analyses showed a statistically significant mediation of POD on PC and TI. Figure 13 demonstrated a breakdown of Baron and Kenny (1986) mediation analysis of POD on PC and TI for the non-minority sample, and the bootstrapped Sobel test (1000 resamples) supported the significant results, $P_M = .71$, $z = 2.3$, $p < .05$. Therefore, POD was found to have statistically significant mediation effect on the relationship between PC and TI for both minority and non-minority samples.

Figure 12. Mediation Model (X= PC, M= POD, Y= TI), Minority (N=66)



*Note: Bootstrapped (1000 samples); * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$*

Figure 13. Mediation Model (X= PC, M= POD, Y= TI), non-Minority (N=87)

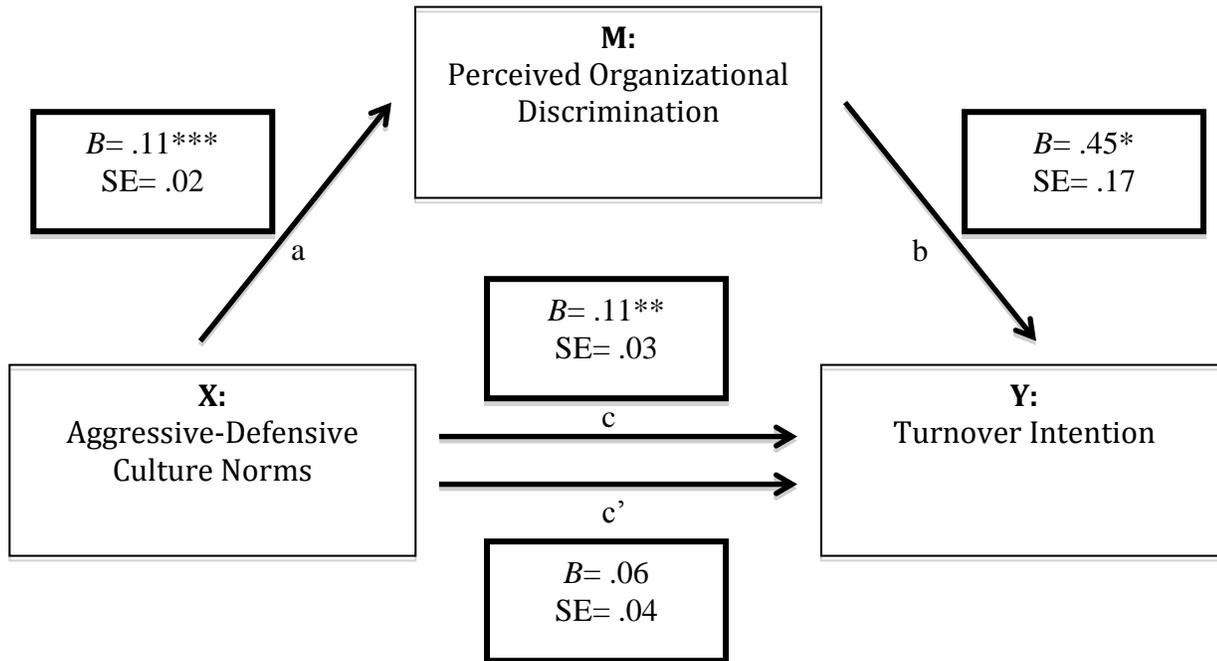


*Note: Bootstrapped (1000 samples); * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$*

The third mediation analyses explored the mediation effect of POD on AC and TI, where AC was conducted as the independent variable, POD as the mediating variable, and TI as the outcome variable for both minority and non-minority groups. For the minority group, results of the mediation analyses suggested statistically significant mediation effect of POD on AC predicting TI. Figure 14 demonstrates the breakdown of Baron and Kenny (1986) mediation analysis of POD on AC and TI for the minority group. Furthermore, results of the Baron and Kenny (1986) method was supported by the bootstrapped Sobel test (1000 resamples), suggesting significant mediation effect of POD on AC and TI, $P_M = .44$, $z = 2.20$, $p < .05$. For the non-minority group, results of the Baron and Kenny (1986) mediation analysis showed statistically significant mediation effect of POD on AC and TI (See Figure 15). The bootstrapped Sobel test (1000 resamples) also supported the significant results, $P_M = .70$, $z = 2.46$, $p < .05$. Therefore, POD was found to have statistically significant mediation for the relationship between AC and TI for both minority and non-minority samples.

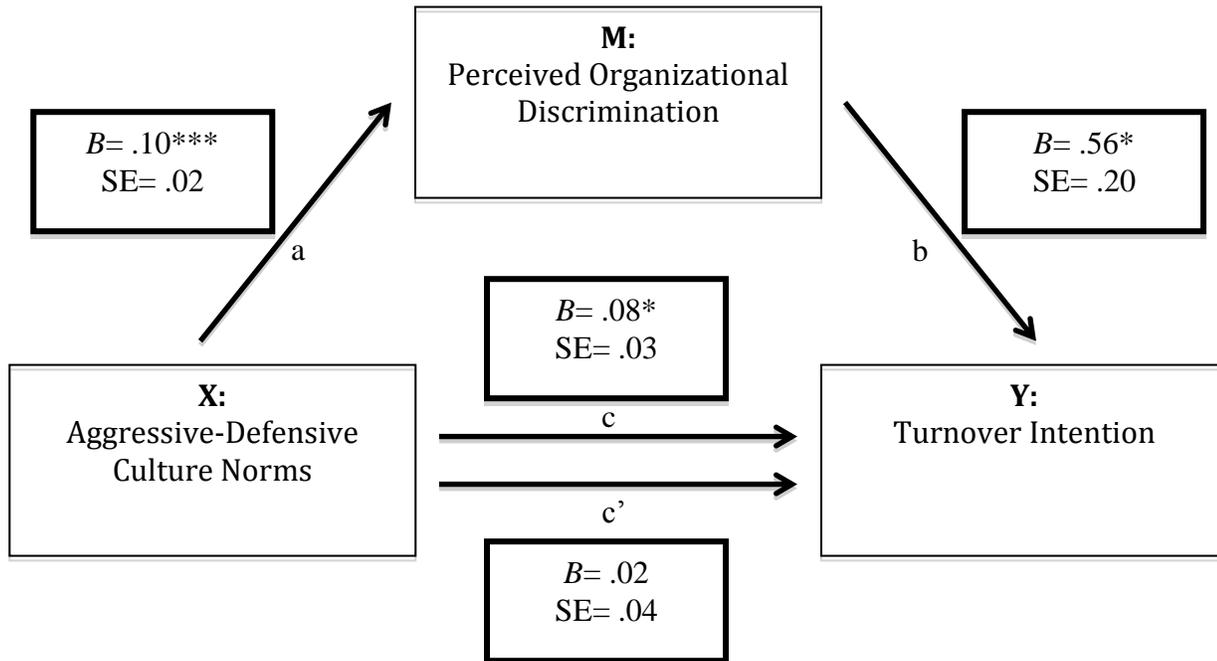
Overall, mediation effect of POD was found for CC on TI for the non-minority group, as well as PC and AC on TI for both minority and non-minority groups. However, no significant mediation was found of POD on CC and TI for the minority group.

Figure 14. Mediation Model (X= AC, M= POD, Y= TI), Minority (N=66)



*Note: Bootstrapped (1000 samples); * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$*

Figure 15. Mediation Model (X= AC, M= POD, Y= TI), non-Minority (N=87)



*Note: Bootstrapped (1000 samples); * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$*

VITA AUCTORIS

Arief Kartolo was born in 1989 in Jakarta, Indonesia. He moved to Taiwan at the age of 8, then immigrated to Canada at the age of 14. He graduated from Streetsville Secondary School in Mississauga, Ontario in 2007. From there he went to the University of Waterloo where he majored in Mathematics for the first two years of undergraduate career. He then found passion in Psychology after taking the Introduction to Psychology course, which lead him to switch his degree and eventually obtained a B.A. in Psychology in 2013. He is currently a candidate for the Master's degree in Psychology at the University of Windsor and expects to graduate in Fall 2016.