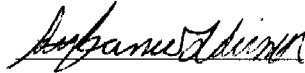


LEADING THROUGH DIVERSITY:  
THE EFFECT OF LEADER GENDER ON RACIAL DISCRIMINATION CLAIMS

AN ABSTRACT

SUBMITTED ON THE THIRTEENTH DAY OF JULY 2015  
TO THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY  
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
OF THE SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING  
OF TULANE UNIVERSITY  
FOR THE DEGREE  
OF  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY

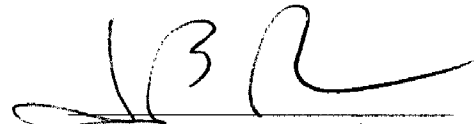


STEFANIE SIMON

APPROVED:



LAURIE O'BRIEN, Ph.D.  
CHAIR



JANET RUSCHER, Ph.D.



LISA MOLIX, Ph.D.



CRYSTAL HOYT, Ph.D.

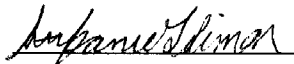
## Abstract

The present research investigated the role that a leader's gender plays in influencing Black Americans' discrimination-claiming attitudes and behaviors. Using cross-sectional (Study 1) and experimental (Study 2 & Study 3) methods, these studies test a mediational model predicting that Blacks will have more positive discrimination-claiming outcomes when they have a White female leader than White male leader because targets will perceive the female leaders as less racially prejudiced than male leaders. Results from Study 1 revealed that Black employees viewed their female supervisors as less prejudiced towards Blacks than they viewed their male supervisors. Furthermore, Study 1 demonstrated that the less prejudiced that Blacks perceived their supervisors to be, the better discrimination-claiming outcomes they had. However, there was no evidence that perceived leader prejudice mediated the effect of leader gender on discrimination-claiming outcomes. These findings did not replicate in Study 2 where Black participants were randomly assigned to imagine they had a White female or male leader. Specifically, participants viewed the White male and female leader as equally prejudiced and had the same predicted claiming outcomes when imagining claiming discrimination to a White male vs. female leader. Study 3, in which Black participants took part in an organizational simulation with either a White female or male leader, replicated Study 1 in that female leaders were perceived as lower in prejudice than male leaders. Furthermore, Study 3 revealed preliminary evidence that perceived prejudice may mediate the effect of leader gender on perceived costs associated with claiming discrimination. Implications for how leaders can encourage targets to report discrimination, as well as a potential "leadership advantage" for female leaders are discussed.

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## Leading through Diversity:

### The Effect of Leader Gender on Racial Discrimination Claims

Women now make up nearly half of the United States workforce (46.8%) and earn more than half of bachelor's, master's, and doctorate degrees (Catalyst, 2014b; U.S. National Center for Education Statistics, 2011), and yet, a large gender gap prevails in top-level leadership positions. In the business domain, women occupy less than 5% of Fortune 500 CEO positions, only 14.6% of the Fortune 500 executive officer positions, and 16.9% of the Fortune 500 board seats (Catalyst, 2014a, 2014b). In the political domain, a similar gender gap exists: women hold just 99 (18.5%) of the 535 seats in the U.S. Congress and 72 of 318 (22.89%) of statewide elective executive officer positions (Center for American Women and Politics, 2014). Numerically, women are underrepresented in powerful leadership positions that make important decisions for the entire U.S. population. The dearth of women in leadership represents an important social issue for a nation that espouses ideals of equal opportunity for all people.

The absence of women in leadership positions may be particularly problematic in a country where racial minority groups are on pace to collectively become the majority of the U.S. population by 2042 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). For example, recent research suggests that diverse countries perform better economically under female leaders as compared to male leaders (Perkins, Phillips, & Pearce, 2013). What does this mean for the predominantly male-led U.S.? If the changing racial demography affects the type of leadership needed in the U.S., the need for more women in leadership positions will



become increasingly important for society's social and economic progress. The present research explores this idea by examining the influence of a leader's gender on followers from racial minority groups. Specifically, this research explores racial minorities' discrimination-claiming behavior. Because leaders have the power and status to affect social change and remedy unfair treatment, understanding the effect of a leader's gender on discrimination-claiming behavior is an important topic of research.

### **Prejudice against Female Leaders**

One reason why women have yet to achieve equality in top-level leadership positions is due to pervasive prejudice they often face in the leadership domain. Prejudice against women in leadership stems from strong gender role stereotypes most people hold for men and women; in fact, prejudice against female leaders is inherent in the female gender role (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Whereas women are thought to be communal, possessing attributes such as affectionate, helpful, kind, and sensitive, men are thought to be more agentic, possessing attributes such as ambitious, aggressive, and dominant (Eagly, 1987). According to Eagly and Karau's (2002) role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders, prejudice against female leaders results from the incongruity between the *take charge*, or agentic, stereotype linked with leadership and the *take care*, or communal, stereotype associated with women. In other words, the stereotypical image of a leader is someone who has agentic, masculine traits. This stereotype creates a perceived "lack of fit" (Heilman, 2001) between women and the leadership role because of the agentic traits that are stereotypical of leaders and the communal traits that are stereotypical of women.

In support of the role congruity theory, research has demonstrated that people often associate top-level leadership positions with agentic qualities that are incongruent with the female gender role stereotype. A good manager is described primarily with masculine attributes (Heilman, Block, Martell, & Simon, 1989; Powell & Butterfield, 1989) and stereotypically male characteristics are seen as necessary for being a successful executive (Martell, Parker, Emrich, & Crawford, 1998). In their meta-analysis, Koenig, Eagly, and Ristikari (2011) found a strong and robust tendency for leadership to be viewed as culturally masculine. This “think-male, think-leader” stereotype results in prejudice against women such that they are perceived as less competent leaders and less deserving of leadership roles than men are (Heilman, 2001; Hoyt, Simon, & Reid, 2009; Phelan & Rudman, 2010; Ridgeway, 2001; Schein 2001). In a meta-analysis of studies employing the common Goldberg paradigm where participants are presented with identical applications with either a female or male name, men were preferred over women for stereotypically male sex-typed jobs (Davison & Burke, 2000).

Furthermore, the gender-leader stereotype can have harmful effects on women’s self-perceptions, well-being, and performance in leadership situations, where women may experience stereotype threat due to apprehension about confirming the negative stereotype about women and leadership (Hoyt & Blascovich, 2007; Hoyt, Johnson, Murphy, & Skinnell, 2010; Hoyt & Simon, 2011). For example, women who had negative stereotypes activated via gender-stereotypic television commercials avoided leadership roles in favor of less threatening subordinate roles, while women who did not have stereotypes activated showed no clear role preference (Davies, Spencer, & Steele, 2005). Thus, while prejudice and discrimination on the behalf of perpetrators can limit

women's access to leadership roles, from the targets' perspective, women's leadership aspirations and performance may be dampened by the debilitating effects of stereotype threat.

### **A “Leadership Advantage” for Female Leaders**

Despite the difficulty reaching top-level leadership positions, both researchers and popular culture have suggested that women actually may have a “leadership advantage” compared to men in times when leaders roles are evolving to meet demands such as growing technology, workforce diversity, competition, and increased global connectedness (Eagly, 2005; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Kanter, 1997). These changes may alter the characterization of effective leadership such that it is more in line with the female gender role; consequently, the prejudice female leaders experience and the gender gap in elite leadership positions may begin to disappear (Eagly & Carli, 2003).

One line of reasoning supporting the idea that women may be more “fit” for leadership roles comes from research on gender differences in leadership styles. In their meta-analysis, Eagly and Johnson (1990) demonstrate that women's leadership style tends to be more interpersonally-oriented and democratic than men's, while men tend to have more task-oriented, autocratic styles. More recent research has focused on gender difference in transformational and transactional leadership styles. Transformational leadership (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985) involves an orientation toward achieving future goals by fostering followers' commitment and creativity and involves mentoring and empowering followers. Transformational leadership is more in line with the female gender role (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Kark, Waismel-Manor, Shamir, 2012; Vinkenbunrg, van Engen, Eagly, & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2011; Yoder, 2001) and is in contrast with

transactional leadership which involves motivating followers through their own self-interest and establishing exchange relationships (i.e., rewarding followers for meeting goals; Avolio, 1999). Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) revealed in a meta-analysis of 45 studies that female leaders tended to be more transformational in their leadership style than male leaders, while male leaders tended to be more transactional than female leaders. Importantly, a separate meta-analysis of 87 studies revealed a positive relationship between effectiveness and transformational leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; see also Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Together, these findings suggest a female advantage: women tend to use a leadership style associated with effectiveness.

Along with leadership style, women may fair better than men in leadership situations that are complex and require socially-skilled behavior (Perkins et al., 2013). For instance, archival research revealed that women are particularly likely to be placed in leadership positions in situations of financial downturn and decline in company performance (Ryan & Haslam, 2005). This phenomenon, known as the “glass cliff” (Ryan & Haslam, 2005) demonstrates how women tend to be appointed to leadership positions when situations are difficult or problematic. Furthermore, experimental research has demonstrated that, when companies are declining (vs. improving), women are seen as being more suitable for the leadership position and having greater leadership ability than men (Haslam & Ryan, 2008). Importantly, this research also demonstrates that one reason why women are perceived as better suited than men to lead in problematic circumstances is because these positions are believed to be more stressful than everyday circumstances. Thus, women may be elected to leadership positions in

crisis situations because they are suited for crisis and stress management (Dunahoo, Geller, & Hobfoll, 1996; Ryan & Haslam, 2007; Ryan, Haslam, Hersby, & Bongiorno, 2011). Similarly, Brown, Diekman, and Schneider (2011) demonstrate in a series of studies that because men are associated with stability and women with change, in times of threat that signal the need for change, female leaders are preferred to male leaders.

While the research described above does not explicitly examine leadership in racially diverse circumstances, it is likely that the growing racial diversity in the U.S. creates similar situations that may be fit for female leaders. For example, research on interracial interactions is rife with evidence that these situations can be problematic and stressful (e.g., Plant & Devine, 2003; Trawalter, Richeson, & Shelton, 2009) and that racial progress is threatening to White Americans (Wilkins & Kaiser, 2014). Furthermore, Perkins and colleagues (2013) suggest racially diverse nations may benefit from having a female leader. While male leaders are associated with higher GDP growth rates in more racially homogenous countries, a female leadership advantage emerges in ethnically diverse nations: having a female leader is associated with a 6.6% increase in GDP growth in comparison to having a male leader (Perkins et al., 2013). Thus, in complex circumstances, female leaders may outperform male leaders.

In fact, experimental research corroborates these findings by examining men's and women's leadership performance in diverse and homogenous groups (Toosi, Sommers, & Ambady, 2012). Specifically, Toosi and colleagues (2012) found that White women performed better in racially diverse groups than in racially homogenous groups, while White men performed equally regardless of the racial make-up of the group. Furthermore, White women in diverse groups showed increasing confidence over time.

In sum, in complex circumstances that are threatening, problematic, and/or racially diverse, women may “fit” the leadership role, at least equally as well as men.

### **Diversity in Groups**

In order to examine followers’ perceptions of women’s and men’s leadership of diverse groups, the present research compares followers’ attitudes and behavior in response to female vs. male leadership. As leadership scholars have noted, examining behaviors of the followers is important for better understanding the effectiveness of leaders (e.g., Chemers, 1997). One type of behavior that is particularly important for understanding leadership in diverse contexts is how racial minorities cope with instances of racial discrimination.

Although overt racial hostility has seemingly decreased in the U.S. over the past several decades (Norton & Sommers, 2011; Schuman, Steeh, Bobo & Krysan, 1997), racial minorities, especially Black Americans, continue to experience high rates of discrimination (Pager & Shephard, 2008; Swim, Hyers, Cohen, Fitzgerald, & Bylsma, 2003; Williams & Mohammed, 2013). Experiencing discrimination is a form of social stress that can have a detrimental effect on mental and physical health, resulting in health problems such as depression, psychiatric distress, hypertension, diabetes, respiratory problems, and cardiovascular disease (e.g., Gyll, Matthews, & Bromberger, 2001; Matthews & Gallo, 2011; Major, Mendes, & Dovidio, 2013; Pascoe & Smart-Richman, 2009; Penner et al., 2013).

Consistent with biopsychosocial theories and models of discrimination-related stressors, workplace discrimination also has negative consequences for job-related outcomes; experiencing racial discrimination and harassment in the workplace is

detrimental to a host of work-related outcomes such as: job satisfaction, intentions to stay at one's job, job withdrawal, organizational commitment, work tension, and satisfaction with opportunities at work (Bergman, Drasgow, Ormerod, & Pamlieri, 2012; Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley, 2013; Deitch et al., 2003; Fitzgerald, Hulin, & Drasgow, 1995; Ragins & Cornwell, 2001; Sanchez & Brock, 1996; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). Furthermore, merely witnessing discrimination and harassment in the workplace can have a "second-hand smoke" effect on other employees whereby they too experience impediments at work (Chrobot-Mason, Ragins, & Linnehan, 2013; Low, Radhakrishnan, Schneider, & Rounds, 2007; Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007). Thus, experiencing discrimination in the workplace can affect the well-being, satisfaction, and productivity of employees who experience and/or witness discrimination.

**Claiming discrimination.** Effective coping strategies can help targets of discrimination effectively deal with this unfair treatment and combat such negative outcomes. One such coping strategy is actively claiming, reporting, or confronting discrimination. Research on the effects of confronting discrimination on well-being has demonstrated that this coping strategy can help targets of discrimination effectively deal with prejudice-related daily hassles (Kaiser & Miller, 2004) and prevent rumination that may occur from remaining silent (Shelton, Richeson, Salvatore, & Hill, 2006). Moreover, reporting discrimination helps to set social norms of equality and tolerance (Blanchard, Crandall, Brigham, & Vaughn, 1994; Blanchard, Lily, & Vaughn, 1991; Monteith, Deneen, & Tooman, 1996) and can help curb future transgressions from prejudiced perpetrators (Czopp, Monteith, Mark, 2006). Importantly, claiming discrimination could set the stage for corrective action toward perpetrators and rectify the

harm done to victims. Thus, reporting instances of discrimination in the workplace may help protect targets of discrimination from experiencing costly workplace impediments.

Nonetheless, a large body of evidence illustrates how rarely targets report or claim experiences of discrimination (Feagin & Sikes, 1994; Kaiser, Dyrenforth, & Hagiwara, 2006; Kaiser, Major, Jurcevic, Dover, Brady, & Shapiro, 2013; Kaiser & Miller, 2001; Stangor, Swim, Van Allen, & Sechrist, 2002; Swim & Hyers, 1999). For example, Stangor and colleagues (2002) found Black Americans who received a bad grade from a prejudiced evaluator were less likely to claim discrimination in front of Whites than they were in front of other Black Americans. These findings highlight a well-documented reason why targets tend not to report this unfair treatment: the perceived social costs of publicly claiming discrimination.

*Costs and benefits of claiming discrimination.* The social costs of claiming discrimination can deter targets from directly confronting someone for making a discriminatory comment. Shelton and Stewart (2004) manipulated the costliness of claiming discrimination by telling women interviewing for a job with a male interviewer that making a good impression was essential for obtaining the job (high cost) or that she was interviewing simply to gain experience (low cost). When the male interviewer made sexist comments, women in the low cost condition were more likely to confront the sexist perpetrator than those in the high cost situation. The fear of incurring interpersonal costs by claiming discrimination appears to be justified. For example, Whites perceive a Black person who attributed failure to discrimination as a complainer and less favorably than a Black person who attributed failure to him/herself (Kaiser & Miller, 2001, 2003). Furthermore, White perpetrators who made discriminatory comments evaluated Black



targets who confronted their comment less favorably than those who did not confront the comment (Czopp et al., 2006).

Despite the perceived and actual social costs of claiming or confronting discrimination, there are instances when targets publicly report discrimination. When does this occur? While research in this area is somewhat limited, two important individual differences seem to influence target's recognition of the potential benefits of confronting discrimination: optimism (Kaiser & Miller, 2004; Sechrist, 2010) and implicit theories about people's ability to change (Rattan & Dweck, 2010). Optimism is the expectation that one will frequently experience positive outcomes and rarely experience negative outcomes in the future (Scheier & Carver, 1992). Individuals with an optimistic outlook on life appraise potentially stressful events (e.g., being the target of discrimination) as less threatening and believe they are better able to cope with these events (Major, Richards, Cooper, Cozzarelli, & Zubek, 1998). For instance, relative to pessimistic women, optimistic women who read a threatening article about sexism reported that sexism was less threatening and that they were better prepared to cope with it (Kaiser, Major, & McCoy, 2004). Thus, optimism serves as a resource that promotes benign appraisals of sexism, and consequently, predicts confronting behavior (see also Kaiser & Miller, 2004; Sechrist, 2010).

In addition to dispositional traits, beliefs about *others* are also important predictors of decisions to confront sexism and racism. Targets of prejudice who believe that others can change their prejudice-level (i.e., endorse an incremental theory of prejudice; Dweck, 1999) are more likely to confront prejudice in order to educate the perpetrator and potentially change his/her biased attitudes (Rattan & Dweck, 2010). That

is, targets who believe that others can change their prejudice are more likely than those who believe that others' attitudes are fixed to directly confront someone who made a biased comment. Thus, dispositional optimism and beliefs about people's ability to change their prejudice appear to be important predictors of confronting behavior because they encourage the belief that confronting will generally have a positive outcome. In other words, these are factors that allow targets of discrimination to focus more on the potential benefits of claiming discrimination.

Beyond individual differences among targets that may influence confronting or claiming behavior, the present research looks to aspects of the situation that may further alter Black Americans' decision to report instances of discrimination. Specifically, the present research examines whether the gender of a group's leader influences racial minorities' discrimination-claiming behavior. As mentioned previously, women tend to do better in leadership situations involving diversity situations than men do. Accordingly, the present research focuses on one potential reason for this leadership advantage: Are racial minorities more likely to report discrimination to a female vs. male leader?

The present research investigates Blacks' reporting discrimination specifically to *White* female and male leaders. Because leaders in the U.S. are predominately White (Catalyst, 2013), people will likely need to report discrimination to members of this high status outgroup. Claiming discrimination to members of a high status outgroup is something that targets of discrimination are reluctant to do (e.g., Stangor et al., 2002; Swim & Hyers, 1999). Accordingly, the current research tests a boundary condition of

the intergroup phenomenon of discrimination-claiming to a high status outgroup member: gender.

**Perceived prejudice of a leader.** Gender differences among Whites that emerge in race-related issues more generally suggest that having a White female leader as opposed to a White male leader may tip the cost/benefit analysis in favor of reporting discrimination. Specifically, the present research tests the hypothesis that racial minorities will be more likely to report instances of racial discrimination to White female leaders than White male leaders because the female leaders will be perceived as holding more favorable racial attitudes than male leaders.

It is likely that racial minorities will perceive White female leaders as less prejudiced than White male leaders because women consistently express less racially prejudiced attitudes toward a variety of social groups than men do across a wide range of studies (Akrami, Ekehammar, & Araya, 2000; Ekehammar & Sidanius, 1982; Eagly, Diekmann, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Koenig, 2004; Foels & Pappas, 2004; Hoxter & Lester, 1994; Johnson & Marini, 1998; Moore, Hauck, & Denne, 1984; Nosek, Banaji, & Greenwald, 2002; Qualls, Cox, & Schehr, 1992; Ratcliff, Lassiter, Markman, & Snyder, 2006; Sidanius, Cling, & Pratto, 1991; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999; Sidanius, Pratto, & Bobo, 1994; Sidanius & Veniegas, 2000; Spanierman, Beard, & Todd, 2012; Watts, 1996; Whitley, 1999). This body of research has demonstrated that White men express more explicit racial bias (e.g., Johnson & Marini, 1998) and implicit racial bias (e.g., Nosek et al., 2002) than White women. Not only do women hold less prejudiced attitudes than men, but White women also tend to recognize more White privilege than White men do (Rosette & Tost, 2013).

The most well-documented evidence of men's greater levels of prejudice comes from research on social dominance orientation (SDO; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999), a construct that reflects an individual's preference for group-based hierarchy status and the domination of lower status groups by higher status groups. Sidanius and colleagues have demonstrated with over 45 independent samples, using almost 19,000 participants across 10 countries that men express higher SDO than women (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). While SDO is distinct from traditional measures of prejudice, it is an individual variable that very strongly predicts an individual's prejudicial attitudes toward social groups, including attitudes towards Blacks (Sidanius et al., 1994; Pratto, Sidanius, Stallworth, & Malle, 1994). Furthermore, individuals high in SDO discriminate more against outgroups in minimal group paradigms (Sidanius, Pratto, & Mitchell, 1994).

Sidanius and Pratto (1999) theorize that gender differences in SDO are not due to cultural or social factors, but rather an evolved function of men's reproductive strategies and an innate predisposition for group dominance. Other researchers theorize that gender differences in race attitudes, along with other social and political attitudes, are due to the different social roles that men and women fill in society. From a social role perspective (Eagly et al., 2004), gender differences in attitudes are due to direct occupation of distinct occupational and familial roles, as well as culturally shared expectations of men and women (i.e., gender role expectations). In support of a sociocultural explanation of gender differences in SDO, Foels and Pappas (2004) found that the relationship between gender and SDO was mediated by gender socialization; that is, men scored higher on SDO to the extent that they were high in masculinity and low in femininity. These findings suggest that men may not be "predisposed" toward group dominance, but rather,

social factors (i.e., gender role expectations) influence the extent to which an individual endorses SDO.

Johnson and Marini (1998) also use a gender socialization perspective to demonstrate gender differences in racial attitudes. Because women are socialized to care about others' well-being and develop relationships (i.e., communality) more than men are, women tend to be more interpersonally-oriented, while men tend to be more individualistically-oriented (Block, 1984). This gender socialization colors the desire for intergroup interactions in that White men have much lower acceptance of interacting with other racial groups than White women (Johnson & Marini, 1998). Additionally, White women tend to handle intergroup anxiety more skillfully than White men do (Littleford, White, & Sayoc-Parial, 2005). Relative to White men, White women became friendlier as they experienced more discomfort in interracial interactions, whereas men become less friendly (Littleford et al., 2005). One reason that women may be prone to have a more affiliative response in interracial interactions is because these situations are stressful, and women tend to desire affiliation with others in stressful situations (i.e., "tend and befriend," Taylor et al., 2000). This gender difference in response to stress is consistent with the female gender role as more socially expressive than the male gender role (Patterson, 1991). In fact, these friendly, helpful, and affiliative behaviors consistent with the female gender role are the same behaviors that Black Americans have identified as being indicative of a nonprejudiced White person (Winslow, Aaron, & Amadife, 2011), and Blacks rate White women as easier to get along with than White men (Timberlake & Estes, 2007).

One reason for White women's greater social skills in interracial interactions is that they are also more personally motivated to avoid prejudice than White men are (Hausmann & Ryan, 2004). Trawalter and colleagues (2009) have theorized that the combination of personal motivation and positive racial attitudes may predict positive behavior during stressful interracial interactions. Importantly, Black perceivers are reasonably accurate at detecting the prejudice-level of Whites in general. For example, Black perceivers detect Whites' implicit level of race bias through their nonverbal displays of unfriendliness (Dovidio, Kawakami, & Gaertner, 2002), suggesting that women will be able to effectively communicate their nonprejudiced attitudes in interracial interactions. In support of this prediction, when asked whether White women or White men are more racially biased toward Blacks, both female and male Black participants indicated that White women were less prejudiced than White men (Babbitt, 2013, Study 1b). Furthermore, White men tend to be stereotyped as racist compared to White women, who are instead stereotyped to be pleasant and sociable (Niemann, Jennings, Rozelle, Baxter, & Sullivan, 1994). Thus, Blacks are able to detect the bias of others and expect White women to be less prejudiced than White men.

While the present research is the first to compare perceived gender differences in White *leaders'* prejudice, women's more communal, transformational leadership style is likely to communicate to all types of followers that they are caring and understanding people to a greater extent than the agentic, transactional leadership style more typical of men. Moreover, gender differences in ethical behavior in the workplace (Borkowski & Ugras, 1998; Craft, 2013; Franke, Crown, Spake, 1997) suggest that women may be perceived as more likely to do "the right thing" in difficult situations, such as those

involving racial discrimination. Lastly, women tend to place greater importance on the social values of benevolence (enhancement of the welfare of others) and universalism (understanding and tolerance for the welfare of others; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005). Thus, women's more caring leadership style, ethical behavior, and focus on the values of benevolence and universalism may accurately communicate their lower levels of racial prejudice to racial minorities.

### **Overview of Studies**

The present research posits that targets of racial discrimination will be more likely to report instances of racial discrimination to a White female leader compared to a White male leader due to perceptions of women as less racially prejudiced than men. I test this prediction across three studies examining Black Americans' experiences with racial discrimination in the workplace, discrimination-claiming behavior, and the gender of participants' leader at their place of employment. The present research focuses solely on Black Americans because members of this group report experiencing more race-based discrimination in the workplace than other racial groups (i.e., White, Latino/a, and Asian Americans; Bell, Harrison, & McLaughlin, 1997; Jones, Ni, & Wilson, 2009; Utsey, Case, Brown, & Kelly, 2002).

Study 1 uses a cross-sectional design and surveys full-time employees. Next, Study 2 uses an experimental design of full-time employees' perceptions of hypothetical discrimination events in the workplace involving female and male leaders. Finally, Study 3 employs a high-impact laboratory experiment where participants take part in a workplace simulation involving a discriminatory event. Together, these three studies test a model in which the effect of White leaders' gender on Black American's

discrimination-claiming behavior is mediated by perceptions of how racially prejudiced the leader is.

**Hypotheses.** It is hypothesized that:

1. Black Americans will perceive White female leaders as less prejudiced than White male leaders.
2. Black Americans will be more likely to report racial discrimination when they have a White female, compared to a White male, leader.
3. The effect of leader gender on reporting discrimination will be mediated through the indirect effect of perceived leader prejudice.

### **Study 1**

Study 1 was a cross-sectional survey of Black Americans in the workplace. Study 1 served as the first test of the hypothesized model in which I predicted that Black American followers who have a female (vs. male) leader will be more likely to report instances of racial discrimination that took place at work because female leaders are perceived to be less prejudiced than male leaders. While my primary hypotheses concern reporting to *White* leaders, this sample consisted of a large number of racial minority leaders. Therefore, I retained participants who had leaders they identified as nonWhite and examined the effect of leader race in addition to leader gender. In this study, I operationalized leaders as participants' direct supervisors at their place of work.

#### **Study 1 Method**

**Participants and design.** Two hundred and seventeen participants who identified as Black/African American completed the survey through Qualtrics Panels for a small monetary reward. Of these 217 participants, 10 were removed for completed the



survey in less than 5 minutes, 4 were removed clicking through the survey with a single response, and 1 was removed because she indicated not holding a full-time job, leaving a final sample of 202. The sample consisted of 71 men and 131 women with a mean age of 41.00 (ranging from 20 to 66 years old). Study 1 employed a cross-sectional design where participants completed necessary measures online. Specifically, potential participants were invited if they have previously indicated that they are Black/African American, over 18 years old, and currently hold a full-time job.

**Procedure and measures.** Qualified participants who chose to participate did so by clicking a hyperlink directing them to the study supported by Qualtrics.com. Participants first read a consent form (Appendix A) before completing the study's measures.

***Personal demographics.*** Participants completed demographic items, including race, gender, age, political beliefs, religious views, and questions related to their occupation. See Appendix B.

***Perceived supervisor demographics.*** Participants also filled out perceived demographic information about their direct supervisor at work. Along with the specific supervisor demographic variable of interest (i.e., supervisor's gender), participants also completed several other demographic items, including supervisor's race which was used as an additional predictor. Seventy-one participants indicated they had a Black/African American supervisor, 107 indicated White American, 6 Asian, 13 Latino/a, 1 Native American, 1 Biracial, and 3 indicated other. For analyses reported in Study 1, supervisor race is coded as 0 = NonBlack and 1 = Black.<sup>1</sup> See Appendix C.

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<sup>1</sup> When supervisor race is coded as 0 = White and 1 = NonWhite, the effects are very similar to the analyses reported in the Results section of Study 1.

*Perceived prejudice of supervisor.* Participants responded to 7 items from McConahay's (1986) Modern Racism scale on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). The scale was adapted so that perceptions of participants' direct supervisors' modern racist attitudes were assessed. Items were preceded with the following stem: "Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you think that **your direct supervisor** at work would agree or disagree with the following items." Example items include: "Discrimination against Blacks is no longer a problem in the United States," and "It is easy to understand the anger of Black people in America (r)" ( $\alpha = .83$ ). See Appendix D for the full list of items.

*Discrimination-claiming outcomes.* The primary dependent variables assessed in this study are related to making discrimination claims in the workplace, referred to as discrimination-claiming outcomes. They were discrimination-claiming behavior, comfort with claiming discrimination, and the perceived costs and benefits of claiming discrimination.

*Claiming behavior.* Four items from Leslie and Gelfand (2008) assessed how frequently participants have claimed race-based discrimination that they have experienced in the workplace in the past 12 months. Participants responded to items on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always). Example items include "Reporting the incident to an immediate supervisor" and "Filing a formal grievance about the incident" ( $\alpha = .89$ ). See Appendix E. Because this variable was positively skewed, indicating that most people reported they did not claim discrimination in the past year, it was transformed using a natural logarithm transformation.

*Comfort with claiming discrimination.* The same 4 items from the claiming behavior scale were modified to assess how comfortable participants would feel claiming discrimination events that may occur in the future on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (Very uncomfortable) to 7 (Very comfortable); ( $\alpha = .94$ ). See Appendix F.

*Perceived costs of claiming discrimination.* Participants responded to 6 items assessing how negatively they believe that their supervisor would view them for claiming discrimination. On a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree), participants were asked to indicate the extent which they believe that their direct supervisor would view them as hypersensitive, irritating, a complainer, a troublemaker, emotional, and argumentative for reporting an incident of race-based discrimination that occurred in the workplace ( $\alpha = .92$ ). Items were embedded in 5 positive traits that served as filler items. See Appendix G.

*Perceived benefits of claiming discrimination.* Participants responded to 9 items assessing the positive effect resulting from claiming discrimination. Items were adapted from Kaiser and Miller (2004) to specifically assess the benefits of claiming discrimination in the workplace. On a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree), participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they believe that reporting discrimination that occurs in the workplace will help to “reduce prejudice and discrimination that occurs in the workplace” and “reduce the prejudiced-based hassles that I would otherwise have to deal with in the workplace” ( $\alpha = .95$ ). The items were embedded among 4 potential negative effects of claiming as filler items. See Appendix H.

***Control variables.***

*Participants' gender.* Participants' gender, obtained from the demographic questionnaire, was used as a control variable.

*Experienced discrimination.* Participants completed the Workplace and School Microaggressions subscale from Nadal's (2011) Racial and Ethnic Microaggression Scale (REMS). Items were adapted such that they assess microaggressions only in the workplace. The five items included: "An employer or co-worker was unfriendly or unwelcoming toward me because of my race," "My opinion was overlooked in a group discussion because of my race," "I was ignored at work because of my race," "Someone assumed that my work would be inferior to people of other racial groups," and "An employer or co-worker treated me differently than White co-workers." Each item was answered on a 5-point scale (0 = I did not experience this event in the past 12 months to 5 = I experienced this event 5 or more times in the past 12 months ( $\alpha = .89$ ). See Appendix I.

After completing the questionnaires, participants read a debriefing information sheet. See Appendix J.

## Study 1 Results

Table 1

*Means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables in Study 1*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Supervisor gender	.48	.55	--	-.13	-.13	-.23**	.07	-.06
2. Supervisor prejudice	2.81	1.30		--	.26**	-.18*	.50**	-.14*
3. Claiming behavior	1.85	1.45			--	.11	.31**	.20**
4. Comfort claiming	4.73	2.01				--	-.19**	.48**
5. Costs claiming	2.63	1.59					--	-.19**
6. Benefits claiming	4.38	1.63						--

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ .

**Hypothesis testing.** First, to test the relationship between supervisor gender and perceived prejudice (the mediator), I conducted a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealing that participants perceived their female supervisors as less prejudiced ( $M = 2.63$ ,  $SD = 1.24$ ) than their male supervisors ( $M = 2.97$ ,  $SD = 1.33$ ),  $F(1, 200) = 3.58$ ,  $p = .06$ ,  $d = -.26$ , although this difference did not quite reach conventional levels of statistical significance.

Next, to test the indirect effect of supervisor gender on claiming outcomes through perceived supervisor prejudice, I used Hayes' (2013) PROCESS macro. Specifically, I used Model 4 to estimate an unmoderated mediation model where supervisor gender (0 = male, 1 = female) was the independent variable and supervisor prejudice was the mediator, controlling for supervisor race (0 = Black, 1 = NonBlack), participant gender (0 = male, 1 = female) and experienced discrimination. The model was run separately for each dependent variable: claiming behavior, comfort claiming, perceived costs, and perceived benefits. While supervisor gender had a significant effect on some of the dependent variables (see below analyses), these analyses yielded nonsignificant indirect effects on each dependent variable: claiming behavior, comfort

with claiming, costs of claiming, and benefits of claiming (confidence intervals that included zero).<sup>2</sup>

Although the results did not provide support for my hypothesized model, I next conducted exploratory analyses in order to better understand the relationships among supervisor gender, supervisor prejudice, and the discrimination-claiming outcome variables. Specifically, I conducted hierarchical linear regression analyses with supervisor gender, supervisor prejudice (centered), and the 3 covariates (supervisor race, participant gender, and experienced discrimination) entered at Step 1. In order to check that the covariates met the “equal slopes” assumption, I entered the interactions between predictor variables and covariates at Step 2 (i.e., supervisor gender by supervisor race, supervisor gender by participant gender, supervisor gender by experienced discrimination, supervisor prejudice by supervisor race, supervisor prejudice by participant gender, and supervisor prejudice by experienced discrimination). The results from these regression analyses are reported below. See Table 1 for means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables in Study 1.

***Claiming behavior.*** Because none of the covariates interacted with either predictor, only the main effects of each predictor were retained in this regression equation, controlling for supervisor race, participant gender, and experienced discrimination. This analysis yielded a significant model,  $R^2 = .29$ ,  $F(5, 196) = 17.19$ ,  $p < .001$ ; however, this was largely due to the significant effects of covariates (see Table 2).

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<sup>2</sup> When supervisor race, participant gender, and experienced discrimination are taken out of the analyses as covariates, the indirect effect of leader gender through leader prejudice is significant for comfort with claiming, perceived costs, and perceived benefits of claiming with confidence intervals that do not include zero, providing support for the hypothesized mediational model for these 3 dependent variables.

Neither supervisor gender,  $\beta = -.08$ ,  $p = .23$ , nor perceived supervisor prejudice,  $\beta = .002$ ,  $p = .97$ , had a significant effect on participants' reported claiming behavior.

***Comfort with claiming.*** In this analysis, none of the covariates interacted with predictors and thus, only main effects of predictors were retained, controlling for supervisor race, participant gender, and experienced discrimination. This analysis yielded a significant model,  $R^2 = .09$ ,  $F(5, 196) = 5.08$ ,  $p < .001$ . Furthermore, the effect of supervisor gender was significant,  $\beta = -.28$ ,  $p < .001$ , revealing that, contrary to predictions, participants reported feeling less comfortable claiming discrimination when they had a female ( $M_{\text{predicted}} = 4.29$ ) vs. male ( $M_{\text{predicted}} = 5.40$ ) supervisor at work. The effect of perceived supervisor prejudice was marginal,  $\beta = -.15$ ,  $p = .05$ , revealing that, in line with predictions, participants felt more comfortable claiming to a supervisor the less prejudiced he/she was perceived to be. See Table 2.

***Costs of claiming.*** In this analysis, none of the covariates interacted with predictors and thus, only main effects of predictors were retained, controlling for supervisor race, participant gender, and experienced discrimination. This analysis yielded a significant model,  $R^2 = .38$ ,  $F(5, 196) = 25.15$ ,  $p < .001$ . The effect of supervisor gender was significant,  $\beta = .14$ ,  $p = .04$ , revealing that, contrary to predictions, participants reported greater perceived costs of claiming discrimination when they had a female ( $M_{\text{predicted}} = 2.40$ ) vs. male ( $M_{\text{predicted}} = 1.96$ ) supervisor at work. The effect of perceived supervisor prejudice was also significant,  $\beta = .35$ ,  $p < .001$ , revealing that, in line with predictions, participants perceived greater costs of claiming to a supervisor the more prejudiced he/she was perceived to be. See Table 2.

Table 2

*Standardized coefficients for claiming behavior, comfort claiming, and costs of confronting from regression analyses in Study 1*

Predictor	Claiming behavior	Comfort claiming	Costs confronting
Supervisor gender	-.08	-.28**	.14*
Supervisor prejudice	.002	-.15*	.35**
Participant gender	-.05	.04	.01
Supervisor race	.15*	-.03	-.02
Experienced discrimination	.52**	-.14	.39**

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ ; all coefficients displayed are  $\beta$ 's.

**Benefits of claiming.** In this analysis, perceived supervisor prejudice interacted with supervisor race, violating the equal slopes assumption of covariates. Thus, I retained this interaction in Step 2 of the regression equation. Step 1 was significant,  $R^2 = .04$ ,  $F(5, 196) = 2.44$ ,  $p = .04$ ; however, neither the effect of supervisor gender,  $\beta = -.05$ ,  $p = .57$ , nor perceived supervisor prejudice,  $\beta = -.08$ ,  $p = .30$  were significant. Step 2 was also significant,  $\Delta R^2 = .09$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 195) = 20.82$ ,  $p < .001$ . At Step 2, the effect of perceived supervisor prejudice was significant in the predicted direction: The less prejudiced supervisors were perceived to be, the more benefits of claiming participants reported,  $\beta = -.32$ ,  $p < .001$ . However, this effect was qualified by a significant interaction between perceived supervisor prejudice and supervisor race,  $\beta = .39$ ,  $p < .001$ .

This interaction revealed that, for people who had nonBlack supervisors, the less prejudiced the supervisors were perceived to be, the more benefits of claiming were perceived,  $\beta = -.32$ ,  $p < .001$ . The opposite was true for people who had Black supervisors: the more prejudiced supervisors were perceived to be, the more benefits of claiming were perceived,  $\beta = .31$ ,  $p < .01$ . Put differently, at low levels of perceived supervisor prejudice, participants perceived more benefits of claiming to a nonBlack vs.



Black supervisor,  $\beta = -.19, p = .04$ ; however, at high levels of perceived prejudice, participants perceived greater benefits of claiming to a Black vs. nonBlack supervisor,  $\beta = .41, p < .001$ . See Table 3 and Figure 1.

Table 3

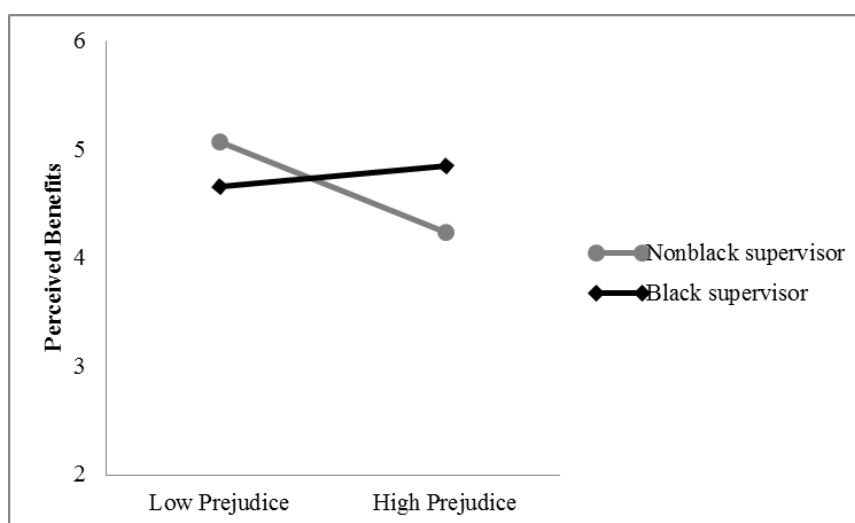
*Standardized coefficients for benefits of confronting from regression analysis in Study 1*

Predictor	Benefits of confronting
Step 1	
Supervisor gender	-.05
Supervisor prejudice	-.08
Participant gender	-.10
Supervisor race	.09
Experienced discrimination	-.14
Step 2	
Supervisor gender	-.05
Supervisor prejudice	-.32**
Participant gender	-.05
Supervisor race	.11
Experienced discrimination	-.15*
Supervisor prejudice x Supervisor race	.39**

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ ; all coefficients displayed are  $\beta$ 's.

Figure 1

*Perceived benefits of claiming discrimination as a function of perceived supervisor prejudice and supervisor race in Study 1*



## Study 1 Discussion

Study 1 did not provide support for the mediational model that the effect of a leader's gender on followers' discrimination-claiming behavior is mediated by followers' perceptions of how racially prejudiced the leader is. While participants did perceive their female supervisors to be less prejudiced than participants perceived their male supervisors to be, if anything, discrimination-claiming outcomes were better when participants had a male vs. female supervisor. Specifically, while supervisor gender did not influence participants' claiming behavior or perceptions of the benefits of claiming discrimination, participants reported that they would be *less* comfortable claiming discrimination when they had a female vs. male supervisor and that they perceived greater costs of claiming discrimination when they had a female vs. male supervisor. Potential explanations for this finding that was contrary to predictions will be further discussed in the General Discussion, but it is possible that participants viewed their male supervisors as being better able to deal with the discrimination claim due to perceived status or power at the organization.

The effects of perceived supervisor prejudice were largely in line with the prediction that viewing one's supervisor as low in prejudice would lead to better discrimination-claiming outcomes. While perceived supervisor prejudice did not influence frequency of claiming behavior over the past year, viewing one's supervisor as low in prejudice did lead participants to feel more comfortable claiming discrimination, perceive fewer costs and greater benefits of claiming discrimination.

Furthermore, the effect of perceived supervisor prejudice on benefits of claiming was moderated by supervisor race such that the predicted effect only emerged when

participants had a nonBlack supervisor; when participants had a Black supervisor, they actually perceived greater benefits reporting to a more prejudiced supervisor. One reason for this finding might be that reporting on how prejudiced against Black Americans you think your Black supervisor is might just be an odd experience for Black participants. This finding seems to make more intuitive sense when probing the interaction at levels of perceived prejudice: participants reported that they perceive greater benefits reporting to a Black vs. nonBlack supervisor when the supervisor was perceived as high in prejudice, but reported greater benefits reporting to a nonBlack supervisor than a Black supervisor when perceived prejudice was low. Thus, when dealing with a prejudiced supervisor, participants see more benefits reporting to the ingroup, but when reporting to a nonprejudiced supervisor, participants see more benefits reporting to a nonBlack (White) supervisor who may be perceived as having higher status and/or power than Black supervisors at their organizations.

Study 1 also demonstrated that experienced discrimination had a reliable influence on discrimination-claiming outcomes. As depicted in Tables 2 and 3, the more discrimination participants reported experiencing in the past year, the more that they reported claiming discrimination in the past year. Thus, the more opportunities people had to report discrimination, the more that they did so. Furthermore, the more discrimination participants reported experiencing, the greater perceived costs they associated with claiming discrimination in terms of how their direct supervisor would view them and fewer benefits in terms of things getting better for them in the workplace. Thus, for Black employees in Study 1, the experience of claiming discrimination appears

to be a negative experience that does seem to be worth the risk—and this assessment appears to be based on their actual experience with claiming discrimination.

In sum, Study 1 did not provide support for the indirect effect of leader gender on discrimination outcomes through perceived leader prejudice. Because of the correlational nature of this study and extraneous variables such as supervisor race, Study 2 tests the predicted model using an experimental design, holding race of the supervisor constant as White. Thus, Study 2 provides control over leaders' race, allowing for the examination differences in discrimination outcomes for Blacks with White female vs. White male leaders, the primary interest of this research.

## **Study 2**

Study 2 manipulated the gender of the leader that participants were exposed to and asked them to imagine reporting an instance of racial discrimination. Participants were then asked to indicate how likely they would be to claim discrimination, how comfortable they would feel claiming, and the perceived costs and benefits of claiming discrimination.

### **Study 2 Method**

**Participants and design.** One hundred and sixty individuals who identified as Black/African American participated in this study for a small monetary reward. Of these 160 participants, 11 people who took less than 5 minutes to complete the study and 15 people who incorrectly identified the gender of their leader were removed from analyses. Of the remaining 134 participants, 64 were men and 70 were women with a mean age of 40.08 (ranging from 22 to 66 years old). The design of Study 2 was a 2-group between-subjects design where participants were randomly assigned to read about a female leader

or male leader. As in Study 1, participants in Study 2 were recruited through Qualtrics if they met the following qualifications: Black/African American, over 18 years old, currently holding a full-time job, and had not participated in Study 1.

**Procedure.** Participant recruitment was identical to Study 1: Qualified individuals who chose to participate did so by clicking a hyperlink directing them to the study supported by Qualtrics.com. Participants first read the consent form (Appendix K) before beginning the study. Participants then read the cover story, namely that the researchers were interested in how employees in the U.S. perceive and respond to potential issues that occur in the workplace. Participants then read a description telling them that the study would consist of them reading one of several scenarios involving hypothetical employees of a business and were informed that the researchers were interested in their perceptions and reactions of the scenario.

Next, participants were given organizational information about the company, held constant across conditions, and a description of the manager of company, who was depicted as either a woman or man, depending on leader gender condition (Appendix L). After reading about the company and the manager, participants were presented with a hypothetical workplace issue that occurred at the company in which a White employee made a racially derogatory comment about a Black employee: “I should’ve known that I would have to do all the work on this project...people like you are just too lazy to get any good work done” (Appendix M). A pilot test of 31 Black Americans revealed that this comment was perceived as 1) racially prejudiced,  $M = 5.80$ ,  $SD = 1.10$ ,  $t(30) = 9.10$ ,  $p < .001$ , and 2) believable that a White person would make this type of comment,  $M = 5.34$ ,  $SD = 1.45$ ,  $t(30) = 5.13$ ,  $p < .001$ , as compared to the midpoint of 4.00 on a 7-point

Likert-type scale. The gender of the White employee who made the derogatory comment was matched to the participant's gender. Next, participants were asked to fill out several measures assessing their perceptions and reactions to the scenario depicted. Lastly, participants read debriefing information about the details of the study (Appendix N).

**Measures.** Before completing the primary outcome measures, participants were asked to write about the scenario in an open-ended format to ensure that participants read and understood the information presented to them, as well as a manipulation check. Next, participants were asked to imagine how they might feel and respond to the situation described if they were the Black employee described in scenario. Finally, participants completed a potential control measure and demographic information.

**Manipulation check.** As a manipulation check, participants were asked whether the manager of the company they read about was a woman, man, or if they are unsure.

**Outcome measures.** Participants completed measures assessing the perceived prejudice of the manager, as well as discrimination-claiming outcomes.

*Perceived prejudice of manager.* Participants completed the same measure of perceived prejudice used in Study 1 to assess how prejudiced against Blacks they imagined the manager described in the scenario to be. Specifically, participants responded to the adapted version of McConahay's (1986) Modern Racism scale ( $\alpha = .87$ ). Participants were given the following instructions: "Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you would think that **the manager described in the scenario** would agree or disagree with the following items." See Appendix D.

*Discrimination-claiming outcomes.* As in Study 1, the primary dependent variables assessed in Study 2 were related to making discrimination claims in the

workplace: discrimination-claiming behavior ( $\alpha = .74$ ; Appendix E), comfort with claiming discrimination ( $\alpha = .82$ ; Appendix F), and the perceived costs ( $\alpha = .89$ ) and benefits ( $\alpha = .94$ ) of claiming discrimination (Appendix G and H). For these measures, participants were given instructions to imagine that they were the Black employee in the scenario they were presented with previously. Specifically, the instructions asked participants to “Please imagine that you were Andre (or Andrea)” for each item of these scales.

***Attributions to discrimination.*** Because participants may vary in the extent to which they attribute the behavior of the White employee to discrimination, we assessed attributions to discrimination as a potential control variable using a 3-item scale adapted from past research ( $\alpha = .95$ ; O’Brien, Major, & Simon, 2012; Simon, Kinias, O’Brien, & Bivolaru, 2013). Items were answered on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). See Appendix O.

***Personal demographics.*** Finally, participants completed demographic information to ensure their race and assess other potential control variables (i.e., gender). See Appendix B.

## Study 2 Results

Table 4

*Means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables in Study 2*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Supervisor gender	.47	.50	--	-.04	-.09	-.12	-.06	-.02
2. Supervisor prejudice	3.45	1.57		--	.15	.06	.36**	.15
3. Likelihood of claiming	4.85	1.46			--	.76**	.02	.47**
4. Comfort claiming	5.07	1.53				--	-.14	.50**
5. Costs claiming	3.84	1.59					--	-.11
6. Benefits claiming	4.68	1.50						--

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ .

**Preliminary analyses.** I conducted a manipulation check to identify if any participants indicated the incorrect gender of their leader in either condition. Responses on the manipulation check revealed that 9 participants indicated a male leader in the female leader condition, 6 participants indicated a female leader, and 1 participant indicated unknown in the male leader condition. Thus, a total of 15 people were unable to correctly identify the gender of their leader and were removed from analyses.

**Hypothesis testing.** Because there were no significant effects of leader gender on perceived prejudice ( $F < 1$ ), I was unable to test the predicted mediational model. In place of the planned analyses, I conducted hierarchical regression analyses with leader gender and perceived leader prejudice as predictors of claiming outcomes. The original predictions were maintained from the mediational model that participants would demonstrate more positive claiming-outcomes when exposed to a female vs. male leader and that the more prejudiced that leaders are perceived to be, the less positive claiming outcomes would be.

In these analyses, the two predictors, leader gender, perceived leader prejudice (centered), as well as the two covariates (participant gender and ATDs), were entered at Step 1. As in Study 1, if significant interactions emerged between predictor variables and covariates emerged, they were retained in Step 2. See Table 4 for means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables in Study 2.

**Likelihood of claiming behavior.** The regression model at Step 1 was significant,  $R^2 = .12$ ,  $F(4, 129) = 5.34$ ,  $p < .001$ . However, the effect of leader gender was nonsignificant,  $\beta = -.06$ ,  $p = .45$ , and the effect of perceived leader prejudice was also nonsignificant,  $\beta = .12$ ,  $p = .13$ . Step 2 was also significant,  $\Delta R^2 = .04$ ,  $\Delta F(4, 125) =$



6.86,  $p < .01$ . At Step 2, the effect of perceived supervisor prejudice was significant but in the opposite direction as predicted: The more prejudiced supervisors were perceived to be, the more likely participants reported they would claim discrimination,  $\beta = .18$ ,  $p = .03$ . However, this effect was qualified by a significant interaction between perceived supervisor prejudice and ATDs,  $\beta = -.22$ ,  $p = .01$ . This interaction revealed that when ATDs were low (i.e., 1 standard deviation below the mean), participants were less likely to claim discrimination to a low prejudiced leader,  $\beta = .39$ ,  $p < .01$ ; however, when ATDs were high (i.e., 1 standard deviation above the mean), claims of discrimination were unrelated to the leader's perceived prejudice level,  $\beta = -.02$ ,  $p = .80$ . See Table 5 and Figure 2.

Table 5

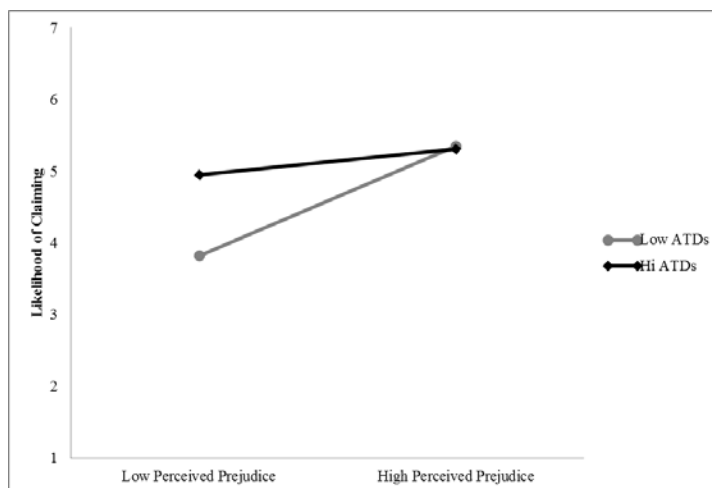
*Standardized coefficients for likelihood of claiming behavior from regression analysis in Study 2*

Predictor	Likelihood of claiming
Step 1	
Leader gender	-.06
Leader prejudice	.12
Participant gender	-.17*
ATDs	.31**
Step 2	
Leader gender	-.05
Leader prejudice	.18*
Participant gender	-.18*
ATDs	.34**
Prejudice X ATDs	-.22*

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ ; all coefficients displayed are  $\beta$ 's.

Figure 2

*Likelihood of claiming discrimination as a function of perceived supervisor prejudice and attributions to discrimination in Study 2*



**Comfort with claiming.** The regression model at Step 1 was significant,  $R^2 = .08$ ,  $F(4, 129) = 4.04$ ,  $p < .01$ . However, this was largely due to the relationships between covariates and comfort because the effect of leader gender was nonsignificant,  $\beta = -.08$ ,  $p = .32$ , and the effect of perceived leader prejudice was also nonsignificant,  $\beta = .04$ ,  $p = .62$ . See Table 6.

**Costs of claiming.** The regression model at Step 1 was significant,  $R^2 = .12$ ,  $F(4, 129) = 5.71$ ,  $p < .001$ . While the effect of leader gender was nonsignificant,  $\beta = -.05$ ,  $p = .55$ , the effect of perceived leader prejudice was significant,  $\beta = .35$ ,  $p < .001$ , revealing that participants perceived greater costs related to claiming to a prejudiced supervisor. See Table 6.

**Benefits of claiming.** The regression model at Step 1 was significant,  $R^2 = .05$ ,  $F(4, 129) = 2.66$ ,  $p = .04$ . Again, this was most likely due to the relationships between covariates and benefits because the effect of leader gender was nonsignificant,  $\beta = .002$ ,  $p$

= .98, and the effect of perceived leader prejudice was also nonsignificant,  $\beta = .14$ ,  $p = .11$ . See Table 6.

Table 6

*Standardized coefficients for comfort claiming, costs, and benefits of confronting from regression analyses in Study 2*

Predictor	Comfort claiming	Costs claiming	Benefits confronting
Leader gender	-.08	-.05	.002
Leader prejudice	.04	.35**	.14
Participant gender	-.26*	.06	-.20*
ATDs	.20*	.12	.14

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ ; all coefficients displayed are  $\beta$ 's.

### Study 2 Discussion

Study 2 provided very little support for the hypothesized model. Participants viewed the White male and female leader as equally prejudiced and had the same predicted claiming outcomes when imagining claiming discrimination to a White male vs. female leader. Furthermore, in Study 2, there was little evidence that perceived prejudice level of one's leader influenced claiming outcomes, with the exception that participants imagined that there would be greater costs of claiming discrimination the more prejudiced they perceived their leader to be. Interestingly, participants reported that they were *more* likely to claim discrimination the more prejudiced they thought their leader was. However, this effect was qualified by an interaction between perceived leader prejudice and attributions to discrimination such that participants were only *unlikely* to say they would claim discrimination when they did not perceive much discrimination and when they perceived their leader as low in prejudice.

Study 2 demonstrated that participant gender and attributions to discrimination had a reliable influence on discrimination-claiming outcomes. As depicted in Tables 5

and 6, men in this study were more likely to predict that they would claim discrimination, that they would be more comfortable claiming discrimination, and that there would be greater benefits of claiming discrimination than women. Furthermore, the greater attributions to discrimination that participants made for the event described in the study, the more likely they were to predict that they would claim discrimination and feel comfortable claiming discrimination.

While both participant gender and ATDs proved to be important covariates, the lack of effect of perceived leader prejudice on discrimination-claiming outcomes fails to replicate results from Study 1. Furthermore, the lack of effect of leader gender on perceived leader prejudice also fails to replicate Study 1's findings. Because participants were randomly assigned to read about a female or male leader, it is possible that without enough context, participants did not differentiate between prejudice-level as they did in Study 1 where participants who actually worked for female supervisors perceived them as less prejudiced than participants who worked for male supervisors. Thus, in Study 3, I manipulated the level of prejudice the leader is believed to have. Additionally, it is possible that Study 2 did not engage participants enough in the situation because they were imagining that they were someone else who had experienced discrimination. Study 3 addresses this issue by placing participants in a situation where they actually experience racial discrimination in the workplace.

### **Study 3**

The purpose of Study 3 was to provide further support of the causal relationship between leader gender, perceived leader prejudice, and Black American's discrimination-reporting behavior. Specifically, rather than measuring the proposed mediator (i.e., perceived leader prejudice), Study 3 uses an experimental-causal-chain design (Spencer,

Zanna, & Fong, 2005) and manipulates the perceived prejudice level of a leader in a high impact laboratory study with Black Americans.

Furthermore, Study 3 explored whether perceptions of leader's values might be another possible mediator between leader gender and discrimination-claiming outcomes, in addition to perceived prejudice. As noted in the Introduction, women tend to be higher in values of benevolence and universalism than men are (Eagly, Gartzia, & Carli, 2014; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005). These gender differences could also relate to perceptions of women as more socially responsible leaders than men if these values are reflected in leaders' behaviors in the context of diversity. For example, the representation of women on corporate boards is related to more positive social outcomes and greater corporate responsibility, and less unethical business practices (e.g., Bouluta, 2012). Thus, Black employees may perceive female leaders as more likely than male leaders to promote the welfare of minorities who are treated in a discriminatory manner in the workplace. While these values are likely to be related to perceived leader prejudice, leader values may be a stronger predictor of discrimination claiming than leader prejudice. Study 3 explores this possibility by assessing participants' perceptions of their leaders' values.

### **Study 3 Method**

**Participants and design.** Participants were 102 Black Americans attending college in the Greater New Orleans Region<sup>3</sup>. Participants were recruited to participate in an hour long study in exchange for \$20 at several local colleges and universities. Based on an online qualifying survey (see Appendix P), participants who self-identified as Black/African American, attending college full-time, and between the ages of 18 and 24 were invited to participate in the study via email. Participants reported that they were

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<sup>3</sup> Data collection from an additional 20-30 participants will take place during Summer 2015.

students at Tulane University ( $N = 20$ ), Loyola University ( $N = 16$ ), Xavier University of Louisiana ( $N = 64$ ), and University of New Orleans ( $N = 2$ ).

Of the 102 participants, 8 people were excluded from the sample: 1 person was excluded because she was not a full time student, 1 person was excluded for failing to correctly identify the race of the leader as White, and 6 people were excluded because they were more than 2.5 standard deviations below the mean of attributions to discrimination ( $M = 5.52$ ,  $SD = 1.69$ ), indicating that they strongly disagreed that discrimination occurred in the event that took place in this study described in the procedures. The remaining 94 consisted of 18 males and 76 females whose mean age was 19.72 (ranging from 18-24 years old). The design of Study 3 was a 2 (Leader Gender: Woman or Man) X 3 (Prejudice-Level: High, Unknown, or Low) between-subjects design.

**Procedure and measures.** In Study 3, participants engaged in an organizational simulation paradigm adapted from Leslie and Gelfand (2008, Study 1) and Major and colleagues (2002, Study 2). When arriving to the lab, participants were greeted by 1 of 5 White experimenters who also served as the “manager” in the task. The experimenter was either 1 of 2 females or 1 of 3 males, depending on randomly assigned leader gender condition. A White confederate, the same gender as the participant, arrived to the lab as well, posing as another participant. The five White experimenters, as well as two additional research assistants (1 male and 1 female), all served as possible confederates in this study. While neither experimenters nor confederates were blind to the leader gender condition, all were blind to the leader prejudice condition and blind to the study’s hypotheses.

The experimenter brought both the participant and confederate into the lab to read and sign the consent form (see Appendix Q) and explain the purpose of the study. Through a rigged chance drawing, the true participant was assigned to the role of an associate at a consulting firm given the opportunity to apply for the role of co-manager, and the confederate was always assigned to the role of a human resources (HR) representative who was responsible for making the promotion decision. In order to increase the psychological engagement of the simulation, participants were told that all participants chosen as co-managers would have the chance of winning \$100; in actuality, all participants will be entered into the lottery after data collection is complete, since the true participant is never promoted to be co-manager.

Participants were given background information about the company and the manager (Appendix R) and about ten minutes to read over this information. Within these materials was the leader prejudice-level manipulation. Specifically, there was a section with an article published in *Business Biweekly* submitted by the manager entitled “The Truth about Discrimination and Diversity.” This article was written by adapting statements from Katz and Hass’ (1988) Pro- and Anti-Black Attitudes Scale in order to portray the manager as prejudiced or nonprejudiced. In the no information condition, this article was omitted. The same pilot test reported in Study 2 also revealed that participants rated the article as significantly more racially prejudiced in the prejudiced ( $M = 4.82, SD = 1.58$ ) than nonprejudiced condition ( $M = 2.57, SD = 1.29$ );  $F(1, 28) = 35.20, p < .001, d = 1.65$ .

Participants also read additional statements from employees describing the manager as prejudiced or nonprejudiced. In the prejudiced condition, the statement said,

“The manager has virtually created a ‘Whites only’ club. For example, the manager gives a lot more extra help and advice to White employees than Black employees” and in the nonprejudiced condition, the statement said, “The manager is accessible to everyone. For example, the manager makes sure to give just as much extra help and advice to racial minority employees as he/she does to White employees.” In the control condition, the statements were omitted. The same pilot test reported above also revealed that participants rated these statements as significantly more racially prejudiced in the prejudiced ( $M = 6.02$ ,  $SD = 1.16$ ) than nonprejudiced condition ( $M = 2.70$ ,  $SD = 1.21$ );  $F(1, 29) = 89.71$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 2.80$ .

Next, participants received an application to fill out for the promotion (Appendix S). The application materials consisted of a background information sheet, a personal statement, and a series of scenarios asking participants to make organizational decisions (Leslie & Gelfand, 2008, Study 1). Participants were given about 10 minutes to complete the application. After the 10 minutes were over, the experimenter gave the application to the HR representative (i.e., the White confederate) in order for him/her to make a hiring decision. While the HR representative was ostensibly making the promotion decision in another room, participants began filling out organizational forms. Included in these forms was a grievance form that participants were able to use to file an organizational grievance if they chose to do so after they found out that they were rejected for the promotion (Appendix T).

After 5 minutes, the HR representative (i.e., White confederate) returned to the participant’s room and delivered his/her promotion decision to the experimenter saying “Here is my promotion decision” before being instructed by the experimenter to wait in



the other room. The promotion decision listed the name of the participant with a hand-written comment that read “Promotion Denied” next to the name. Hand-written comments also appeared under “General Comments” that read that participant “did not come across well on the application. I would be more likely to select someone for the role of co-manager who is more like me because I don’t think I work well with that type of student—they tend not to work hard” (Appendix U). In the pilot test, Black American perceived these comments as 1) racially prejudiced,  $M = 4.98$ ,  $SD = 1.48$ ,  $t(30) = 3.69$ ,  $p < .001$ , and 2) believable that a White person would make this type of comment,  $M = 5.45$ ,  $SD = 1.24$ ,  $t(30) = 6.47$ ,  $p < .001$ , as compared to the midpoint of 4.00 on a 7-point Likert-type scale. Each participant received the same discriminatory feedback and was given a few minutes to read it.

The experimenter returned to the participant to collect the promotion form and instructed participants to continue to fill out the organizational forms. At this point, participants had the opportunity to report the discrimination orally to the female or male experimenter. This served as the first measure of discrimination-claiming behavior (oral reporting). While continuing to fill out the organizational forms, participants also had the opportunity to report the discrimination in written form by filling out a grievance form. This served as the second measure of discrimination-claiming behavior (written reporting).

After participants finished filling out the organization forms, they completed a final questionnaire assessing their discrimination-claiming outcomes: comfort with claiming discrimination (Appendix F), and their perceived costs (Appendix G) and benefits (Appendix H) of claiming discrimination. Additionally, they answered questions

assessing their attributions to discrimination for the promotion decision (Appendix O), their perceptions of their leader's values (Appendix V), and two manipulation checks, one for each condition: perceived leader prejudice (Appendix D) and leader gender. Then, participants were thoroughly debriefed (Appendix W) and were asked to indicate on a post-study decision form whether or not the researchers will be able to use their data in analyses (Appendix X). Lastly, participants were asked to fill out a payment receipt (Appendix Y) for the \$20 they received.

***Discrimination-claiming outcomes.*** In addition to the oral and written accounts of reporting discrimination which were both coded as 0 (did not report) and 1 (did report), measures of attributions to discrimination ( $\alpha = .94$ ), comfort with reporting discrimination ( $\alpha = .81$ ), and perceived costs ( $\alpha = .94$ ) and benefits ( $\alpha = .93$ ) of claiming discrimination were the same as Study 1 and Study 2 with modified instructions pertaining to Study 3's paradigm (see Appendices H, I, J, and T for modified instructions to items).

***Leader values.*** Participant indicated the extent to which they thought their manager had values of benevolence and universalism using 10-items from Schwartz, Melech, Lehmann, Burgess, Harris, and Owens' (2001) Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ) using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all like him/her) to 7 (very much like him/her);  $\alpha = .89$ . See Appendix V.

***Manipulation checks.*** In the final questionnaire, participants responded to two manipulation checks.

*Gender manipulation check.* Participants were asked to indicate whether the manager was female or male. All participants correctly identified the gender of the manager.

*Prejudiced manipulation check.* Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they think the manager was prejudiced with three items used to assess perceived modern racism, modified to refer to the manager instead of supervisor (see Appendix D). The three items used were: 1) To what extent do you think your manager would agree that Whites and Blacks have equal opportunities? 2) To what extent do you think your manager would agree that Blacks still lose out on jobs because of their skin color? (r) and 3) To what extent do you think your manager would agree that Blacks no longer experience discrimination? ( $\alpha = .90$ ).

### Study 3 Results

Table 7

*Means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables in Study 3*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Manager prejudice	4.09	2.07	--	-.59**	-.05	.17	.19	.58**	-.10
2. Manager values	3.96	1.17		--	-.03	-.09	-.12	-.48**	.22*
3. Oral claiming	.33	.47			--	.37**	.51**	-.24*	.17
4. Written claiming	.69	.46				--	.37**	.10	.06
5. Comfort claiming	4.62	1.60					--	-.13	.20*
6. Costs claiming	4.65	1.77						--	-.41**
7. Benefits claiming	3.53	1.39							--

*Note.* \* $p \leq .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$

### Manipulation tests.

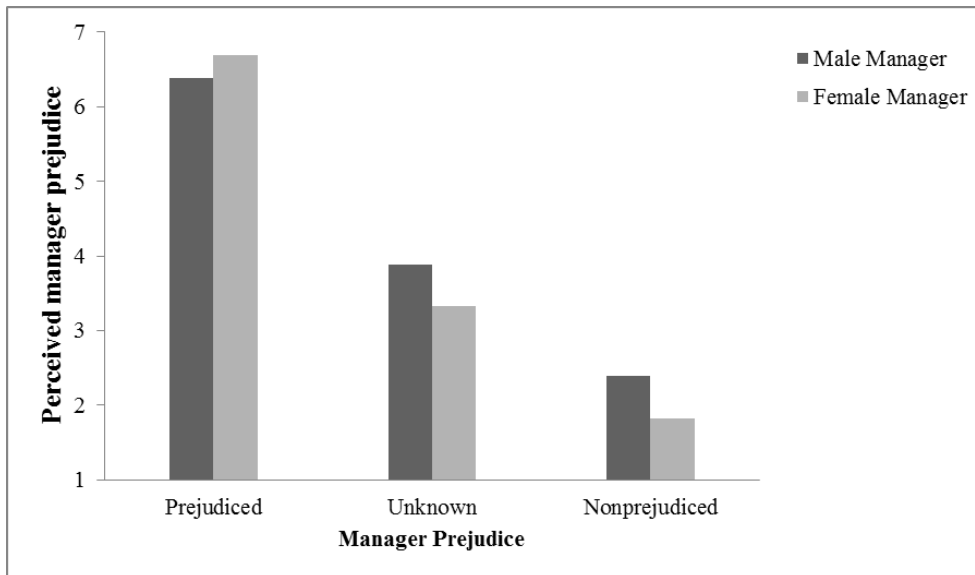
*Perceived manager prejudice.* I conducted a two-way ANOVA with manager prejudice (prejudiced, unknown, nonprejudiced) and manager gender (male vs. female) as the independent variables on perceived prejudice to ensure participants in the prejudiced

condition reported greater perceived manager prejudice than participants in the nonprejudiced condition. The ANOVA revealed no main effect of manager gender,  $F(1, 76) = 1.83, p = .18$ , but a main effect of the prejudice manipulation,  $F(2, 76) = 177.79, p < .001$ . Tukey's posthoc tests revealed significant mean differences between each level of the prejudice manipulation ( $p$ 's  $< .001$ ) such that in the nonprejudiced condition, participants perceived managers to be less prejudiced ( $M = 2.16, SD = 1.15$ ) than managers in the prejudiced condition ( $M = 6.54, SD = .72$ ) and managers in the unknown condition ( $M = 3.60, SD = .78$ ). Furthermore, the difference between managers in the prejudiced and unknown condition was also significant.

I had expected a significant interaction between gender of manager and prejudice-level of manager such that men would only be perceived as more prejudiced than women in the control condition. While this interaction was marginally significant,  $F(2, 76) = 2.16, p = .12$ , the predicted pattern of means emerged (see Figure 3). Contrast tests revealed that, within the prejudiced leader condition, male and female managers were perceived similarly,  $F < 1$ ; within the nonprejudiced condition, male and female managers were also perceived similarly,  $F(1, 76) = 2.76, p = .10$ . Within the unknown condition, male managers ( $M = 3.89, SD = .74$ ) were perceived as slightly more prejudiced than female managers ( $M = 3.33, SD = .73$ ),  $F(1, 76) = 2.42, p = .12$ ; however, this difference did not reach significance, contrary to predictions. See Table 7 for means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables in Study 3.

Figure 3

*Perceived manager prejudice as a function of manager gender and manager prejudice in Study 3*



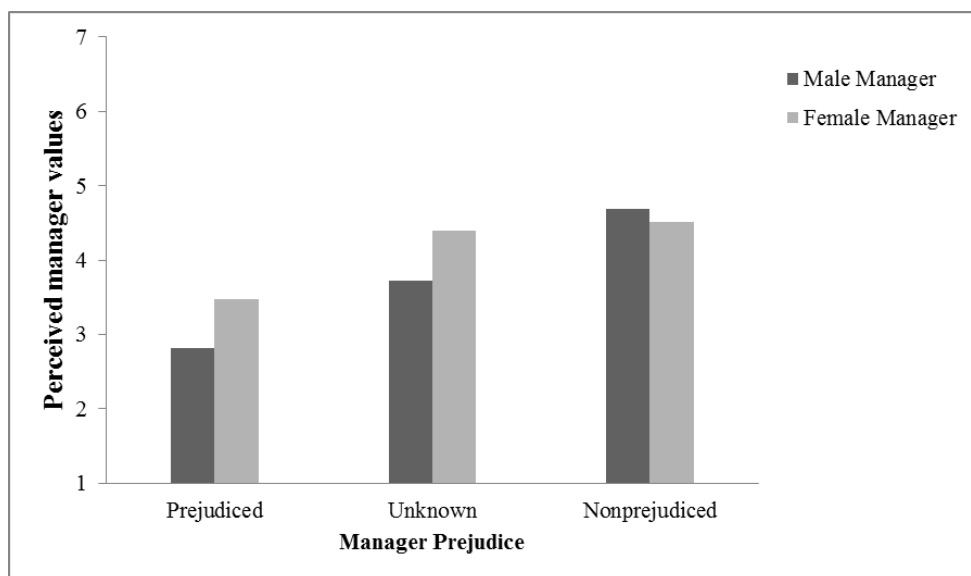
**Manager values.** To explore whether or not the prejudice manipulation also resulted in a change in the perceived humanitarian values held by male and female leaders, I also conducted a two-way ANOVA on perceived manager values. This analysis revealed a marginal main effect of manager gender,  $F(1, 88) = 3.41, p = .07$ , revealing that participants perceived their female managers ( $M = 4.09, SD = 1.04$ ) to hold more humanitarian values than they perceived of their male leaders ( $M = 3.84, SD = 1.26$ ). A significant effect of manager prejudice emerged,  $F(2, 88) = 17.47, p < .001$ , revealing that the prejudice manipulation also affected the values their managers were perceived to hold important. Tukey's posthoc tests revealed that, compared to managers in the prejudiced condition ( $M = 3.15, SD = 1.07$ ), participants perceived managers to be more humanitarian ( $M = 4.62, SD = .99$ ) in the nonprejudiced condition,  $p < .001$ , and in the unknown condition ( $M = 4.07, SD = .95$ ),  $p < .01$ . Furthermore, participants

perceived managers to be slightly more humanitarian in the nonprejudiced vs. unknown condition,  $p = .07$ .

The interaction between manager gender and manager prejudice was not significant,  $F(2, 88) = 1.90, p = .16$ . Although the interaction did not reach significance, the predicted pattern of results emerged (see Figure 4), and I used contrasts to test my hypothesis that differences between male and female managers would only emerge in the unknown condition. In the prejudiced condition, male managers ( $M = 2.82, SD = .98$ ) were seen as having slightly lower humanitarian values than female managers ( $M = 3.47, SD = 1.09$ ),  $F(1, 88) = 3.37, p = .07$ ; in the nonprejudiced condition, male and female managers were seen similarly,  $F < 1$ , and in the unknown condition, male managers ( $M = 3.73, SD = .87$ ) were perceived as having somewhat less humanitarian values than female managers ( $M = 4.40, SD = .93$ ),  $F(1, 88) = 3.45, p = .07$ .

Figure 4

*Perceived manager values as a function of manager gender and manager prejudice in Study 3*



In addition to differences in perceived leader values based on prejudice condition, Table 7 reveals important correlates of perceived leader values. Specifically, perceived leader values is significantly correlated with perceived leader prejudice ( $r = -.59, p < .001$ ), as well as perceived costs ( $r = -.48, p < .001$ ) and perceived benefits ( $r = .22, p = .03$ ) of claiming discrimination.

### **Hypothesis testing.**

**Oral reporting.** Manager gender, manager prejudice, and the interaction between manager gender and manager prejudice were included as categorical predictors in a binary logistic regression analysis in which the dependent variable was orally reporting discrimination (0 = did not orally report, 1 = did orally report). Overall, 33% of participants orally reported discrimination to their manager. Neither gender of the manager, Wald = .16,  $p = .69$ , prejudice-level of the manager, Wald = .56,  $p = .76$ , nor the predicted interaction between manager gender and manager prejudice, Wald = 54,  $p = .76$ , had a significant effect on orally reporting discrimination. See Table 8.

**Written reporting.** As with oral reporting, manager gender, manager prejudice, and the interaction between manager gender and manager prejudice were included as categorical predictors in a binary logistic regression analysis in which the dependent variable was written reporting (0 = did not file a written claim, 1 = did file a written claim). Overall, 69% of participants filed a written report claiming discrimination. The manager's prejudice level significantly predicted written reporting, Wald = 6.29,  $p = .04$ . Contrary to predictions, participants who had a prejudiced manager had higher odds of filing a written report than participants who had a manager whose prejudice was unknown,  $B = 2.84, SE = 1.16, Wald = 6.05, p = .01, Exp(B) = 17.14$ . Participants who

had a manager whose prejudice was unknown had equal odds of filing a written report as participants who had a nonprejudiced manager,  $B = .94$ ,  $SE = .79$ ,  $Wald = 1.42$ ,  $p = .23$ ,  $Exp(B) = 2.57$ . Gender of the manager,  $B = .54$ ,  $SE = .74$ ,  $Wald = .53$ ,  $p = .47$ ,  $Exp(B) = 1.71$ , and the predicted interaction between manager gender and manager prejudice,  $Wald = 2.57$ ,  $p = .28$ , did not have a significant effect on written reporting. See Table 8.

Table 8

*Oral and written discrimination reporting to nonprejudiced, unknown prejudice, and prejudiced managers in Study 3*

		<u>Nonprejudiced</u>		<u>Unknown</u>		<u>Prejudiced</u>	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Oral	Male	.35	.49	.33	.49	.27	.46
	Female	.38	.51	.27	.46	.37	.50
	Total	.36	.49	.30	.47	.32	.48
Written	Male	.70	.47	.68	.51	.73	.46
	Female	.69	.48	.70	.51	.94	.25
	Total	.70 <sub>a</sub>	.47	.69 <sub>a</sub>	.51	.84 <sub>b</sub>	.37

*Note.* Means represent the proportion of participants who claimed discrimination. For written reporting, means with different subscripts differ at  $p < .05$ .

**Comfort with claiming.** I conducted a two-way ANOVA on comfort with reporting discrimination. This analysis did not demonstrate support for predictions in that there was no main effect of manager gender,  $F(1, 88) = 1.43$ ,  $p = .24$ , manager prejudice,  $F(2, 88) = 2.08$ ,  $p = .13$ , and no significant interaction,  $F < 1$ . Thus, participants felt equally comfortable claiming discrimination regardless of their manager's gender, prejudice-level, or the interaction between the two.

**Costs.** Again, I conducted a two-way ANOVA on perceived costs of reporting discrimination. This analysis yielded a nonsignificant effect of manager gender,  $F(1, 88) = .57$ ,  $p = .45$ , but in line with predictions, a significant effect of manager prejudice,  $F(2, 88) = 13.07$ ,  $p < .001$ . Tukey's posthoc tests revealed significant mean differences

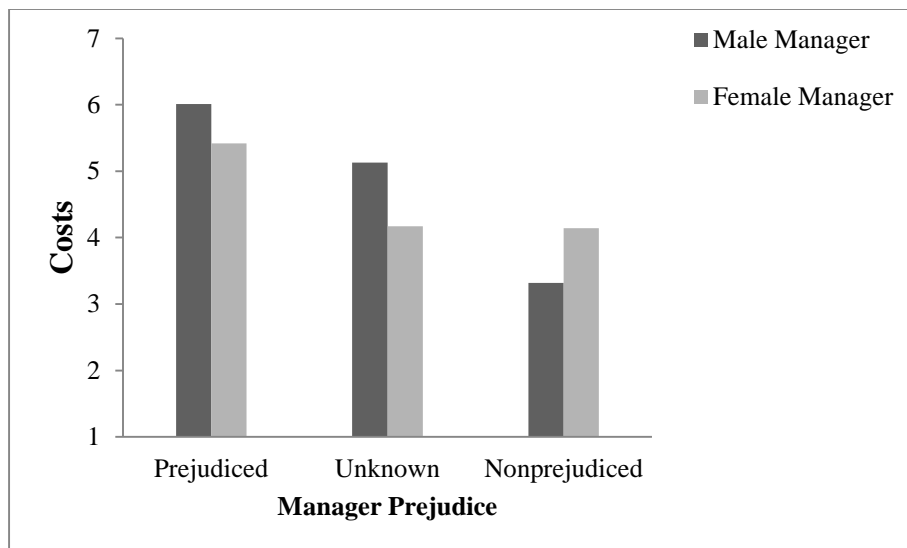


between each level of the prejudice manipulation ( $p$ 's  $< .05$ ), such that in the nonprejudiced condition, participants perceived fewer costs associated with claiming discrimination ( $M = 3.64$ ,  $SD = 1.54$ ) than participants in the unknown prejudice condition managers ( $M = 4.65$ ,  $SD = 1.74$ ) and participants in the prejudiced manager condition ( $M = 5.71$ ,  $SD = 1.41$ ). Furthermore, the perceived difference in costs between participants in the prejudiced and unknown condition was also significant.

This effect was qualified by the predicted interaction between manager gender and manager prejudice, which was marginally significant,  $F(2, 88) = 2.91$ ,  $p = .06$ ; see Figure 5. Contrast tests were conducted to test mean differences in perceived costs between participants who had a female vs. male leader at each level of prejudice (prejudiced, nonprejudiced, and unknown). As expected, perceived costs were not significantly different between male and female leaders in the prejudiced,  $F(1, 88) = 1.11$ ,  $p = .29$ , and nonprejudiced conditions,  $F(1, 88) = 2.26$ ,  $p = .14$ . In line with predictions, perceived costs of reporting to the male leader ( $M = 5.13$ ,  $SD = 1.36$ ) were slightly higher than for the female leader ( $M = 4.17$ ,  $SD = 1.98$ ) in the unknown prejudice condition,  $F(1, 88) = 2.96$ ,  $p < .08$ .

Figure 5

*Perceived costs of claiming discrimination as a function of manager gender and manager prejudice in Study 3*



**Benefits.** Lastly, I conducted a two-way ANOVA on perceived benefits of reporting discrimination. This analysis did not demonstrate support for predictions in that there was no main effect of manager gender, manager prejudice, and no significant interaction,  $F$ 's < 1. Thus, participants perceived the benefits of claiming discrimination to be the same regardless of their manager's gender, prejudice-level, or the interaction between the two.

### Study 3 Discussion

In Study 3, there was no support for the hypothesized model on participants' claiming behavior, either orally or in written form. In fact, the only significant effect that emerged was that the odds of participants filing a written report were greater when the manager was prejudiced compared to when the manager's prejudice level was unknown, which was contrary to predictions. Perhaps participants in this condition felt upset after reading that their manager was prejudiced and then were further angered by the

discriminatory treatment by the HR representative. It is possible that these two incidents of discrimination made participants in this condition more likely to report discrimination. Furthermore, although the form stated that the written complaint would be given to their (prejudiced) manager, it is possible that they thought the report would be seen by other employees in the organization who might take steps their manager may not be likely to take to rectify the injustice they experienced.

The strongest support of the hypothesized model comes from participants' perceptions of the costs of claiming discrimination to their manager. Study 3 revealed an interaction between manager's gender and manager's prejudice such that when managers were portrayed as prejudiced or nonprejudiced, perceived costs were similar, regardless of the manager's gender. However, when the manager's prejudice was unknown, participants perceived less costs associated with claiming to a female compared to male leader.

Interestingly, Study 3 also suggests that leaders' perceived values of benevolence and universalism may play a similar role as perceived prejudice in predicting whether targets of discrimination are likely to report unfair treatment to their leaders. Findings from Study 3 revealed that when participants perceived leaders as high in benevolence and universalism, they perceived fewer costs and greater benefits associated with claiming discrimination. Furthermore, the manipulation of leader's prejudice level influenced perceived leader values in the same direction as it influenced perceived leader prejudice. However, a gender difference between perceived leader values emerged independently of the prejudice manipulation such that female managers were seen as more humanitarian than male leaders, regardless of prejudice level. Thus, perceiving

one's leader as high in values that promote and protect their welfare may be particularly important for targets' perception that reporting discrimination will make the workplace better for them, and targets of discrimination may perceive female leaders as higher in these values than male leaders.

### **General Discussion**

Across three studies, the present research tested the hypothesized model that Blacks who were the target of racial discrimination would have better discrimination claiming outcomes (i.e., more likely to claim, more comfortable claiming, and would perceive fewer costs and more benefits associated with claiming) with a female vs. male leader because female leaders would be perceived as lower in racial prejudice than male leaders. Both Study 1 and Study 3 provided evidence supporting the hypothesis that Blacks view female leaders as less racially prejudiced than male leaders and all three studies provided some evidence that Blacks have better discrimination outcomes when they perceive their leader as lower in prejudice. However, only Study 3 provides modest support for the hypothesized model that perceived leader prejudice may lead to better discrimination claiming outcomes for female leaders as compared to male leaders.

Study 1, which employed a correlational study design with Black Americans who held full-time jobs, provided partial evidence for the model in that participants viewed their female supervisors as less prejudiced than their male supervisors. Furthermore, participants reported that they would feel more comfortable reporting discrimination and perceived fewer costs and more benefits associated with claiming discrimination the less prejudiced they perceived their supervisors to be. However, there was no indirect effect of supervisor gender on discrimination-claiming outcomes, and, in fact, participants

reported that they would feel *more* comfortable reporting to their male vs. female supervisors and perceived *fewer* costs associated with reporting to their male vs. female supervisors.

Study 2, an experimental study, had Black participants imagine they were employees at an organization where they had either a White female or White male manager (i.e., leader). Study 2 demonstrated very little support for the hypothesized model in that participants perceived the female and male managers as equally prejudiced and had similar discrimination-claiming outcomes, regardless of whether their manager was a female or male. Replicating the relationship between perceived leader prejudice and perceived costs of claiming in Study 1, Study 2 also demonstrated that the less prejudiced that participants perceived their manager to be, the fewer costs they associated with claiming discrimination. However, this was the only effect that Study 2 replicated from Study 1, and contrary to predictions, participants reported that the more prejudiced they perceived their manager to be, the *more* likely they would be to claim discrimination experienced in the workplace from a co-worker.

In Study 3, Black participants took part in an organizational simulation where they were randomly assigned to a White female vs. White male manager portrayed as either high in prejudice, low in prejudice, or whose prejudice level was unknown. Study 3 showed the strongest support for the hypothesized model in that the predicted interaction between manager gender and prejudice-level emerged on perceived costs of claiming discrimination. This interaction provided emerging evidence that claiming to female managers was perceived as less costly than claiming to male managers in the unknown condition, but equally costly when given information about the manager's

prejudice level. While these simple effects were not statistically significant, they provide preliminary evidence that the difference in perceived prejudice between female and male leaders may in part explain why claiming discrimination to a female leader would be perceived as less costly than claiming to a male leader.

However, this finding should be interpreted with caution, as no such interaction emerged for the other discrimination-claiming outcomes. In fact, participants had significantly *higher* odds of filing a written report of discrimination when they had a prejudiced manager compared to a manager whose prejudice level was unknown. While this finding is in the opposite direction as predicted, a similar effect emerged in Study 2 where there was a positive relation between perceived manager prejudice and participants' reported likelihood of claiming discrimination. Thus, it is possible that targets of discrimination are more likely to report their claims to more prejudiced leaders, perhaps because the leader's prejudice gives mounting evidence that the target is in a situation where discrimination is pervasive.

### **Implications**

The findings from this research have important implications for how leaders of organizations can help encourage employees to speak up when they experience discrimination in the workplace. All three studies showed at least some evidence that reporting to leaders low in prejudice was associated with better discrimination-claiming outcomes: participants reported that they would feel more comfortable reporting (Study 1), that they perceived fewer costs associated with claiming discrimination (Studies 1, 2, and 3) and greater benefits associated with claiming (Study 1) when they perceived their leader to be low in prejudice. Thus, these findings suggest that it is important for leaders

to show themselves to be nonprejudiced to minority employees in order to encourage better perceptions of discrimination-claiming outcomes.

Leaders can display their nonprejudiced ideals by employing a multicultural diversity strategy. Multiculturalism is a pluralistic ideology that advocates for equality by recognizing and celebrating group differences (Plaut, Thomas, & Goren, 2009). A leader using a multicultural approach might openly discuss group differences and the implications of these racial, ethnic, and cultural differences. Past research has shown that minority employees perceived less bias at their organization when White employees held multicultural ideologies (Plaut et al., 2009). Conversely, minority employees perceived more bias when White employees held colorblind ideologies, ignoring group differences. Thus, while White leaders may strategically ignore racial differences (i.e., colorblindness) in order to appear nonprejudiced (Apfelbaum, Sommers, & Norton, 2008), this strategy may lead minority employees to perceive their leaders as more prejudiced than if leaders had important conversations about group differences. Thus, employing multicultural strategies is not only important for minorities' psychological engagement at work (Plaut et al., 2009) but may also lead employees who experience discrimination at work to report this unfair treatment.

Ironically, the same diversity strategies that may make a leader seem nonprejudiced to minority employees may also make discrimination claims appear illegitimate. For example, research suggests that when organizations employ diversity structures (e.g., diversity training and diversity policies), members of high status groups perceive these organizations as fair, even when they clearly discriminate against employees. Furthermore, members of high status groups feel animosity toward

discrimination claimants when diversity policies are in place at the organization (Kaiser et al., 2013). Thus, while it is important for leaders to employ diversity structures in organizations that allow minority employees to see them as nonprejudiced, it is also important that these leaders follow through with fair procedures and justice when cases of discrimination arise.

While the present research provides some support that Black employees who were targets of racial discrimination may perceive female leaders as more likely to act in an egalitarian manner, there was little support for the hypothesis that people would be more likely to claim to women or to expect to have more favorable outcomes when claiming to women. One potential explanation is that, despite being viewed as less prejudiced, the female leaders may be viewed as less capable of rectifying the injustice caused by discrimination. More specifically, gender norms for women to be nonconfrontational and conflict avoidant, as well as to put the needs and opinions of others before their own (Swim, Eysell, Murdoch, & Ferguson, 2010) may lead targets of discrimination to doubt women's willingness to speak up on their behalf. While female leaders may not actually self-silence in the face of discrimination as women often do in the face of experiencing personal sexism (Swim et al., 2010), it is possible that perceivers nonetheless see them as conflict avoidant and nonconfrontational. In fact, as possible evidence of this explanation, Black participants in Study 1 reported great comfort and fewer costs associated with claiming discrimination to their male vs. female supervisors. In other words, even if women have a "leadership advantage" in terms of their ability to effectively handle discrimination claims, negative stereotypes about women in leadership



position may still disadvantage women compared to men in many leadership roles (Ayman, Korabik, & Morris, 2009; Eagly et al., 2014).

### **Limitations and Future Directions**

While the present research adds to the sparse empirical literature examining whether women may have a leadership advantage over men in certain situations, it is not without limitations. First, the present research was unable to test how gender of Black targets and race of leaders may influence Blacks' discrimination-claiming outcomes. Study 2 and Study 3 focused primarily on White leaders, and while Study 1 included leaders of different racial backgrounds, the study design did not allow for testing for the possibility of interactions between gender of Black employees and race of supervisors. The present research focused solely on White leaders in order to investigate discrimination-claiming as an intergroup phenomena (Stangor et al., 2002) with the predominant racial group in leadership positions (i.e., Whites); however, it will be important for future research to examine differences in discrimination-claiming outcomes when reporting to female and male Black leaders.

Black targets of discrimination may feel more comfortable reporting to a leader of the same gender as them. Specifically, because of ingroup favoritism, people may feel more comfortable and trust members of their own gender group over members of the gender outgroup, regardless of their perceived prejudice-level. However, because women are more likely to show ingroup bias for women than men are to show ingroup bias for men (e.g., Rudman & Goodwin, 2004), it is possible that only women would prefer to report to a female leader over a male leader due to an ingroup bias. While men generally do not show a preference in favor of men, they may still prefer to report discrimination to

a male leader, as seen in Study 1, because of men's higher perceived status, power, and competence compared to women (Rudman & Goodwin, 2004; Rudman, Greenwald, & McGhee, 2001).

Another limitation of the present research is that I focused predominantly on perceived leader prejudice as the proposed mechanism for why Blacks would be more willing to report racial discrimination to female over male leaders. However, it is possible that other mediators would better illuminate the possible leadership advantage afforded to women in diverse contexts. For example, as Study 3 suggests, individuals may perceive female leaders as being higher in values of benevolence and universalism than male leaders. While generally speaking Blacks who are targets of discrimination may have greater faith in male leaders to protect their welfare due to gender stereotypes previously discussed, targets may put more faith in women than men when they perceive a gender difference in these perceived values. While women may also be perceived as lower in racial prejudice than men, values may be a better predictor of perceived leaders' behavior (i.e., how will he/she respond to a discrimination claim). In order to more fully test whether or not women have a leadership advantage to men in contexts that are racially diverse, other possible mediators such as leaders' perceived values should be tested in addition to perceived leader prejudice.

## **Conclusion**

While women are vastly underrepresented in top-level leadership positions, differences in attitudes, values, and leadership styles may give women a leadership advantage over men in situations that call for greater amounts of social skill. Such situations may arise in organizations that have a lot of racial diversity where leaders may

have to manage employees of difference racial and ethnic groups. The present research sought to examine whether female leaders would be perceived to have an “advantage” to men in their ability to handle discrimination claims in an effective manner. Specifically, the present research examined whether Blacks would have claim discrimination more and have better discrimination-claiming attitudes in the presence of a female or male leader because women are perceived as lower in racial prejudice than men are.

Overall, the present research provided evidence that, regardless of gender, Blacks have positive claiming expectations to the extent that they perceive their leader to be low in prejudice. Thus, the present research suggests the importance of displaying nonprejudiced attitudes and behaviors in order to increase the frequency of discrimination reporting in an organization. While claimants may fear organizational minimization and retaliation in response to reporting discrimination, it is important for leaders of an increasingly diverse society to rectify the injustices experienced by racial minorities in the workplace and ensure the fair treatment of all employees.

## Appendix A

### Study 1 Consent Form

**Principal Investigator:** Stefanie Simon

**Study Title:** Workplace Culture and Attitudes

The following informed consent is required by Tulane University for any research study conducted by investigators at the University. This study has been reviewed by the University's Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects.

**Introduction** You are invited to participate in a research study to better understand people's workplace culture and attitudes. If you agree to participate, you will be asked demographic questions about yourself and your direct supervisor. You will also be asked questions about your experiences and attitudes regarding different workplace beliefs. If you decide to participate, you will click *continue* at the end of this form. If you decide not to participate, you can click *cancel participation*. You can print out a copy of this form for your records or you can contact the researcher to receive a copy. Your participation will last approximately 20 minutes.

**What are the risks?** The risks of participating in this study are minimal and are no greater than those experienced in everyday life. A possible inconvenience may be the time it takes to complete the study. We will take precautions to ensure that your responses remain completely anonymous.

**Will I receive payment?**

You will be compensated with a monetary payment through Qualtrics in the amount indicated on the invitation that you received to participate in this study. You will be paid automatically through Qualtrics for participating.

**Can I stop being in the study?** You do not have to be in this study if you do not want to. If you agree to be in the study, but later change your mind, you may drop out at any time. There are no penalties or consequences of any kind if you decide that you do not want to participate. If you decide that you would like to stop participation at any time, please click the 'exit survey' button. Also, please keep in mind that you do not have to answer any question that you do not want to answer.

**Who do I contact if I have questions?** If you have further questions about this study or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact the principal investigator, Stefanie Simon at [ssimon3@tulane.edu](mailto:ssimon3@tulane.edu), or Dr. Laurie O'Brien at [lobrien2@tulane.edu](mailto:lobrien2@tulane.edu). If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Tulane University Human Research Protection Office at 504-988-2665 or email at [irbmain@tulane.edu](mailto:irbmain@tulane.edu).

**Consent:** I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the research project described above. Its general purposes, the particulars of involvement and possible risks and inconveniences have been explained to my satisfaction. I understand that I can withdraw at any time. By clicking "Continue" I am indicating that I wish to begin participation in the study. (If you do not wish to continue, you can click "Cancel Participation".)

Continue       Cancel Participation

## Appendix B

## Study 1 Demographic Information

Please complete the following information about yourself:

1. What is your gender:  Male  Female  Other

2. How old are you? \_\_\_\_\_

3. How would you describe your race/ethnicity?

Asian/Asian American  Black/ African American  
 Indigenous Nation / Native American  Latino(a) / Hispanic American  
 White/Caucasian American  Other (please specify): \_\_\_\_\_  
 Biracial (please specify): \_\_\_\_\_

4. Please indicate your highest level of education

Elementary School  Some Graduate School  
 Junior High  Master's Degree  
 Some High School  M.B.A.  
 High School Graduate  J.D.  
 Some College  M.D.  
 Associate's Degree  Ph.D.  
 Bachelor's Degree  Other Advanced Degree

5. What country were you born in? \_\_\_\_\_

6. If you were born outside the U.S., how long have you lived in the U.S.? \_\_\_\_\_

7. How would you describe your party affiliation?

Green Party  Independent  
 Democrat  Republican  
 Libertarian  Other, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

8. How would you describe your religious beliefs?

Agnostic  Hindu  
 Atheist  Islam  
 Buddhist  Protestant/Nondenominational Christian  
 Catholic Christian  Sikh  
 Jewish  Other, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

9. How would you describe your political views?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Very Conservative				Moderate				Very Liberal

10. What is your current occupation? \_\_\_\_\_

11. What is your job title at your current place of employment? \_\_\_\_\_

12. How many years have you been at your current place of employment? \_\_\_\_\_

13. How many hours per week do you work? \_\_\_\_\_

14. What is your current income

- 1: *under \$15,000*
- 2: *\$15,000-\$24,999*
- 3: *\$25,000-\$34,999*
- 4: *\$35,000-\$44,999*
- 5: *\$45,000-\$54,999*
- 6: *\$55,000-\$74,999*
- 7: *\$75,000-\$99,999*
- 8: *\$100,000 or over*

15. How racially diverse do you consider your workplace to be?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Not very Racially Diverse				Moderately Racially Diverse				Very Racially Diverse

16. How masculine or feminine would you consider your occupation?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Very Feminine				Neutral				Very Masculine

Appendix C

Study 1 Supervisor Demographic Information

Please complete the following demographic information about your direct supervisor at your current place of employment:

1. What is your direct supervisor's gender:  Male  Female  Other

2. About how old is your direct supervisor? \_\_\_\_\_

3. How would you describe your direct supervisor's race/ethnicity?

Asian/Asian American

Black/ African American

Indigenous Nation / Native American

Latino(a) / Hispanic American

White/Caucasian American

Other (please specify):

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Biracial

17. How would you describe your direct supervisor's political views?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Very Conservative				Moderate				Very Liberal

## Appendix D

## Study 1-3 Perceived Leader Prejudice

Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you think that **your direct supervisor** at work would agree or disagree with the following items.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree

1. Discrimination against Blacks is no longer a problem in the United States.
2. It is easy to understand the anger of Black people in America.
3. Blacks have more influence upon school desegregation plans than they ought to have.
4. Blacks are getting too demanding in their push for equal rights.
5. Blacks should not push themselves where they are not wanted.
6. Over the past few years, Blacks have gotten more economically than they deserve.
7. Over the past few years, the government and news media have shown more respect to Blacks than they deserve.

*Note.* In Study 2 and Study 3, participants read the following instructions before responding: “Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you would think that **the manager described in the scenario** would agree or disagree with the following items.”



## Appendix E

## Study 1 &amp; 2 Claiming Discrimination

Regarding any discrimination that you may have experienced due to your race, please respond to the items below on the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never						Always

Within the past 12 months, how frequently have you:

1. Confronted the individual(s) responsible for the negative outcome
2. Reported the incident to an immediate supervisor
3. Reported the incident to someone at a higher level than an immediate supervisor
4. Filed a formal grievance about the incident to the organization.

*Note.* In Study 2, participants read the following instructions before responding to items on the modified scale below: “Please imagine that you were Andre (or Andrea). If you were in his/her situation, what is the likelihood you would have...”

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Unlikely						Very Likely

## Appendix F

## Study 1-3 Comfort with Claiming Discrimination

Regarding any discrimination that you may experience due to your race in the future, please respond to the items below on the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Uncomfortable						Very Comfortable

If an incident of racial discrimination occurs at work in the future, how comfortable would you feel...

1. Confronting the individual(s) responsible for the negative outcome
2. Reporting the incident to an immediate supervisor
3. Reporting the incident to someone at a higher level than an immediate supervisor
4. Filing a formal grievance about the incident to the organization.

*Note.* In Study 2, participants read the following instructions before responding to items: “Please imagine that you were Andre (or Andrea). If you were in his/her situation, how comfortable would you feel...”. In Study 3, participants read the following instructions before responding to items: “When deciding whether or not to report what the HR representative wrote on your application evaluation, how comfortable did you feel...”.

## Appendix G

## Study 1-3 Costs of Claiming Discrimination

To what extent would your direct supervisor view you as \_\_\_\_\_ if you did report discrimination that occurred to him or her? Please answer these questions, regardless of whether you actually reported discrimination in the past year or not.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all						Very much

1. hypersensitive
2. irritating
3. a complainer
4. a troublemaker
5. emotional
6. argumentative

The items of interest were interspersed within the filler items below:

7. likable
8. honest
9. intelligent
10. respectable
11. a good coworker

*Note.* In Study 2, participants read the following instructions before responding to items: “To what extent would the supervisor you read about view you as \_\_\_\_\_ if you did report discrimination that occurred to him or her?” In Study 3, participants read the following instructions before responding to items: “When deciding whether or not to report what the HR representative wrote on your application evaluation to your manager, to what extent did you think that the manager would view you as \_\_\_\_\_ if you reported the incident to him/her?”

## Appendix H

## Study 1-3 Benefits of Claiming Discrimination

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements. Please answer these questions, regardless of whether you actually reported discrimination in the past year or not.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all						Very much

If I experienced racial discrimination in the workplace and reported it to my direct supervisor, I think that my actions would...

1. helps reduce some of the racism in the workplace
2. cause the perpetrator to become aware or recognize that his/her behavior was racist,
3. cause the perpetrator to change some of his/her prejudiced attitudes
4. help to reduce the prejudice-based hassles that I would otherwise have to deal with in the workplace
5. help me to achieve things that discrimination and prejudice would otherwise prevent me from obtaining
6. help to make things better for other minorities in the workplace
7. help to educate perpetrator about why his/her behavior is wrong
8. help to make the perpetrator behave less racist in the future,
9. let the perpetrator know that racism is unacceptable

The items of interest were interspersed within the filler items below:

10. result in a scene being made.
11. result in a heated argument between me and the person who was discriminatory.
12. make things worse for me in the workplace.
13. result in the person who was discriminatory retaliating against me.

*Note.* In Study 2, participants read the following instructions before responding to items: “Please imagine that you were Andre (or Andrea). If you reported racial discrimination to the supervisor you read about, to what extent do you think your actions would...”. In Study 3, participants read the following instructions before responding to items: “When deciding whether or not to report what the HR representative wrote on your application evaluation to the manager, to what extent did you think that your actions would...”.

## Appendix I

## Study 1 Experienced Discrimination

Please indicate the number of times that each event listed below has occurred in the workplace in the past year (12 months).

1. An employer or co-worker was unfriendly or unwelcoming toward me because of my race.
2. My opinion was overlooked in a group discussion because of my race.
3. I was ignored at school or at work because of my race.
4. Someone assumed that my work would be inferior to people of other racial groups.
5. An employer or co-worker treated me differently than White co-workers.

0 \_\_ I did not experience this event in the past 12 months

1 \_\_ I experienced this event 1 time in the past 12 months

2 \_\_ I experienced this event 2 times in the past 12 months

3 \_\_ I experienced this event 3 times in the past 12 months

4 \_\_ I experienced this event 4 times in the past 12 months

5 \_\_ I experienced this event 5 or more times in the past 12 months

## Appendix J

### Study 1 Debrief Information

You are now finished with the Workplace Culture and Attitudes Study. In this study, we are investigating whether the gender group that one's supervisor belongs to influences whether employees are willing to report and claim instances of racial discrimination they have experienced in the workplace. Your responses will be important for furthering understanding of the psychological processes involved in people's decisions to report instances of injustice in the workplace.

We appreciate you taking the time to complete this study. If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to contact Dr. Laurie O'Brien, at [lobrien2@tulane.edu](mailto:lobrien2@tulane.edu) or Stefanie Simon at [ssimon3@tulane.edu](mailto:ssimon3@tulane.edu).

## Appendix K

## Study 2 Consent Form

**Principal Investigator:** Stefanie Simon

**Study Title:** Workplace Culture and Attitudes

The following informed consent is required by Tulane University for any research study conducted by investigators at the University. This study has been reviewed by the University's Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects.

**Introduction** You are invited to participate in a research study to better understand people's workplace culture and attitudes. If you agree to participate, you will be asked to read about a workplace scenario and imagine how you would feel and react if you were involved. You will also be asked demographic questions and questions about your experiences and attitudes regarding different workplace beliefs. If you decide to participate, you will click *continue* at the end of this form. If you decide not to participate, you can click *cancel participation*. You can print out a copy of this form for your records or you can contact the researcher to receive a copy. Your participation will last approximately 20 minutes.

**What are the risks?** The risks of participating in this study are minimal and are no greater than those experienced in everyday life. A possible inconvenience may be the time it takes to complete the study. We will take precautions to ensure that your responses remain completely anonymous.

**Will I receive payment?** You will be compensated with a monetary payment through Qualtrics in the amount indicated on the invitation that you received to participate in this study. You will be paid automatically through Qualtrics for participating.

**Can I stop being in the study?** You do not have to be in this study if you do not want to. If you agree to be in the study, but later change your mind, you may drop out at any time. There are no penalties or consequences of any kind if you decide that you do not want to participate. If you decide that you would like to stop participation at any time, please click the 'exit survey' button. Also, please keep in mind that you do not have to answer any question that you do not want to answer.

**Who do I contact if I have questions?** If you have further questions about this study or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact the principal investigator, Stefanie Simon at [ssimon3@tulane.edu](mailto:ssimon3@tulane.edu), or Dr. Laurie O'Brien at [lobrien2@tulane.edu](mailto:lobrien2@tulane.edu). If you have any questions concerning your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Tulane University Human Research Protection Office at 504-988-2665 or email at [irbmain@tulane.edu](mailto:irbmain@tulane.edu).

**Consent:** I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the research project described above. Its general purposes, the particulars of involvement and possible risks and inconveniences have been explained to my satisfaction. I understand that I can withdraw at any time. By clicking "Continue" I am indicating that I wish to begin participation in the study. (If you do not wish to continue, you can click "Cancel Participation".)

Continue       Cancel Participation

## Appendix L

### Study 2 Description of Organization and Supervisor

RLK Consulting is a midsized consulting firm that specializes in management consulting. The company was founded in 1985 when the first office was opened in Washington, D.C. While the company has remained local, it has since opened offices in Baltimore, MD and Arlington, VA. The company began as a team of 20 consultants, but by the mid-1990s it reached the current size of over 400 employees.

Although RLK Consulting accepts consulting projects that span a diverse range of topics, the company specializes in strategy, organization, technology, and operations. All employees of RLK work in one of four departments. Each department primarily handles projects falling into only one of these four categories.

Imagine that you are an employee at RLK Consulting working in the operations department. Your direct supervisor is a women (*or man*) named Michelle (*or Michael*) Connolly who has worked at RLK Consulting for the past 17 years. She/He has worked in the consulting industry for 25 years and holds master's degrees in business administration. Both insiders and outsiders of the company feel that Michelle/Michael's background fits well with the needs of the current job. She/He understands the industry well and possesses consulting know-how. The CEO of RLK Consulting has described Michelle/Michael as being a committed leader who works toward setting goals for the company. Furthermore, Michelle/Michael is known to encourage employees reach to do the best job that they can do.



## Appendix M

### Study 2 Workplace Scenario

Imagine that you are an employee at RLK Consulting working under the supervision of Michelle/Michael Connolly. You have been working with another employee for the last couple of months preparing to start a project with a new client. The employee that you've been working with is named Joan/John Price pictured below:



This is the first time that you and Joan/John have worked together on a project. At an initial meeting, Joan/John suggested splitting up the prep work so that you both could work efficiently and make good progress. You agreed that this strategy seemed like a good idea and suggested having weekly meetings to ask each other questions and get feedback on the work you had completed. Joan/John agreed to this plan and you two set up your first meeting for the following week.

One week later, you and Joan/John meet to go over the work on the new project that you've completed individually. Because the new project will involve working with your client on ways to improve their employees' productivity, you've begun researching the common practices that are currently used at your client's site.

After reviewing the work that you've completed, you can see that Joan/John looks disappointed. Before asking if anything is wrong, Joan/John blurts out, "I should've known that I would have to do all the work on this project...people like you are just too lazy to get any good work done."

## Appendix N

### Study 2 Debrief Information

You are now finished with the Workplace Culture and Attitudes Study. In this study, we are investigating whether the gender group that one's supervisor belongs to influences whether employees are willing to report and claim instances of racial discrimination they have experienced in the workplace. You were asked to read about either a male supervisor or a female supervisor before responding to questions regarding how you might react if a co-work made an offensive comment. Your responses will be important for furthering understanding of the psychological processes involved in people's decisions to report instances of injustice in the workplace.

We appreciate you taking the time to complete this study. If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to contact Dr. Laurie O'Brien, at [lobrien2@tulane.edu](mailto:lobrien2@tulane.edu) or Stefanie Simon at [ssimon3@tulane.edu](mailto:ssimon3@tulane.edu).

## Appendix O

## Study 2 &amp; 3 Attributions to Discrimination

If you were the Black employee in the scenario that was presented to you, to what extent would you think that the event was...

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree

1. due to discrimination?
2. due to your race?
3. due to racism?

*Note.* In Study 3, participants read the following instructions before responding to items: "To what extent do you think your evaluation for promotion from the HR representative was..."

## Appendix P

## Qualification Survey

Welcome to the Prestudy Survey for the Workplace Culture and Attitudes Study! This short survey will determine your eligibility for the study at this time. If you are eligible, we will contact you shortly to set up an appointment for a study session. Please be sure to complete this survey in one sitting, in a quiet setting by yourself. Please do not complete this survey on your mobile device.

1. What email address can we contact you at to schedule a time to participate in the study?
2. What is your gender?
  - a) Male
  - b) Female
  - c) Other
3. How old are you?
4. How would you describe your race/ethnicity?
  - a) Asian / Asian American
  - b) Indigenous Nation / Native American
  - c) Black / African American
  - d) Latino (a) / Hispanic American
  - e) White / Caucasian American
  - f) Biracial / Multiracial (please specify):
  - g) Other (please specify):
5. Are you enrolled as an undergraduate student at a college or university in the greater New Orleans area? (Please select "yes" if you are typically enrolled during the school year, even if you're not taking classes over the summer).
  - a) Yes
  - b) No
6. If you are currently an undergraduate student at a college or university, what year in school are you?
  - a) First year
  - b) Second year
  - c) Third year
  - d) Fourth year
  - e) Fifth year + beyond

## Appendix Q

### Study 3 Consent Form

**Principal Investigator:** Stefanie Simon

**Study Title:** Workplace Culture and Attitudes

#### **Introduction**

You are invited to participate in a research study exploring workplace culture and attitudes. No research activity is to be conducted until you have had an opportunity to review this consent form, ask any questions you may have, and sign this document if applicable. This consent form will give you the information you will need to understand why this study is being done and why you are being invited to participate. It will also describe what you will need to do to participate.

#### **What are the study procedures? What will I be asked to do?**

The purpose of this research study is to better understand how workplace culture and employees' attitudes influence interactions in the workplace. If you agree to take part in this study, you will be asked to take part in an organization simulation. You will be asked to assume the role of an employee and participate with another employee on a series of organizational tasks. After completing the tasks, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire about your impressions of the interactions and the tasks you completed.

The study will take place in Dr. O'Brien's lab at the time you scheduled and will take about 60 minutes to complete. We will attempt to enroll 600 participants in this study. You will not be contacted about this study in the future.

#### **What other options are there?**

If you do not wish to participate, you can withdraw from the study at no penalty.

#### **What are the risks or inconveniences of the study?**

We believe the risks of participating in this study are minimal and are no greater than those experienced in everyday life. We will take every precaution to ensure that your responses remain completely anonymous.

#### **What are the benefits of the study?**

The only benefit to you from participating in this research is the opportunity to learn more about psychological research. By participating in this study you are also helping scientists understand social interactions.

**Will I receive payment for participation?**

You will receive \$20 in exchange for your participation as compensation for your time. You will receive your payment at the end of this study session.

**Are there costs to participate?**

There are no costs to you to participate in this study.

**How will my personal information be protected?**

The following procedures will be used to protect the confidentiality of your data. The researchers will keep all study records (including any codes to your data) locked in Dr. O'Brien's lab. Research records will be labeled with a unique code. A master key that links names and codes will be maintained in a separate, locked, and secure location. Only the PI, faculty advisor, and research assistants will have access to the master key. Once the study is completed, the master key will be destroyed. The data itself will be stored on password protected computers. Data will be maintained in accordance with the security provisions of this paragraph until destroyed by the researchers. At the conclusion of this study, the researchers may publish their findings. Information will be presented in summary format and you will not be identified in any publications or presentations.

You should also know that the Tulane University Human Research Protection Office, Social/Behavioral Institutional Review Board (IRB) and/or the Office of Research Compliance may inspect study records as part of its auditing program, but these reviews will only focus on the researchers and not on your responses or involvement. The IRB is a group of people who review research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research participants.

**Can I stop being in the study and what are my rights?**

You do not have to be in this study if you do not want to. If you agree to be in the study, but later change your mind, you may drop out at any time. There are no penalties or consequences of any kind if you decide that you do not want to participate and you can withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

**Who do I contact if I have questions about the study?**

Take as much time as you like before you make a decision to participate in this study. We will be happy to answer any questions you have about this study. If you have further questions about this study, want to voice concerns or complaints about the research, or if you have a research-related problem, you may contact the principal investigator, (Stefanie Simon, [ssimon3@tulane.edu](mailto:ssimon3@tulane.edu)) or the Faculty Advisor (Laurie O'Brien, (504) 862-3320, [lobrien2@tulane.edu](mailto:lobrien2@tulane.edu)). If you would like to discuss your rights as a research participant, discuss problems, concerns, and questions, obtain information, or offer input with an informed individual who is unaffiliated with the specific research, you may

contact the Tulane University Human Research Protection Office at 504-988-2665 or email at [irbmain@tulane.edu](mailto:irbmain@tulane.edu).

**Documentation of Consent:**

I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the research project described above. Its general purposes, the particulars of involvement and possible risks and inconveniences have been explained to my satisfaction. I understand that I can withdraw at any time. My signature also indicates that I have been offered a copy of this consent form.

---

Subject

---

Date

---

Person Obtaining Consent

---

Date

## Appendix R

### Study 3 Organization and Manager Background Information

#### **STUDY INSTRUCTIONS**

Today you will be involved in an organizational simulation study. Because it is difficult to assess the behavior of individuals in actual organizations, we find organizational lab simulations to be useful in understanding organizational behavior. For the next hour or so you will be asked to assume the role of an employee of RLK Consulting, a midsized competitive consulting company.

You have been assigned the role of **associate**. As an associate, you will have to opportunity to contend for a promotion to the role of co-manager. The other participant, the HR representative, will have the task of deciding if you will receive the promotion based your application. As a part of the promotion decision, you will work on finding creative solutions to a series of real world organizational dilemmas. While completing this task you may learn skills that may be useful after college when you enter the working world.

Furthermore, associates in each session of this study who are promoted to the role of co-manager will have the chance to work with the HR representative on an additional task. Teams that perform well on this task will have the chance of winning \$100 to split with each other. However, associates who are not promoted to co-manager will *not* have this opportunity. If the HR representative decides not to promote you, he or she will work independently on the next task for the chance of winning \$50.

Your experimenter in this study will fill the role of the **manager** of RLK Consulting. Your manager (the experimenter) is pictured here:



As manager, she will oversee you and the other participant. You will have the opportunity to read more about the company and the manager in this packet of information. Please make sure to read all materials carefully because they will provide important information for your application.



**INFORMATION PACKET****(RLK CONSULTING)****PLEASE READ CAREFULLY!**

A website called The Insider Scoop collects information about a variety of organizations and provides that information to individuals who are looking for jobs. A recent search on RLK Consulting was done using The Insider Scoop. This packet of documents resulted from this search. Please read these materials with extreme care! It is essential that you are familiar with specific details of the organization you are working with. To ensure that everyone reads the packet carefully, later in the study you may be asked to recall some of the information in the information packet. Please spend the next 10 minutes reading these materials carefully. As you go through these materials remember that you are a(n) associate at RLK Consulting. You will have 10 minutes to look these materials over.

## WWW. THEINSIDERSCOOP.COM

Company: RLK Consulting

Description: Company self-description

Source: [www.RLKConsult/intopag/description/eh-49ei.com](http://www.RLKConsult/intopag/description/eh-49ei.com)

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### *RLK Consulting*

RLK Consulting is a mid-sized consulting firm that specializes in management consulting. The company was founded in 1985 when the first office was opened in Washington, D.C. While the company has remained local, it has since opened offices in Baltimore, MD and Arlington, VA, MD. The company began as a team of 20 consultants, but by the mid-1990s it reached the current size of over 400 employees.

Although RLK Consulting accepts consulting projects that span a diverse range of topics, the company specializes in strategy, organization, technology, and operations. All employees of RLK work in one of four departments. Each department primarily handles projects falling into only one of these four categories.

## WWW. THEINSIDERSCOOP.COM

Company: RLK Consulting

Description: *Business Biweekly* recently conducted a series of interviews on the atmosphere at a variety of management consulting companies. Below are some of the quotes from employees at RLK Consulting.

Source: *Business Biweekly*

---

“I’ ve only worked for RLK Consulting for a few weeks, so I don’ t have any strong opinions. I’ ll be able to tell you more in a few months.”

“The manager is concerned about promotion of all employees. For example, the manager recently implemented a mentorship program for racial minority employees” [nonprejudiced condition]

Or

“The manager has virtually created a “Whites only” club. For example, the manager gives a lot more extra help and advice to White employees than Black employees.” [prejudiced condition]

“The building security in the DC office is kind of a pain. It can take 10 minutes just to get through the door in the mornings. As only one of several tenants in the building I know that RLK can’ t change the policy, but it’ s still annoying.”

“RLK Consulting has great facilities. The lobbies of our buildings look like they could be in a luxury hotel.”

## WWW. THEINSIDERSCOOP.COM

Company: RLK Consulting

Description: *Business Biweekly* recently published a series of articles regarding racial diversity in the US workforce. Below is an article submitted by the manager at RLK Consulting.

Source: *Business Biweekly*

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### The Truth about Discrimination and Diversity

In my opinion, Blacks today really *do* have the same employment opportunities that Whites do in the U.S. I really don't agree that Blacks face greater obstacles in attaining a job or that Blacks still lose out on jobs and promotions just because of their skin color. I would have to agree that most big corporations in America are really interested in treating Black and White employees equally. Thus, it seems to me that Blacks are no longer discriminated against, and Black applicants should not be giving special consideration in hiring. This isn't because I lack an understanding of the problems Blacks face. It's just that I believe the root of most of the social and economic ills of Blacks is the weakness and instability of the Black family. On the whole, Black people don't stress education and training, and a lot of Black people are just looking for a free ride. In my opinion, Blacks should take the jobs that are available and then work their way up to better jobs. Unfortunately, from what I've seen, most Blacks lack the drive and determination to get ahead when facing adversity. (*prejudiced condition*)

In my opinion, Blacks today really *don't* have the same employment opportunities that Whites do in the U.S. This is largely due to the fact that Blacks face greater obstacles in attaining a job and because Blacks still lose out on jobs and promotions because of the color of their skin. It simply isn't the priority of most big corporations in America to treat Black and White employees equally. Thus, it seems to me that Blacks still are discriminated against, and there are times when it may be appropriate to give Black applicants special consideration in hiring. I try to understand the problems that Blacks face, and I believe that Blacks have more to offer than they have been allowed to show. I reject the notion that the root of most of the social and economic ills of Blacks is the weakness and instability of the Black family. On the whole, Black people stress education and training, and aren't just looking for a free ride. In my opinion, it's unfair that Blacks are just expected to take the jobs that are available to them and then work their way up to better jobs. Fortunately, from what I've seen, most Blacks have the drive and determination to get ahead, even when facing adversity. (*nonprejudiced condition*)

WWW. THEINSIDERSCOOP. COM

Company: RLK Consulting

Description: Salary Information

Source: [www.RLKConsult/reports/salarydistribution/bw-93hr.com](http://www.RLKConsult/reports/salarydistribution/bw-93hr.com)

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## *RLK Consulting*

### **2013 Fiscal Year Annual Salaries for Employees of RLK Consulting:**

CEO/CFO: \$274,576

Vice President: \$195,899

Director: \$167,254

Manager: \$123,465

Co-Manager: \$94,532

Associate: \$61,678

Administrative Assistant: \$49,438

Note: Salaries do not include yearly bonuses and are rounded to the nearest dollar. The salary reported for each job title reflects the mean annual salary of all employees in that job.

## WWW. THEINSIDERSCOOP.COM

Company: RLK Consulting

Description: Profit Information

Source: [www.RLKConsult/market/profits/quarterly/fi-4l-ql.com](http://www.RLKConsult/market/profits/quarterly/fi-4l-ql.com)

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### *RLK Consulting*

#### **Average Quarterly Profit:**

2001 - \$394,943

2002 - \$523,293

2003 - \$356,876

2004 - \$326,387

2005 - \$335,743

2006 - \$583,923

2007 - \$496,209

2008 - \$593,399

2009 - \$639,398

2010 - \$335,743

2011 - \$583,923

2012 - \$696,209

Note: The numbers are reported as net profits. The numbers reflect the mean profit for each quarter for the year. All figures are rounded to the nearest dollar.

## WWW. THEINSIDERSCOOP.COM

Company: RLK Consulting

Description: Departmental Breakdown - Each of the four departments within RLK Consulting represents an area of expertise shared by the members of that department. Strategy is the largest department at RLK Consulting because most of the company's clients seek strategy advice.

Source: [www.RLKConsult/deparments/employees/bydivision/ke-35jr.com](http://www.RLKConsult/deparments/employees/bydivision/ke-35jr.com)

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## *RLK Consulting*

### **Departmental Breakdown of RLK Consulting Employees:**

Department	Number of Vice Pres.	Number of Directors	Number of Managers	Number of Senior Associates	Number of Associates	Number of Admin. Assistants	Total
Strategy	1	2	27	45	88	34	197
Organization	1	2	17	28	54	21	123
Technology	1	2	8	11	26	9	57
Operations	1	2	8	11	24	8	54

Appendix S

Study 3 Participant Application Form



APPLICATION FOR CO-MANAGER POSITION  
PART I: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

**Fill in the blank or circle your response as appropriate.**

**Name:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Gender:**      male                  female

**Race:**  
White  
Black  
Latino/a  
Asian  
Native American  
Biracial, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_  
Other, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

**Age:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Year:**      freshman                  sophomore                  junior                  senior

**Name of School:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Expected Date  
of Graduation:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Major:** \_\_\_\_\_



## *RLK Consulting*

### APPLICATION FOR CO-MANAGER POSITION PART II: ORGANZIATIONAL DECISION MAKING

Please read each of the following four scenarios carefully. At the end of each scenario you will be asked to make a decision. Please indicate your decision by checking your answer.

FROM: collins@RLKConsult.com  
RE: Location of new office

I am writing to get your opinion. As you know, we are going to build a new office in order to expand our company. We can open the office in New York or Chicago. The office space costs less in Chicago, but the taxes will be higher for the first five years of business. After five years taxes will be the same in either city. In New York the office space costs more, but we get a five year tax break. The money really equals out overall if we figure an average level of business over the next five years. I would like your opinion on what we should do.

R. Collins, CEO

#### *I MUST NOW CHOOSE BETWEEN THE FOLLOWING TWO OPTIONS:*

- \_\_\_\_\_ I will suggest we open the new office in New York. If we open an office in New York we get the tax break, and if we do more than average business then we gain by the reduced taxes. I will suggest we open an office in New York.
  
- \_\_\_\_\_ I will suggest we open the new office in Chicago. If we open an office in Chicago we get the office at a better price, and if we do less than average business then we at least gain by purchasing the less expensive office space. I will suggest we open an office in Chicago.

## *RLK Consulting*

FROM: foley@RLKConsult.com

RE: Hiring Decision

As you may know, one of the associates in our group had to resign last month because of medical problems. Due to the high volume of business our group has been handling recently, we need to fill the position immediately. Human resources has sent me the resumes of 72 applicants for the position. Due to the tight economy, it seems that we have an abundance of highly qualified applicants. We do not have time to interview all of these candidates. Realistically, we can only interview 20 people if we want to fill the position within the month. In determining which of these candidates will receive interviews we need to decide whether we want to emphasize either performance in business school or past experience in the consulting industry. Please let me know which strategy you recommend.

J. Foley, Senior Associate

### *I MUST NOW CHOOSE BETWEEN THE FOLLOWING TWO OPTIONS*

\_\_\_\_\_ I believe that individuals with a lot of experience in the field have a wider source of knowledge about the industry and know more about the day-to-day life of a consultant. We want to hire people that will be able to hit the ground running. It is my opinion that experience is the key to success as a consultant. I will recommend that we emphasize experience over performance in business school when ranking the candidates.

\_\_\_\_\_ I believe that performance in business school is the best indication of pure intellect. While experience helps to develop a consultant, intelligence is what determines a consultant's ultimate success. It is my opinion that in the long run the candidates who were the most successful in business school will make the best consultants. I will recommend that we emphasize performance in business school over experience when ranking the candidates.

## *RLK Consulting*

FROM: green@RLKConsult.com  
RE: Plan for Attracting New Business

The company is currently debating what the best plan is for attracting new clients to our company. I have been placed in charge of developing different strategies and surveying employees' opinions of these strategies. I would like your opinion on which of two general strategies you believe to be more effective. The first strategy involves seeking contracts to do large-scale projects. Developing presentations to use to solicit business will be fairly time intensive as large projects must be tailored to the needs of each specific company. If we do get clients to sign with us on big projects, each project will be hugely profitable. The second strategy involves focusing our efforts on contracts to do small-scale projects that address common problems in companies. We would not have to spend much time developing presentations for each company we want to solicit business from because many organizations can often benefit from the same or similar small-scale projects. The payoffs from smaller contracts, however, are not as profitable. Please let me know which of these strategies you think will be more profitable for RLK Consulting.

T. Green, Senior Associate

### *I MUST NOW CHOOSE BETWEEN THE FOLLOWING TWO OPTIONS*

\_\_\_\_\_ If we seek contracts for large projects, the company will get big payoffs. Big payoffs are the only way to have a really profitable business. Although it will take more time for us to develop presentations to pitch to specific companies, we will only need to sign a few contracts in order to be profitable. The effort required to sign enough small contracts to be as profitable as signing just a few large contracts would not be worth the effort. I will tell the senior associate that I think soliciting large contracts will be more profitable.

\_\_\_\_\_ Spending a lot of time developing a specific presentation to pitch to a company in hopes of signing a contract for a large project is not a wise business move. If the contract is not signed, the company has wasted a lot of time and energy. It will not take long to develop a single presentation for a small project that we can pitch to lots of companies. Even if we only sign contracts with some of the companies we solicit business from, our efforts will not have been wasted. I will tell the senior associate that I think soliciting small contracts will be more profitable.

# *RLK Consulting*

## APPLICATION FOR CO-MANAGER POSITION PART III: PERSONAL STATEMENT

Please use the following space to provide the HR representative with a few sentences describing why you are a good candidate for the position of co-manager.

## Appendix T

## Study 3 Organizational Forms

*RLK Consulting*

Form CC\_01  
Company Charity Questionnaire

RLK Consulting is thinking of selecting a company-wide charity organization to increase the ways in which the company gives back to the community. RLK would make an annual contribution to this charity and also provide employees with the opportunity to make individual contributions. Employees would be able to vote on what type of charity RLK Consulting would adopt. Before implementing this plan, we want to assess support among employees to determine if it's a worthwhile endeavor.

1. Would you support RLK Consulting adopting a company-wide charity organization?

Yes  No

2. Do you think it's a good idea for RLK Consulting to make an annual contribution to a charity organization?

Yes  No

3. If you approved of the charity selected by the company, would you be willing to make an annual individual contribution to the charity?

Yes  No

4. If so, how much would you be likely to donate annually?

- \_\_\_ \$0 – 20
- \_\_\_ \$21 – 40
- \_\_\_ \$41 – 60
- \_\_\_ \$61 – 80
- \_\_\_ \$81 – 100
- \_\_\_ More than \$100

## *RLK Consulting*

Form BP\_02  
Benefits Plan Change Form

RLK Consulting is thinking about revising the vacation and sick days aspects of the benefits plans. Currently, new employees initially receive 16 vacation days and 4 sick days annually. Any unused days roll over to the next year. Please vote on which of the following changes to the current plan you would most favor.

- 10 vacation days, 4 sick days, and an extra \$2,000 annually in salary
- 10 vacation days and 10 sick days
- 16 vacation days, 4 sick days, and employees receive monetary compensation for any unused days at the end of the year.
- No change

# *RLK Consulting*

Form OG\_03  
Organizational Grievance Form

This form is used whenever employees want to file a complaint or grievance with RLK Consulting. Employees file grievances when they think they have experienced unfair treatment by an employee or client of RLK Consulting. Grievances will be reported to your manager. You are not required to fill out the form, but please feel free to do so if you have any complaints about the company or employees.

1. Would you like to file a grievance with RLK Consulting at this time? Please check a box.

Yes

No

2. If you responded yes above, what is the nature of your complaint?

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3. What action would you like to see taken as a result of filing a grievance?

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## Appendix U

## Study 3 Promotion Decision

*RLK Consulting*

Form HR\_07  
Promotion Decision Form

This form for Human Resource (HR) representatives to use when making promotion decisions. HR representatives are instructed to review application materials thoroughly before filling out the form and making their promotion decision.

**Promotion decision made by:**

**Human Resource Representative:** Confederate's name

**Date:** 7/13/15

**Time:** 10am

**Application Under Review:** Participant's name

**Position Sought:** Co-Manager

**Promotion Decision:** *Promotion denied.*

*The applicant did not come across well on the application. I would be more likely to select someone for the role of co-manager who is more like me because I don't think I'd work hard with that type of student—they tend not to work hard.*



## Appendix V

## Study 3 Perceived Manager Benevolence and Universalism

Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree that the following items are true of **your manager**:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree

1. It is very important to her to help the people around her. She wants to care for other people.
2. It is important to her to be loyal to her friends. She wants to devote herself to people close to her.
3. It is important to her to respond to the needs of others. She tries to support those she knows.
4. Forgiving people who might have wronged her is important to her. She tries to see what is good in them and not to hold a grudge.
5. She thinks it is important that every person in the world be treated equally. She wants justice for everybody, even for people she doesn't know.
6. It is important to her to listen to people who are different from her. Even when she disagrees with them, she still wants to understand them.
7. She strongly believes that people should care for nature. Looking after the environment is important to her.
8. She believes all the worlds' people should live in harmony. Promoting peace among all groups in the world is important to her.
9. She wants everyone to be treated justly, even people she doesn't know. It is important to her to protect the weak in society.
10. It is important to her to adapt to nature and to fit into it. She believes that people should not change nature.

*Note.* In the male leader condition, gender-specific pronouns were replaced with male pronouns.

## Appendix W

## Study 3 Debriefing Script

**Debriefing Script**

(Take notes in spaces provided)

“Now that the study is over, I’m just going to go ask you a few questions about the study...

- 1) First, was there any part of the study that seemed unclear or strange?
  
- 2) Sometimes when people come into psychology studies they may be suspicious of things they are told. Did you ever wonder if there were some things we weren’t telling you?
  
- 3) What do you think the purpose of today’s study was? And at what point did you start to think this?
  
- 4) Do you remember what the HR representative said on your promotion application? How did that make you feel?

The reason that I ask is because the HR representative was actually scripted to write that and his/her response was a part of the study. We were interested in how you might respond to this type of comment which was designed to sound prejudiced. In the workplace, people may encounter other co-workers who make these types of offensive comments, and we’re interested in what types of factors will make reporting this behavior more common. This is important in order to ensure that necessary changes can take place in organizations and employers can create an inclusive environment for all employees. Do you have any questions about this? (Make sure participants fully understand.)

We apologize for not telling you the true purposes of the study at the beginning of the session. Because we are interested in the real responses people have, our results would be very different if we simply asked you to *imagine* how you might respond in this type of

situation. Do our reasons for conducting the study in this way make sense to you? (Make sure that participant understands).

Because we are interested in how people naturally respond, it is important that you not discuss this study with other people who might also participate in this study. If someone came in to participate and knew the true purposes of the study, their data would be meaningless. For that reason, we are asking our participants not to tell other students about the study. Would you be willing to help us out by not talking about the study to other students? (Be sure to wait for response).

Ok, there are just a few more things before you go. We told you at the beginning of the study that if you were promoted that you'd be entered in a \$100 raffle. Because the evaluation you received was scripted, you will be automatically entered in this raffle. Lastly, just as a reminder, your responses are completely confidential, and your name will not be connected to your data in any way. Now that you know more about the study, we want to know if it is OK to use your responses in our data analyses. So please just sign this form and indicate whether we can include your data. [*hand them post-study decision form*].

Here is your \$20. I just need you to fill out this payment receipt for accounting purposes. [*hand them payment receipt*]. Thank you for your participation. If you have any other questions, please let me know.

**\*\*\*\*Once participant has left, please circle their suspicion on the following scale\*\*\*\***

- 0 = No clue
- 1 = General, vague suspicion because psychology experiment
- 2 = General, vague suspicion about our procedure (or specific suspicions too late to be a problem)
- 3 = Specific suspicions about our procedure, but insofar as you can tell, the suspicions were not definite enough to affect participant's reactions or responses
- 4 = Specific suspicions that were definite enough to affect participant's reactions or responses
- 5 = Participant states hypotheses.

In the space below, please record any other observations that you have:

## Appendix X

## Study 3 Post-Study Decision Form

**Post-Study Decision Form**

All of your responses today are completely anonymous—there is no way that anyone can link any of your responses to your identity.

Do you, the participant, after having learned the true nature and purpose of this study, agree to allow your data to be used for scientific analysis?

\_\_\_\_ Yes. I give permission for my data to be used for scientific analysis.

\_\_\_\_ No. I do not want my data to be used for scientific analysis.

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Signature

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Date

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Printed Name

## Appendix Y

## Study 3 Participant Payment Receipt

**Workplace Culture and Attitudes Study  
Receipt of Payment**

Amount: \$20

For: Study Participation

Date of Participation: \_\_\_\_\_

Participant Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Participant Address: \_\_\_\_\_

Participant Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Project Sponsor: Dr. Laurie O'Brien, Department of Psychology

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