

ABSTRACT

Title of Document: PSYCHOLOGICAL CLIMATE FOR DIVERSITY: ANTECEDENTS AND OUTCOMES.

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Although some research has examined climate for diversity in organizations and its outcomes, little attention has been devoted to the antecedents of individuals' climate for diversity perceptions (psychological climate) or to a broader nomological network. The extent to which individuals have experience with diversity and receive information regarding diversity in an organization from various media were purported to relate to their diversity related climate perceptions, which in turn were proposed to relate to their racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and performance. Further, individuals' race was believed to moderate the antecedent-climate-outcomes relationships. Hypotheses were tested using two samples, 871 newcomers and 688 incumbents, enabling examination of potential differences in relationships between the two. Overall, the proposed model was supported. Psychological climate for diversity mediated the antecedents-outcomes relationship. However, contrary to expectations, moderation of the antecedent-climate-outcomes relationships by race was weak, and these relationships were largely similar in the two samples.

PSYCHOLOGICAL CLIMATE FOR DIVERSITY: ANTECEDENTS AND
OUTCOMES.

By

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Table of Contents

Acknowledgements.....	ii
Table of Contents.....	iii
List of Tables.....	v
List of Figures.....	vii
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
Background.....	1
Study Overview.....	4
Exposure to Diversity and Outcomes.....	7
Exposure and Climate for Diversity.....	13
Climate for Diversity and Outcomes.....	15
Climate for Diversity as a Mediator.....	19
Media, Climate for Diversity, and Outcomes.....	20
Race as a Moderator.....	28
Organizational Tenure.....	31
Chapter 2: Method.....	34
Participants.....	34
Procedure.....	35
Measures.....	36
Antecedents.....	36
Psychological Climate for Diversity.....	38
Outcomes.....	38
Moderator Variable.....	40
Control Variables.....	40
Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	41
Analysis Plan.....	42
Chapter 3: Results.....	46
Freshman Sample.....	46
Antecedents.....	47
Climate as a Mediator.....	50
Race as a Moderator.....	56
Junior-Senior Sample.....	58
Antecedents.....	59
Climate as a Mediator.....	61
Race as a Moderator.....	64
Sample Comparison.....	66
Chapter 4: Discussion.....	69
Climate for Diversity as a Mediator.....	71
Race as a Moderator.....	74
Organizational Tenure.....	79
Summary and Practical Implications.....	81
Limitations and Future Directions.....	85
Appendices.....	90

Appendix A.....	91
Appendix B.....	96
Bibliography	128

List of Tables

Table B1.	Confirmatory factor analysis to determine the factor structure of media sources	96
Table B2.	Confirmatory factor analysis to determine the factor structure of items in the freshman sample	97
Table B3.	Means, standard deviations, and correlations of scales in the freshman sample	99
Table B4.	Regression analysis of outcomes on exposure to diversity and media in the freshman sample	101
Table B5.	Regression analysis of psychological climate on exposure to diversity and media in the freshman sample	103
Table B6.	Race as a moderator of the relationship between antecedents and psychological climate in the freshman sample	104
Table B7.	Race as a moderator of the relationship between psychological climate and outcomes in the freshman sample	105
Table B8.	Confirmatory factor analysis to determine the factor structure of items in the junior-senior sample	108
Table B9.	Means, standard deviations, and correlations of scales in the junior-senior sample	110
Table B10.	Regression analysis of outcomes on exposure to diversity in the junior-senior sample	112

Table B11.	Regression analysis of psychological climate on exposure to diversity in the junior-senior sample	115
Table B12.	Race as a moderator of the relationship between antecedents and psychological climate in the junior-senior sample	116
Table B13.	Race as a moderator of the relationship between psychological climate and outcomes in the junior-senior sample	117
Table B14.	Comparison of relationships in the freshman and junior-senior samples	121
Table B15.	Summary of results	122

List of Figures

Figure 1. Psychological climate for racial diversity model	5
Figure B1. Race as a moderator of the relationship between psychological climate and racial understanding in the freshman sample	123
Figure B2. Race as a moderator of the relationship between psychological climate and belonging in the freshman sample	124
Figure B3. Race as a moderator of the relationship between psychological climate and ethnic identity in the freshman sample	125
Figure B4. Race as a moderator of the relationship between current exposure to diversity and psychological climate in the junior-senior sample	126
Figure B5. Race as a moderator of the relationship between psychological climate and racial understanding in the junior-senior sample	127

Chapter 1: Introduction

Background

The importance of studying diversity in organizations has increased with the increasing diversity of American society and the American workforce (Jackson, May, & Whitney, 1995; Milliken & Martins, 1996). Moreover, as organizations are increasingly employing teams or workgroups that require extensive interaction and coordination among members, understanding how the heterogeneity of members influences group processes, attitudes, behavior, and performance has become an important consideration (Milliken & Martins, 1996).

The preponderance of research on diversity in organizations has focused on the relationship between outcomes (e.g., performance, satisfaction, morale, commitment, turnover, conflict, and cohesion) and easily observable characteristics of individuals, such as their race, sex, age, often referred to as surface-level, or overt characteristics (Brief et al., 2005; Jackson & Joshi, 2004; Jehn, Norcraft, & Neale, 1999; Joshi, Liao, & Jackson, 2006; Pelled, 1996; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999; Richard, 2000; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). Some research has also examined less easily observable characteristics, such as education, status, values, personality, often referred to as deep-level characteristics (Bell, 2007; Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998; Harrison, Price, Gavin, & Florey, 2002; Mohammed & Angell, 2004; Phillips & Loyd, 2006; Phillips, Northcraft, & Neale, 2006).

The focus on surface and deep characteristics of individuals has been important because it has furthered our understanding of how individuals' race and background characteristics can influence their attitudes and behaviors in organizations as well as the benefits and challenges of having people from diverse backgrounds work together. However, less attention has been devoted to the contextual factors in groups or organizations that might influence how individuals from different racial groups or backgrounds respond in organizations. One important contextual factor that has been strongly related to individuals' attitudes and behaviors in organizations is climate (Carr, Schmidt, Ford, & DeShon, 2003; Parker et al., 2003). Climate for diversity has only recently begun to gain attention in the literature and has been shown to be important for understanding outcomes in organizations (Gonzalez & Denisi, 2009; Kossek & Zonia, 1993; McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2008, 2009; McKay et al., 2007).

It is generally believed that climate arises from organizational members' efforts to understand their work environment (Ashforth, 1985). It is important to distinguish between organizational climate and psychological climate, first proposed by James and Jones (1974), and widely accepted in the area of climate research. Psychological climate is individuals' perceptions of organizational policies, practices, and procedures and indicates to employees what is important, valued, and rewarded in organizations (Schneider, 1990). When people share similar perceptions, organizational climate is said to exist (James, 1982).

One perspective in climate research is that climate is based on a referent (Schneider & Reichers, 1983). People take into consideration related organizational events and try to make sense of and attach meaning to the set of events as a whole

(Schneider & Reichers, 1983). Accordingly, organizations may establish policies and procedures to advocate particular strategic objectives, which result in specific climate referents or foci (Reichers & Schneider, 1990), typically referred to as strategic climate. One such strategic climate referent is diversity. Organizations may enact certain policies and procedures to encourage and value diversity in the workforce, and employee perceptions of these policies and procedures would give rise to the climate for diversity in the organization.

Although, in general, diversity has been a topic of interest in organizational research for several years and has been extensively studied, including from a climate perspective, the question that has primarily driven research on climate for diversity thus far is: what are the consequences of climate for diversity? In sum, despite the volume of research on diversity, there are few, if any, studies that look at how individuals form their perceptions of climate for diversity.

The benefits of understanding the process by which individuals form perceptions of climate for diversity are manifold. First, it could be helpful to organizations in attracting and retaining talent. Organizations are often interested in attracting diverse talent and want to promote the workplace as valuing minorities and individuals from diverse backgrounds. Second, it could prove useful in designing effective campaigns (e.g. orientation programs, media campaigns) that provide information to prospective job applicants regarding diversity at the organization. Third, it could be key to designing effective diversity education initiatives to improve the climate for diversity among job incumbents in order to improve retention. Therefore, it is important to examine some of

the factors that might influence individuals' perceptions of the degree to which the organization values diversity, or its climate for diversity.

Study Overview

In the present study, some of the antecedents and outcomes of psychological climate for racial diversity were examined. Similar to McKay and Avery's (2006) conceptualization of climate for diversity, here, psychological climate for racial diversity is defined as individuals' perceptions of the extent to which the organization treats everyone fairly and respectfully regardless of race or ethnicity, and makes an effort to make minority group members feel that they "belong."

Specifically, it was proposed that individuals' prior and current exposure to diversity as well as individuals' receipt of information regarding diversity in an organization from various media would contribute to their racial understanding, sense of belonging, level of ethnic identity, and performance. This relationship was expected to be partially mediated by individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity, such that exposure to diversity and media were expected to relate to individuals' climate perceptions, which in turn was expected to relate to their racial understanding, sense of belonging, level of ethnic identity, and performance. Further, individuals' race was expected to moderate the relationships between the antecedents and psychological climate for racial diversity and between psychological climate for racial diversity and the outcomes. Finally, it was expected that these relationships would be stronger for incumbents with greater organizational tenure compared to organizational newcomers.

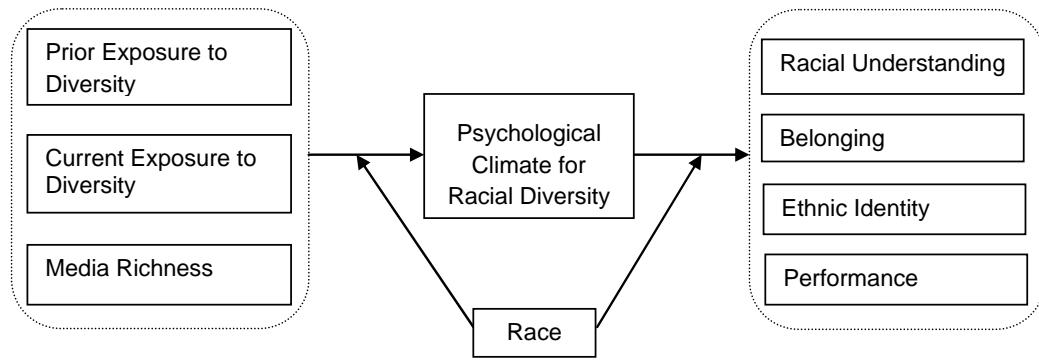


Figure 1. Psychological climate for racial diversity model

A primary goal of the present study was to look at some of the factors that contribute to individuals' perceptions of climate for racial diversity in organizations. Although prior research has examined the antecedents of individuals' psychological perceptions of climate, such as antecedents of justice climate (Colquitt, Noe, & Jackson, 2002; Mayer, Nishii, Schneider, & Goldstein, 2007), or service climate (Borucki & Burke, 1999; Chuang & Liao, 2010), antecedents of climate for diversity perceptions have been largely ignored.

In accordance with the notion that climate arises out of individuals' efforts to understand their work environment and that understanding the climate depends to a large extent on individuals' social interactions at work (Ashforth, 1985), in the present study, the role of exposure to diversity in the form of prior and current interactions with individuals from racial groups other than one's own, and the role of media in the receipt of diversity related information, were examined. Knowledge of the role of exposure to diversity could help us understand how individuals' experience with diverse people might affect their perceptions of climate for racial diversity at the organization. And, knowledge of the role of media could inform us as to the effectiveness of different types of media in

conveying information such that it is clear and unambiguous so that individuals have a clear understanding of what is valued in the organization with regard to racial diversity.

Another goal of the present study was to expand our knowledge of outcomes related to perceptions of climate for racial diversity. While past research has examined outcomes such as commitment, turnover, and performance in relation to climate for diversity (Gonzalez & Denisi, 2009; McKay et al., 2007, 2008, 2009), diversity related outcomes have not been explicitly examined. The notion of strategic climate suggests that the outcomes examined should be specific to the type of climate being studied (Reichers & Schneider, 1990). Empirical evidence also supports the notion that specific climates are predictive of specific outcomes, such as safety (Zohar & Luria, 2005) or service (Gracia, Cifre, & Grau, 2010). Therefore, in the present study, in addition to outcomes that have been examined in prior research (e.g., belonging and performance), racial understanding and ethnic identity were examined as diversity related outcomes.

An additional contribution of the present study was examination of the role of organizational tenure in individuals' climate perceptions. The perceptions of newcomers to an organization were compared to the perceptions of incumbents to see if organizational tenure influenced relationships between antecedents, psychological climate for racial diversity, and outcomes. I investigated whether antecedents had a greater impact on climate perceptions in tenured individuals versus newcomers, and examined whether there was a differential impact of climate perceptions on outcomes in the two samples. Understanding the differences related to climate perceptions between newcomers and tenured individuals could prove useful in understanding and improving the newcomer socialization process, particularly with respect to the role that tenured

individuals play in helping newcomers adjust to the workplace and recognize what is valued in the organization with regard to racial diversity.

Exposure to Diversity and Outcomes

Exposure to diversity and information regarding diversity values, policies, and practices in the organization are likely to influence individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity, which in turn are likely to affect their diversity related attitudes and behaviors. In the present study, the influence of exposure to diversity in the form of prior experience with diversity and current participation in diversity activities on diversity related outcomes such as racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and performance were examined.

Drawing upon Allport's (1954) intergroup contact theory, both prior exposure to diversity and current participation in diversity activities can be expected to have a direct association with outcomes. According to intergroup contact theory (Allport, 1954), prejudice arises primarily from lack of knowledge and understanding of out-group members. And, if there is equal status between groups in a given context, common goals, intergroup cooperation, and a supportive environment, prejudice will be reduced upon intergroup contact (Allport, 1954). Prejudice is purported to lessen by learning about the out-group, changing behavior towards out-group members, generating affective ties with out-group members, and reappraising in-group norms (Pettigrew, 1998).

There is extensive empirical evidence supporting intergroup contact theory. Studies have shown that intergroup contact reduces prejudice in general (Hewstone, 2003; Pettigrew, 1997; Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006), but more so in majority group

members (Pettigrew, Christ, Wagner, & Stellmacher, 2007; Tropp & Pettigrew, 2005), and reduces perceptions of discrimination or threat in minority group members (Dixon et al., 2010). It should be noted, however, that results of studies supporting the effectiveness of intergroup contact in reducing prejudice in individuals may be affected by their willingness to seek intergroup contact such that individuals who perceive less discrimination (Tropp & Bianchi, 2006) or value intergroup relations (van Dick et al., 2004) are more likely to seek intergroup contact in the first place. Therefore, prior exposure to diversity in individuals' community, high school, and social environment as an indicator of past intergroup contact is also likely to influence outcomes.

As discussed above, the literature on intergroup contact reveals that the majority of research has focused on prejudice and threat as outcomes of intergroup contact. However, a wider range of diversity related outcomes needs to be examined in relation to intergroup contact if we are to determine its overall effectiveness. The present study expands past research by examining the following outcome variables: racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and performance.

The main premise of intergroup contact theory is that prejudice arises primarily from lack of knowledge and understanding of out-group members and that intergroup contact in a supportive environment will reduce prejudice (Allport, 1954). Although the theory does not explicate the process by which prejudice is reduced upon intergroup contact, it implies that intergroup contact is likely to enhance racial understanding and reduce uncertainty regarding the out-group.

There is substantial empirical evidence that intergroup contact does indeed reduce prejudice (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006), indicating it is likely that intergroup contact

promotes racial understanding. Concrete evidence for this intermediary process comes from Pettigrew and Tropp's (2008) meta-analysis, which showed that knowledge about the out-group mediated the relationship between intergroup contact and prejudice such that intergroup contact facilitated gaining of knowledge regarding out-groups which in turn reduced prejudice. In addition, the results showed that anxiety, empathy, and perspective taking mediated the intergroup contact-prejudice relationship such that intergroup contact facilitated a reduction in anxiety and increased empathy and perspective taking, thus reducing prejudice.

Results of this meta-analysis further solidify the notion that intergroup contact through exposure to diversity is likely to facilitate racial understanding through increased familiarity and decreased uncertainty regarding racial out-group members. Hence, regardless of whether individuals acquired knowledge of racial out-group members prior to or at their current organization, they are likely to have more racial understanding than individuals who have had less exposure to diversity.

Similarly, the mere exposure effect postulates that repeated exposure to a stimulus will enhance individuals' attitude towards it (Zajonc, 1968). Therefore, it can be expected that repeated exposure to a diverse set of people will enhance individuals' liking and positive attitudes towards them. In other words, when frequently exposed to out-group members, individuals are likely to hold positive views of them. Specific to the racial context, Zebrowitz, White, and Wieneke (2008) found that mere exposure to other-race faces increased liking for members of that race in general. And, it is known that humans have an inherent need to belong and seek frequent social contact with familiar others rather than strangers (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Therefore, it is likely that repeated

intergroup contact will enhance individuals' general sense of belonging in a diverse environment.

Ethnic identity is broadly considered to be the ethnic component of Tajfel and Turner's (1979) construct of social identity (Phinney 1990, 1992). According to social identity theory, individuals establish their place in society by self-categorizing themselves and identifying with a particular social group based on certain matching attributes or characteristics. Further, individuals want to maintain a positive sense of self and therefore strive to perceive the group they identify with, the in-group, as more positive compared to others, the out-group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1985). In essence, ethnic identity is the part of individuals' self-concept that is based on their membership in a racial or ethnic group and includes an affective component, i.e., a sense of belonging, or attachment, to the in-group (Phinney, 1990, 1992).

In general, the impetus for social identity comes from uncertainty reduction and from self-enhancement, particularly in the face of threat (Hogg, Abrams, Otten, & Hinkle, 2004). It has been argued that the primary motivation for social identity is uncertainty reduction because social identity processes construct a self-concept that defines an individual and prescribes thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Hogg, 2000). As discussed previously, to an extent, uncertainty is reduced when members of different groups interact. As uncertainty about out-groups reduces with increased intergroup contact, the need for social identification as a means for uncertainty reduction is likely to decrease. In the present study, exposure to diversity was expected to help reduce uncertainty about racial out-group members and hence likely to be negatively related to ethnic identity.

Research on diversity and performance has yielded mixed results (Milliken & Martins, 1996; van Knippenberg, De Dreu, & Homan, 2004). On one hand, demographic diversity seems to be related to better performance and innovation (Cunningham, 2009; Van de Ven, Rogers, Bechara, & Kangyong, 2008), but on the other hand it also seems to be related to workgroup conflict which can have a negative impact on performance (Brief et al., 2005; Jehn et al., 1999; Pelled et al., 1999; Tsui et al., 1992).

There is some research that shows that over time, surface-level diversity may not have much of an impact in the workplace. Harrison and his colleagues (Harrison et al., 1998, 2002) found that over time, increasing collaboration weakened the effects of surface-level diversity. In addition, although they did not specifically measure individual performance, Watson and his colleagues (Watson, Johnson, Kumar, & Critelli, 1998; Watson, Johnson, & Zgourides, 2002; Watson, Kumar, & Michaelsen, 1993) found, that over time, ethnically diverse teams performed better than homogeneous teams, and that workgroup interaction processes improved. Similar results have been found at the organizational level, in terms of firm productivity (Richard, Murthi, & Ismail, 2007).

Overall, research seems to suggest that even though racial or ethnic workgroup diversity may have negative effects on individual and group outcomes initially, later on such differences are usually overcome and do not necessarily compromise performance. Once individuals are familiar with each other, they may be able to garner the benefits of diverse perspectives within the group. Revisiting the mere exposure effect (Zajonc, 1968), it can be expected that as individuals interact with and become familiar with each other, they will start liking each other, perhaps because it reduces uncertainty (Bornstein, 1989; Lee, 2001). Therefore, it seems reasonable to assume that there will be less

relational conflict, improved information sharing, and communication among racially diverse workgroup members with increased contact. In other words, individuals' exposure to diversity will increase familiarity with and reduce uncertainty about racial out-groups, and hence facilitate group processes such that individuals are able to take advantage of group members' diverse set of skills and perspectives. Thus, both prior and current exposure to diversity were expected to positively relate to performance.

In sum, in accordance with the basic principles of intergroup contact theory (Allport, 1954), mere exposure effect (Zajonc, 1968), and social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), it was expected that exposure to diversity would be positively related to racial understanding and a sense of belonging, negatively related to ethnic identity, and positively related to performance.

The following relationships were expected between exposure to diversity and outcomes:

Hypothesis 1a. Prior and current exposure to diversity will be positively associated with racial understanding.

Hypothesis 1b. Prior and current exposure to diversity will be positively associated with belonging.

Hypothesis 1c. Prior and current exposure to diversity will be negatively associated with ethnic identity.

Hypothesis 1d. Prior and current exposure to diversity will be positively associated with performance.

Exposure and Climate for Diversity

In addition to directly affecting outcomes, exposure to diversity is also likely to affect individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity at the organization. Perceptions of climate arise from individuals' efforts to understand their environment (Ashforth, 1985). And, based on Mead's (1934) theory of symbolic interaction, it is theorized that individuals interpret and attach meaning to organizational events based on their social interactions (Weick, 1995), which helps to give rise to climate perceptions (Schneider & Reichers, 1983).

In general, individuals have a need to reduce subjective uncertainty, i.e., they need to feel confident to a certain extent regarding what to expect from their physical and social environment, and how to behave or react to it. In other words, individuals are driven by a desire to be sure about one's own perceptions, attitudes, feelings, behaviors and, ultimately, one's self-concept and place within their social environment (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Hogg et al., 2004). Because diversity is an integral part of the social environment at work, it is expected that individuals will make an effort to understand this aspect of their work environment. Towards this end, individuals should seek out and attach meaning to diversity related events at work and form perceptions of climate for diversity at the organization.

It is important to note, however, that perceptions of climate for diversity may be based, not only on events individuals experience at their organization, but also on their prior experiences with diversity in general. Individuals form schemas, i.e., a set of beliefs, regarding a certain concept based on their experiences, and use them to process related cues from their current environment (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Schemas enable

individuals use their prior knowledge and beliefs in perceiving their interactions with people, events, and other experiences in their current environment. Prior experiences with diversity contribute to individuals' diversity related cognitive schemas, which they may use to interpret current events (McKay & Avery, 2006). For example, individuals' experiences with diversity within the community might affect their perceptions of climate for diversity within their organization (McKay & Avery, 2006; Pugh, Dietz, Brief, & Wiley, 2008).

However, schema-driven information processing is likely to be less important when encoding and interpreting direct and unambiguous diversity cues (McKay & Avery, 2006). For example, the number of minority group members in the organization is likely to be a clear indicator of whether or not the organization values and encourages diversity. An organization with a diverse workforce is likely to be perceived as supportive of and actively promoting diversity compared to an organization with a more homogenous workforce (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; McKay & Avery, 2006; Pugh et al., 2008). Therefore, the more individuals are exposed to diversity within their organization, the more they are likely to hold positive perceptions of climate for diversity at their organization.

Based on the above argument, it seems likely that individuals may perceive their current diversity related work environment based on events they experience at their organization, as well as their prior experiences with diversity. In the present study, both prior and current exposure to diversity were expected to be positively related to individuals' psychological perceptions climate for racial diversity at their organization.

Hypothesis 2. Prior and current exposure to diversity will be positively associated with psychological climate for racial diversity.

Climate for Diversity and Outcomes

Beyond actual demographic diversity, perceptions of diversity are also likely to affect outcomes (Milliken & Martins, 1996). Research in organizations has consistently demonstrated that psychological climate perceptions influence individuals' work related outcomes (Carr et al., 2003; Parker et al., 2003). In the present study, it was expected that individuals' psychological perceptions of the climate for racial diversity in an organization would influence their job attitudes and behaviors.

The notion of strategic climate suggests that the outcomes examined should be specific to the type of climate being studied (Reichers & Schneider, 1990). Empirical evidence also shows that specific climates are predictive of specific outcomes, such as safety (Zohar & Luria, 2005) or service (Gracia, Cifre, & Grau, 2010). However, while past research has examined outcomes such as commitment, turnover, and performance in relation to climate for diversity (Gonzalez & Denisi, 2009; McKay et al., 2007, 2008, 2009), diversity related outcomes have not been explicitly examined. Thus, examining racial understanding and ethnic identity in addition to belonging and performance as outcomes of individuals' perceptions of climate for racial diversity will expand our knowledge of outcomes more proximal to diversity.

Organizations that have a positive climate for diversity enact a value for diversity by actively promoting diversity through policies and practices, and rewarding behaviors consistent with their diversity policies. It seems likely that in an environment that values

and actively promotes diversity, individuals will make an effort to understand racially diverse others. For example, organizations can make it clear through hiring practices that people from different backgrounds are valued because of the variety of skills and experiences they bring to the table. Further, organizations may establish a reward structure such that individuals receive incentives based, at least in part, on team performance, which would emphasize that collaboration and teamwork are expected. If employees understand that diversity is valued and that teamwork is expected and rewarded, it is likely that they will cooperate with team members and work towards accomplishing team goals in an effort to enhance team performance. And, in order to work effectively in a racially diverse team or workgroup, it is necessary to understand and appreciate the perspectives of team members who may belong to racial out-groups. Hence, it is expected that individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity will be positively related to their racial understanding.

With regard to ethnic identity, the rejection-identification model, proposed by Branscombe, Schmitt, and Harvey (1999), suggests that attributions of discrimination affect in-group identification in ethnic minorities. When ethnic minority group members perceive a threat from the ethnic majority group in the form of discrimination or prejudice, they seek a sense of belonging and try to maintain their self-esteem and well-being and thus identify more strongly with their ethnic group (Branscombe et al., 1999). Several studies provide strong empirical evidence for the rejection-identification model, particularly for minorities (Branscombe et al., 1999; Jetten, Branscombe, Schmitt, & Spears, 2001; Purdie-Vaughns, Davies, Steele, Dittmann, & Crosby, 2008; Voci, 2006).

Although Branscombe et al. (1999) particularly studied the perception of threat in ethnic minority groups, their model can be extended to any group that feels threatened in some way. Majority group members may also feel threatened by minority group members, particularly when there is a status differential between the groups (W. Stephan, C. Stephan, & Gudykunst, 1999), as is the case between White and non-White groups.

Conversely, if a positive climate for racial diversity exists in an organization such that individuals are treated equally and with respect regardless of their race, not only are they less likely to feel threatened by out-group members, they are also more likely to feel valued and appreciated. For example, in an organization with a positive climate for diversity, not only are individuals not likely to be marginalized, they might in fact be encouraged to voice their opinion and be included in decision making. In such an environment, individuals are not likely to feel the need to self-enhance because they are valued and respected regardless of their racial background rather than being negatively stereotyped or discriminated against because of their racial background. Therefore, it was expected that climate for racial diversity would be negatively associated with individuals' need to identify with their in-group.

In addition, when individuals do not experience intergroup threat and feel included, they are also likely to feel a greater sense of belonging and inclusion because they feel valued and respected regardless of race. Research has indeed found a positive association between climate for diversity and affective outcomes such as sense of belonging or organizational commitment. When individuals held positive perceptions of diversity at their organization, they had higher commitment to the organization and had lower intentions to quit (Gonzalez & Denisi, 2009; Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000; McKay et

al., 2007). Therefore, it was expected that climate for racial diversity would positively affect individuals' sense of belonging.

In general, research has found a positive link between climate for diversity and performance. When individuals held positive perceptions of diversity at their organization, they performed better (McKay et al., 2008, 2009). One reason for this positive association could be that performance is enhanced because a diverse set of individuals bring diverse ideas to the table and possess a broader skillset than a homogeneous group. Further, when differences are seen as valuable to group functioning, individuals may respond more positively to more diverse groups than to homogeneous groups (Ely & Thomas, 2001; van Knippenberg, Haslam, & Platow, 2007). Thus, individuals' performance in diverse groups is likely to be affected positively in organizations that promote diversity and value diverse ideas, perspectives, and skills.

Another explanation for the positive link between climate for diversity and performance is rooted in stereotype threat (Steele & Aronson, 1995). When a negative stereotype exists about a group, individuals belonging to that group tend to experience threat when there is a possibility that they may be judged and confirm the negative stereotype about their group, or if they are afraid of self-fulfilling the negative stereotype (Steele & Aronson, 1995). In an organization that has a positive climate for racial diversity, individuals are likely to feel valued rather than feel like they are viewed negatively, either individually or as a group. Thus, in such organizations, individuals are not likely to experience high levels of stereotype threat and can therefore be expected to perform better. The present study was also expected to yield a positive association between climate for racial diversity and performance.

Climate for Diversity as a Mediator

Based on the discussion above, we see that both prior and current exposure to diversity may have direct effects on racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and performance. However, exposure to diversity is also likely to increase sensitivity to cues related to diversity being valued in the environment. An environment that provides opportunities to engage with diverse others signals a practice that diversity is valued, thereby heightening climate perceptions about the value of diversity in the organization. And, as argued above, perceptions of climate for racial diversity affect outcomes related to racial diversity. Thus, individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity are a critical mechanism underlying the exposure-outcome relationship. Hence, in addition to exposure to diversity having a direct association with outcomes, it is expected that the relation between exposure and outcomes will be partially mediated by individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity.

Thus, the following relationships are expected:

Hypothesis 3a. The positive association between prior and current exposure to diversity and racial understanding will be partially mediated by psychological climate for racial diversity.

Hypothesis 3b. The positive association between prior and current exposure to diversity and belonging will be partially mediated by psychological climate for racial diversity.

Hypothesis 3c. The negative association between prior and current exposure to diversity and ethnic identity will be partially mediated by psychological climate for racial diversity.

Hypothesis 3d. The positive association between prior and current exposure to diversity and performance will be partially mediated by psychological climate for racial diversity.

Media, Climate for Diversity, and Outcomes

Individuals, particularly when they are new to an organization, seek information to reduce uncertainty and understand their work environment (Miller & Jablin, 1991), and as they learn about and form perceptions of organizational events and attributes, it helps give rise to climate perceptions (Ashforth, 1985). In other words, receipt of information may influence newcomers' psychological perceptions of climate.

Diversity is often an important component of the overall image an organization wants to promote when attracting new talent. Organizations interested in attracting diverse talent particularly want to promote the workplace as valuing minorities and individuals with diverse backgrounds. Towards this end, organizations may deliver information on diversity related policies, procedures, and culture to applicants or new incumbents via various types of media such as recruitment events, company web site, company brochures, external news media, etc. It is important to know whether the medium of communication affects individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for diversity at the organization because this could inform us as to the differential

effectiveness of various types of media in disseminating diversity related information such that message recipients have a favorable perception of diversity at the organization.

Although there is some research on the differential use of information sources for different types of information sought by newcomers in an organization (Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992), there is no work in the organizational literature that looks at media, or communication channels, via which information may be acquired, and it is not known whether media impacts individuals' climate perceptions. Research in organizations has primarily focused upon information seeking (De Vos, Buyens, & Schalk, 2005; Miller, 1996; Morrison, 1993), socialization tactics (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Morrison, 2002; Reichers, 1987), and sensemaking (Harris, 1994; Louis, 1980) in newcomers, but has relatively ignored how organizations disseminate information to newcomers to help them understand their work environment.

However, extensive research in the fields of social psychology and communication has highlighted the importance of information sources in the formation of and change in perceptions and attitudes. Social psychologists have studied the effect of factors such as selection and characteristics of information sources (Bargh, 1982; Ziegler, Diehl, & Ruther, 2002), information processing (Cacioppo & Petty, 1989; Petty & Cacioppo, 1984), message characteristics (Worchel, Andreoli, & Eason, 1975; Rains & Karmikel, 2009), individual differences (Cacioppo, Petty, Feinstein, & Jarvis, 1996; Cacioppo, Petty, Kao, & Rodriguez, 1986), target characteristics (Echterhoff, Lang, Krämer, & Higgins, 2009; Nelson, Wood, & Paek, 2009), and situational factors (Petty & Cacioppo, 1979) on formation of and change in perceptions and attitudes.

In the field of communication, the focus of information related research has been on the media rather than on the message itself. Researchers primarily studied media characteristics, individuals' perception of various types of media (Carlson & Zmud, 1999), individuals' choice or selection of media for gathering information (Daft, Lengel, & Trevino, 1987), and individuals' perception and processing of information presented by various types of media (Daft & Lengel, 1984; Kellermann, 1985; Schmitz & Fulk, 1991; Yoon & Sundar, 2010).

In sum, research in the fields of social psychology and communication clearly point to the relevance of media selection and media characteristics with regard to information processing and message perceptions. However, these factors have not been investigated in conjunction with climate perceptions in organizations. Investigating the impact of media on climate perceptions can enhance our understanding of the effectiveness of various types of media in communicating diversity related messages.

Media richness theory (Daft & Lengel, 1984) is a useful framework for examining the potential impact of various types of media sources on individuals' perceptions and attitudes. First developed from the study of information processing in organizations and later widely adopted in the field of communication, media richness theory places media on a "richness" continuum based on their characteristics because "the physical characteristics of a medium limit the kind and amount of information that can be conveyed" (Lengel & Daft, 1988, p. 226). The concept of media richness is well suited to study the effect of different types of media on individuals' perceptions and attitudes.

According to media richness theory (Daft & Lengel, 1984), media range from being impersonal and static, i.e., “lean,” to personal and dynamic, i.e., “rich.” Media at the high extreme of the richness continuum allow instantaneous feedback, i.e., they are interactive, the message they present can be tailored to a single target rather than being the same for the entire audience, and they have the ability to convey the message through multiple cues. Face-to-face communication, such as a group information session, lies at this end of the richness continuum. This medium allows immediate feedback, the audience can interact in real-time with the presenter, the message can be directed towards a single member of the audience, such as providing additional information relevant to one individual, and the message can be conveyed via cues such as body language and voice in addition to the actual piece of information (Daft & Lengel, 1984).

Media at the low extreme of the richness continuum, on the other hand, do not allow immediate feedback, i.e., the communication is unidirectional from the communicator to the recipient, they convey the message via a single cue, and provide the same message to the entire audience regardless of any individual differences. Examples of such media would be flyers or posters. They present static information to the target audience, do not allow interaction, cannot be personalized to a single audience member, and only convey the message via the print medium (Daft & Lengel, 1984).

The main premise of media richness theory is that for communication to be effective, the medium should match the nature of the message (Daft & Lengel, 1984). Further, the theory posits that although all media can reduce uncertainty by providing information, richer media will be more effective than leaner media in reducing equivocality by conveying information clearly (Daft & Lengel, 1984). Uncertainty is the

lack of information about a situation or a task, whereas equivocality is the existence of ambiguous or conflicting information about a situation or a task (Daft & Lengel, 1984). Media richness theory also takes into account task analyzability, which is the degree to which clear cut procedures exist in order to accomplish a task, and posits that lower the task analyzability, i.e., the more complex the task, the more individuals seek richer media for information regarding the task (Daft & Lengel, 1986; Daft & Macintosh, 1981).

Early on, researchers realized that besides message comprehension, media was an important factor with regard to the intended outcomes of communication. The view that the “medium is the message,” i.e., media can directly affect outcomes by enhancing or diminishing the effectiveness of a message, was first proposed by McLuhan (1964) and later widely adopted in the field of communication. Results of numerous empirical studies that examined the media-outcomes relationship point to a strong relationship between the two. Studies that have examined attitude change (Worchel et al., 1975; Goodman & Truss, 2004), message comprehension (Yaros, 2006), knowledge transfer (Murray & Peyrefitte, 2007), and decision accuracy or time (Adams, Roch, & Ayman, 2005; Dennis & Kinney, 1998; Kahai & Cooper, 2003) as outcomes of receiving messages via different types of media have found evidence for media effects, i.e., type of media affects outcomes.

In the present study, two categories of media: face-to-face and non face-to-face, were investigated in relation to individuals’ psychological perceptions of the organization’s climate for diversity and diversity related outcomes. Face-to-face interactions with organizational representatives at orientations or open house events are considered rich sources. They allow for instantaneous feedback, permit multiple cues

such as verbal messages and body language, and can be tailored to each individual if necessary. Conversely, non face-to-face media such as the organization's web site or mass emails are lean sources. These media sources do not allow feedback, have primarily text- and image-based cues, and are not customized to each individual.

Based on the research cited above, which shows that media type is directly associated with outcomes, it seems likely that receiving information related to diversity at the organization will be directly associated with individuals' racial understanding, sense of belonging, and ethnic identity. Racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity are all related to understanding and being familiar with people from diverse racial backgrounds. As individuals' receive information regarding the diversity related aspects of the environment at their organization, their uncertainty with regard to people from diverse racial backgrounds is likely to reduce.

Information related to diversity is likely to facilitate racial understanding through increased familiarity and decreased uncertainty about racial out-group members. Further, it is known that humans have an inherent need to belong with familiar others rather than strangers (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Therefore, as individuals receive information regarding diversity and become increasingly familiar with their environment, their sense of belonging in that environment will be enhanced. Finally, the primary motivation for social identity is uncertainty reduction (Hogg, 2000). Hence, as uncertainty about racial out-groups reduces with increased information regarding them, the need to identify with one's racial in-group is likely to decrease.

In the present study, all three outcomes were expected to be differentially related to media depending on how effective the media are in communicating the intended

message. In other words, the more effective a message was in reducing uncertainty, the more it was expected to be positively associated with racial understanding and belonging, and negatively associated with ethnic identity. Because face-to-face interaction with organizational representatives allows for a richer form of communication, it was expected to be more effective in communicating diversity related messages. Hence, it was expected that the relationship between media and outcomes would be stronger for face-to-face media than for non face-to-face media.

Therefore, the following relationships were expected:

Hypothesis 4a. The positive association between racial understanding and face-to-face media will be stronger than the positive association between racial understanding and non face-to-face media.

Hypothesis 4b. The positive association between belonging and face-to-face media will be stronger than the positive association between belonging and non face-to-face media.

Hypothesis 4c. The negative association between ethnic identity and face-to-face media will be stronger than the negative association between ethnic identity and non face-to-face media.

Further, according to media richness theory (Daft & Lengel, 1984), using richer media to disseminate equivocal messages is more effective than using leaner media. Thus far, only two studies have theorized and investigated media effects on perceptions in an organizational context using media richness theory (Cable & Yu, 2006; Allen, Scotter, &

Otondo, 2004). Both studies looked at job seekers' perceptions of an organization subsequent to information provided via different media at a recruitment session. The studies found that the type of media affected candidates' image of the organization such that messages received via face-to-face media were perceived more favorably, and were related to more positive perceptions of the organization and greater intentions to pursue employment at the organization compared to non face-to-face media.

Forming perceptions of climate for racial diversity is an equivocal task. Therefore it was predicted that richer media will be more effective in communicating information such as organizational policies, practices, and culture such that it conveys a positive image of the organization with regard to diversity. In accordance with media richness theory and past organizational research that corroborates the premise that richer media does indeed influence individuals' perceptions regarding the organization positively (Cable & Yu, 2006; Allen et al., 2004), the following relationship was expected:

Hypothesis 5. There will be a stronger positive relationship between face-to-face media and psychological climate for racial diversity than between non face-to-face media and psychological climate for racial diversity.

As discussed above, rich media sources were expected to influence individuals' perceptions of climate for racial diversity more than lean sources as their messages are expected to provide individuals with a deeper understanding of the organization's diversity related policies and practices which forms the basis of climate perceptions. In

other words, type of media was expected to influence individuals' perceptions of climate for racial diversity. And, as indicated in the previous section, perceptions of climate for racial diversity are expected to influence diversity related outcomes. Hence, it is expected that psychological climate for racial diversity will partially mediate the media-outcome relationship as follows:

Hypothesis 6a. The positive association between media and racial understanding will be partially mediated by psychological climate for racial diversity.

Hypothesis 6b. The positive association between media and belonging will be partially mediated by psychological climate for racial diversity.

Hypothesis 6c. The negative association between media and ethnic identity will be partially mediated by psychological climate for racial diversity.

Race as a Moderator

Research has shown that diversity is valued more by minority group members such as women and individuals from ethnic minority groups (Mor Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998). Therefore, compared to majority group members, minority group members might make a greater effort to understand the extent to which diversity is valued in an organization. Towards this end, minority group members might pay greater attention to organizational policies and practices related to diversity, their interactions

with other organizational members, or other diversity related experiences they might have, than organizational members belonging to majority groups.

In addition, individuals interpret events differentially based on their past experiences and the relevance the events hold for them personally (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Weick, 1995; Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005). Prior empirical research in the area of diversity has also shown that perceptions of climate for diversity vary by race such that minority group members tend to perceive the organization's efforts to promote diversity more favorably than others (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Parker, Baltes, & Christiansen, 1997). Based on this research, it was expected that the exposure-climate relationship would be stronger for minority group members than for majority group members.

Similar to diversity related events, diversity related information is also likely to be more relevant and salient to minority group members. Because minority group members are more likely to be affected by the diversity related policies of an organization, it can be expected that they will pay more attention to diversity related messages about the organization than majority group members.

There is ample evidence that audience issue involvement, i.e., the degree to which a message is personally relevant to the audience, interacts with message characteristics such as content and framing to moderate message effectiveness in terms of persuasion or attitude change (Flora & Maibach, 1990; M. Millar, & K. Millar, 2000; Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Sinclair, Lovsin, & Moore, 2007; Yun, Nah, & McLeod, 2008; Xiaoli, 2007). And, it is known that individuals with higher levels of issue involvement engage in enhanced message processing (Lieppe & Elkin, 1987; Petty & Cacioppo, 1979, 1984),

which increases the likelihood that the communicated information will influence them (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

Based on this research, it seems likely that because diversity related information is more relevant to minority group members, they will engage in deeper processing of diversity related information, and are therefore more likely to be influenced by the information in forming diversity related perceptions. Hence the media-climate relationship was expected to be stronger for minority group members than for majority group members.

Finally, because minority group members are likely to value diversity and the organization's efforts to promote it more than majority group members (Mor Barak et al., 1998), it is possible that their outcomes will also be more strongly affected by their perceptions of climate for diversity in the organization. Therefore, it is likely that race will moderate the climate-outcome relationship such that the relationship will be stronger for minority group members than for majority group members.

Thus, it was expected that:

Hypothesis 7a. Race will moderate the relationship between antecedents (exposure to diversity and media richness) and psychological climate for racial diversity such that this relationship is stronger for minority group members as compared to their White counterparts.

Hypothesis 7b. Race will moderate the relationship between psychological climate for racial diversity and outcomes such that this

relationship is stronger for minority group members as compared to their White counterparts.

Organizational Tenure

Organizational tenure has been examined with regard to job attitudes such as satisfaction (Kacmar & Ferris, 1989; Sarker, Crossman, & Chinmeteepituck, 2003) and commitment (Cohen, 1993; Wright & Bonnet, 2002), and behaviors such as turnover (Werbel & Gould, 1984), performance (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Sturman, 2003), and innovation (Nai-Wen, Yin-Mei, & Shu-Chi, 2009). However, the role of organizational tenure has received little or no attention in the context of diversity related outcomes.

Drawing again upon Allport's (1954) intergroup contact theory, it is likely that increased duration of intergroup contact in an environment where a positive climate for diversity exists will result in increased racial understanding. Similarly, revisiting the mere exposure effect (Zajonc, 1968), it is expected that increased exposure to a diverse set of people will be associated with increased familiarity and sense of belonging. Finally, as discussed previously, the more members of different groups interact, the more uncertainty regarding out-group members is reduced, and therefore the less the impetus to identify with one's in-group (Hogg, 2000). Hence, the relationship between exposure to diversity and diversity related outcomes is expected to be stronger for longer tenured individuals.

Empirical evidence suggests that tenure has an impact on individuals' psychological perceptions climate (Ostroff & Rothausen, 1997). However, even though the role of organizational tenure with regard to climate perceptions has been known for

some time, it has received scant attention. Although not explicitly examining climate, Burke (1997) found a positive relationship between organizational tenure and perceptions of cultural values among employees (Burke, 1997). And, in a recent study, English, Morrison, and Chalon (2010) found that organizational tenure moderated the relationship between psychological climate and affective commitment such that the relationship was stronger for individuals with longer tenure.

In general, because newcomers to an organization may not be extensively aware of or knowledgeable regarding organizational policies or procedures, they may have more ambiguous perceptions of the climate in the organization. Based on the extensive literature related to newcomer socialization and adjustment, it is clear that newcomers learn about the organization from socialization activities (Bauer et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Morrison, 2002; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Reichers, 1987) and by engaging in active information seeking (De Vos et al., 2005; Miller, 1996; Morrison, 1993), both of which take time. Hence, individuals with longer tenure in the organization are likely to have a more unambiguous and accurate perception of the work environment than newcomers.

In the context of climate for diversity, newcomers' climate perceptions are not likely to be as consistent or accurate as tenured individuals because they are still learning about diversity related policies and procedures followed in the organization that will ultimately inform their perceptions of the climate for diversity at the organization. Based on this rationale, the relationship between exposure to diversity and psychological climate for diversity was expected to be stronger for tenured individuals.

Further, as discussed in a previous section, psychological climate for diversity influences diversity related outcomes. As newcomers' perceptions of the climate for diversity in the organization become more unambiguous and accurate over time, their perceptions are more likely to influence outcomes. Thus, the relationship between climate for diversity and outcomes was expected to be stronger for tenured individuals.

Hypothesis 8. Stronger relationships between antecedents, psychological climate for racial diversity, and outcomes, will be observed for tenured individuals than for newcomers.

Chapter 2: Method

Participants

Archival data collected in 2007 were used for the present study. Two samples were analyzed, both of which comprised undergraduate students at a large university on the east coast. The first sample consisted of 1074 freshmen and the second sample consisted of 1309 juniors and seniors. 203 observations were dropped from the freshman sample and 621 from the junior-senior sample before conducting data analysis, primarily because of missing SAT scores. The final samples analyzed consisted of 871 freshmen and 688 junior-seniors. MANOVAs were performed in both samples to test whether the samples differed significantly with respect to the diversity related variables or the demographic makeup. The dependent variables included the key demographic and the diversity related variables of interest in the current study, and the independent variable was the dichotomous filter, which indicated whether or not an observation was included in the final analysis. Results of the MANOVA omnibus test in both the freshman and the junior-senior samples were non-significant, indicating that there were no significant differences in the sub-samples of included versus excluded participants in either sample.

In the freshman sample, 408 (46.8%) were male and 463 (53.2%) were female. 589 (67.6%) freshmen were White, 85 (9.8%) were African-American, 144 (16.5%) were Asian, and 53 (6.1%) were Hispanic. Participants' age ranged from 18 to 19 years, with an average of 18.06 years ($SD = .23$).

In the junior-senior sample, 361 (52.5%) were male and 327 (47.5%) were female. 467 (67.9%) junior-seniors were White, 75 (10.9%) were African-American, 107 (15.6%) were Asian, and 39 (5.7%) were Hispanic. Participants' age ranged from 19 to 32 years, with an average of 20.67 years ($SD = 1.11$).

Procedure

The data were collected by the Office of Research Administration and Advancement at the university as part of an annually administered survey intended to measure a wide range of individual attitudes and perceptions of the university held by students. Two separate paper-based surveys were administered to the students, one to juniors and seniors in spring 2007, and the other to freshmen in fall 2007 approximately two months after the start of the semester. Both surveys had comparable items for each of the scales measuring the variables of interest.

Both surveys contained measures of current and prior exposure to diversity, climate for diversity, racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity. This allowed for comparisons of climate perceptions and the diversity related outcomes of racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity between newcomers and more experienced individuals.

In addition, the freshman survey contained items regarding media usage, and the junior-senior sample contained measures of performance. Congruent with prior research, which indicates that engaging in information seeking behaviors are primarily a characteristic of newcomers to organizations, hypotheses regarding media usage on diversity related information and climate perceptions were tested only for the freshman

sample. Hypotheses regarding performance were tested only for the junior-senior sample since it is reasonable to assume that climate perceptions are more likely to influence performance in incumbents than in newcomers.

Measures

The item for each of the measures in the surveys administered to the freshman and junior-senior samples are shown in Appendix A.

Antecedents

Exposure to diversity. Participants' exposure to diversity encompasses their exposure to diversity both prior to, as well as during their tenure at the university. Thus, for both samples, exposure to diversity was assessed by participant ratings of the diversity of their community, high school, and social environment as well as their participation in activities either directly promoting or otherwise focusing on diversity at the university. Exposure to diversity prior to enrollment at the university was measured with 3 items using a 5-pt scale ranging from 1 = "much less diverse" to 5 = "much more diverse" to indicate the relative diversity of the university compared to participants' community, high school, and social environment. The extent of current participation in diversity related activities was measured on a 5-pt scale ranging from 1 = "never" to 5 = "very often." Items in the freshman sample included "events that promote diversity" and "organized discussions on race/ethnicity." The junior-senior sample included 2 additional items assessing participation in diverse work groups and in diversity related discussions in the classroom. For the freshman sample, the reliability of the prior exposure to

diversity was high ($\alpha = .86$), and the reliability of the current exposure to diversity scale was acceptable ($\alpha = .60$), considering only 2 items were used to measure participants' current exposure to diversity. For the junior-senior sample, the reliabilities of both the prior exposure to diversity ($\alpha = .83$) and current exposure to diversity scales ($\alpha = .74$) were high.

Media richness. First, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed on the freshman sample to validate the expected underlying factor structure of the items intended to measure participants' perceptions of the usefulness of the various media sources in providing information about diversity at the university. Participants rated the usefulness of the 8 media sources using a 5-pt scale ranging from 1 = "to no extent" to 5 = "to a great extent" and 6 = "did not participate/ read." It was expected that of the 8 items related to media sources, 4 items would measure individuals' perceptions of face-to-face media usefulness and 4 items would measure their perceptions of non face-to-face media usefulness in conveying diversity related information about the university.

The factor structure and loadings of the media source items are presented in Table B1. Based on these results, 4 media sources were categorized as face-to-face sources (rich): campus tours, open house, summer orientation, and new resident orientation, and 4 sources were categorized as non face-to-face sources (lean): news coverage related to the university, posters/ pamphlets/ signs on campus, the university Facebook page, and mass emails from the university.

The chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi^2 = 300.40$, $\Delta df = 1$, $N = 475$, $p < .001$) confirmed that the hypothesized two-factor model fit the data significantly better than the one-factor model. Further, the CFA fit indices for the two-factor structure model were

better than those for the one-factor model. For the two-factor model, the minimum fit function chi square was, $\chi^2 (19, N = 475) = 127.70$, $p < .001$, and other model fit indices were: AIC = 160.87, CFI = 0.95, RMSEA = .11, and SRMR = .06. For the one-factor model, the minimum fit function chi square was $\chi^2 (20, N = 475) = 428.10$, $p < .001$, and other model fit indices were: AIC = 567.14, CFI = 0.82, RMSEA = .23, and SRMR = .10.

Participants' rating of the usefulness of face-to-face media and non face-to-face media were calculated based on their average rating of usefulness (1 through 5) of the 4 items pertaining to each type of medium. If participants rated a media source 6, it was dropped from all analyses. Both the media scales had high reliability, $\alpha = .81$. The reliabilities of the two scales are presented in Table B3.

Psychological Climate for Diversity

Individuals' perception of the extent to which diversity is valued at the university was measured with 6 items reflecting the university's efforts to encourage diversity through events and clubs, encourage different perspectives in classes, respect and value different cultures, make minority group members feel like they "belong" on campus, and treat everyone fairly regardless of race or ethnicity. These items are similar to those used in past research (e.g., McKay et al., 2008, 2009) but are framed specifically for the university environment. Participants rated the items on a 5-pt scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree." The reliability of the climate for diversity scale was high for both the freshman ($\alpha = .84$) and junior-senior ($\alpha = .83$) samples.

Outcomes

The outcomes measured were individuals' levels of racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and performance.

Racial understanding. Individuals' racial understanding was assessed with 4 items. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they were exposed to multiple perspectives, were able to learn about different cultures, and gained a better understanding and appreciation of other cultures. Participants rated the items on a 5-pt scale that ranged from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree." The reliability of the climate for diversity scale was high for the freshman sample ($\alpha = .81$) and acceptable in the junior-senior sample ($\alpha = .71$).

Belonging. Individuals' level of belonging was assessed using a 3-item measure adapted from the 15-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Items assessed the degree to which individuals felt a sense of belonging to the university, were proud to be a part of the university, and were likely to promote the university. Participants rated the items on a 5-pt scale that ranged from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree." The reliability of the belonging scale was high for both the freshman ($\alpha = .85$) and junior-senior ($\alpha = .82$) samples.

Ethnic identity. Individuals' level of ethnic identity was assessed using a 3-item measure adapted from the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) (Phinney, 1992). Items assessed the degree to which individuals identified with their ethnic or racial background, how important ethnic identity was to them, and the degree to which their ethnic identity guided their thinking or behavior. Participants rated the items on a 5-pt scale that ranged from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree." The reliability of the ethnic identity scale was acceptable in the freshman sample ($\alpha = .71$) and high in the junior-senior sample ($\alpha = .79$).

Performance. The performance outcome for the junior-senior sample was students' cumulative GPA, measured on a 4-pt scale.

Moderator Variable

Race. As stated in hypotheses 7a and 7b, racial group membership was expected to have a moderating effect on climate perceptions and diversity related outcomes. Therefore, race was categorized into White, Asian, African-American, and Hispanic, and dummy coded. White was considered the reference group and hence coded 0.

Control Variables

To mitigate their confounding effects on the results, two control variables were utilized: SAT scores and social dominance orientation (SDO).

SAT. SAT scores were used to control for the effect of cognitive ability on performance in the junior-senior sample. Cognitive ability is related to performance on standardized tests such as the SAT (Jensen, 1998). And, it is known that SAT scores are related to academic achievement (Morgan, 1990). Because GPA is a measure of academic achievement and was used as the performance measure in this study, in order to better delineate the association of performance with exposure to diversity and climate perceptions, individuals' SAT scores were used as a control.

In order to assess the impact of organizational tenure in diversity related climate perceptions and outcomes, it was necessary to ensure that the freshman and junior-senior samples were comparable. Because individuals' cognitive ability might impact their general ability to understand the survey items and hence their responses, even though a performance measure was not available in the freshman sample, SAT scores were included as a control in this sample. This ensured that cognitive ability did not confound

the results obtained from the freshman sample, and made it possible to draw conclusions regarding the impact of organizational tenure.

SDO. SDO (Sidanius, 1992; Sidanius & Pratto, 1993, 1999) represents one's preference for a hierarchy of groups in society and was utilized as a control variable to mitigate bias in responses to individuals' climate perceptions. SDO was measured by adopting 4 items from the 16-item SDO scale developed by Pratto and colleagues (Pratto, Sidanius, Stallworth, & Malle, 1994). Participants rated the items on a 5-pt scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree" to indicate their degree of support for discrimination and domination of social groups (Sidanius, 1992; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). The reliability of the SDO scale was acceptable for both the freshman ($\alpha = .78$) and the junior-senior ($\alpha = .63$) samples.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A CFA was performed on both the freshman and the junior-senior sample to validate the expected underlying factor structure of the scales used to measure each of the diversity related constructs: exposure to diversity, climate for diversity, racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and SDO. Results of the CFA, as indicated by the high factor loadings and good model fit indices, confirmed that in both samples, the hypothesized factor structure fit the data well, i.e., each of the items measured the intended construct of interest. For the freshman sample, the minimum fit function chi square for the model was: $\chi^2 (254, N = 827) = 954.67, p < .001$, and model fit indices were: AIC = 1072.13, CFI = 0.96, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .07, indicating a good model fit. For the junior-senior sample, the minimum fit function chi square for the model was: $\chi^2 (303, N = 660) = 934.71, p < .001$, and model fit indices were: AIC = 1117.56, CFI =

0.95, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .06, indicating a good model fit as well. The factor structure and loadings of the items used in the freshman and junior-senior samples are presented in Tables B2 and B8 respectively. In addition, the reliabilities of the freshman and junior-senior scales are presented in Tables B3 and B9 respectively.

Analysis Plan

Hypotheses 1a through 1d predicted positive associations between exposure to diversity and racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and performance. And, hypothesis 2 predicted a positive association between exposure to diversity and individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity. To test these relationships, a series of regressions were conducted whereby climate and each of the outcomes were regressed on prior and current exposure to diversity to determine the extent to which exposure to diversity can predict climate and related outcomes.

Hypotheses 3a through 3d predicted that individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity will partially mediate the relationship between exposure to diversity and racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and performance. To test for mediation, Baron and Kenny's (1986) causal steps method was followed. Thus, the following relationships were tested: (a) exposure to diversity has a direct significant relationship with individual outcomes, (b) exposure to diversity has a direct significant relationship with climate, and (c) exposure to diversity and climate have a significant direct relationship with individual outcomes when considered simultaneously. If all 3 steps were significant for an outcome, and the direct effect of exposure on an outcome was reduced after adding climate in the regression model, it was concluded that climate

partially mediated this relationship. In addition, the Sobel test was performed to confirm the significance of the indirect effect.

Hypotheses 4a through 4c predicted that the relationship between media usefulness and outcomes (racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity), will be stronger for face-to-face media than for non face-to-face media. Similarly, hypothesis 5 predicted that the relationship between individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity and media usefulness will be stronger for face-to-face media than for non-face-to-face media. To test these hypotheses, each of the outcomes and climate were regressed on both types of media. The partial regression coefficients of the two types of media were then compared to determine whether the coefficients of face-to-face media were significantly higher than those of non face-to-face media.

Hypotheses 6a through 6c predicted that individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity will partially mediate the relationship between media usefulness and racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity. To test for mediation, Baron and Kenny's (1986) causal steps method was followed: (a) media richness has a direct significant relationship with individual outcomes, (b) media richness has a direct significant relationship with climate, and (c) media richness and climate have a significant direct relationship with individual outcomes when considered simultaneously. If all 3 steps were significant for an outcome, and the direct effect of media on an outcome was reduced after adding climate in the regression model, it was concluded that climate partially mediated this relationship. In addition, the Sobel test was performed to confirm the significance of the indirect effect.

Hypothesis 7a predicted that race will moderate the relationship between antecedents and climate for racial diversity such that this relationship is stronger for minority group members as compared to their White counterparts. To test the presence of the moderating effect of race, regression analyses were conducted whereby climate was first regressed on the antecedents (exposure to diversity and media richness) and race, followed by the interactions of these antecedents with race, to see if the interactions predicted climate above and beyond the main effect of the antecedents.

Hypothesis 7b predicted that race will moderate the relationship between climate for racial diversity and outcomes such that this relationship is stronger for minority group members as compared to their White counterparts. To test the presence of the moderating effect of race, regression analyses were conducted whereby each of the outcomes (racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and performance) was first regressed on climate and race, then on the interaction of climate with race, and finally on the antecedents, to see if the interactions predicted any of the outcomes above and beyond the main effect of climate, and if the interaction remained significant after adding the main effects of the antecedents in the regression model.

Finally, hypothesis 8 predicted that the relationships between antecedents, climate for racial diversity, and outcomes will be stronger for tenured incumbents than for newcomers. To determine the impact of organizational tenure, the difference between the regression coefficients obtained from analyses conducted to test hypotheses 1a -1c, 2, and 3a -3c for the freshman and junior-senior samples was tested for significance to determine whether exposure to diversity has a greater impact on climate and diversity

related outcomes, and whether climate is a better predictor of diversity related outcomes for tenured individuals than for newcomers.

Chapter 3: Results

The freshman and junior-senior samples were analyzed separately to examine the association among the antecedents, climate perceptions, and outcomes in organizational newcomers versus tenured incumbents. The results obtained from the analyses performed on the two samples were then compared to determine whether these associations were stronger for incumbents than for newcomers. The freshman sample included exposure to diversity and media usefulness as antecedents to climate perceptions, and racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity as the outcomes. On the other hand, the junior-senior sample included only exposure to diversity as an antecedent of climate perceptions, and performance as an outcome in addition to the three in the freshman sample. A summary of the associations between the antecedents, psychological climate, and the outcomes obtained from the regression analyses performed on the freshman and junior-senior samples is provided in Table B15.

Freshman Sample

Means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of the scales administered to the freshman sample, and the zero-order correlations between them are shown in Table B3. With regard to the antecedents studied in the freshman sample, current exposure to diversity was more strongly related to climate for diversity ($r = .15, p < .01$) than was prior exposure to diversity ($r = .05, N.S.$). Current exposure to diversity was also more strongly related to outcomes (correlations ranged from .12 to .25) than was prior

exposure to diversity (correlations ranged from -.03 to .15). As expected, face-to-face media usefulness was more strongly related to climate for diversity ($r = .34, p < .01$) than was non face-to-face media ($r = .30, p < .01$). Additionally, except for the correlation with ethnic identity, in general, face-to-face media usefulness was also more strongly related to outcomes (correlations ranged from .09 to .27) than was non face-to-face media usefulness (correlations ranged from .14 to .25).

With regard to the three outcomes studied in the freshman sample, racial understanding ($r = .63, p < .01$) and belonging ($r = .50, p < .01$) were highly correlated with climate for diversity, whereas the correlation between ethnic identity and climate for diversity was much weaker ($r = .15, p < .01$). Considering these correlations, it was in accordance with expectations that the correlation of ethnic identity with racial understanding ($r = .20, p < .01$) and belonging ($r = .22, p < .01$) were much weaker than the correlation between racial understanding and belonging ($r = .47, p < .01$).

Antecedents

Hypothesis 1. In hypotheses 1a through 1c, it was predicted that exposure to diversity would have a positive association with racial understanding and belonging, and a negative association with ethnic identity. To test these hypotheses, a series of regressions were conducted whereby each of the outcomes was regressed on prior and current exposure to diversity after controlling for SDO, SAT, and race.

Results of these regression analyses are shown in Step 2 of Table B4. After accounting for the controls, the regression models were significant for all three outcomes: racial understanding ($\Delta R^2 = .15, \Delta F = 39.42, p < .01$), belonging ($\Delta R^2 = .08, \Delta F = 18.21, p < .01$), and ethnic identity ($\Delta R^2 = .02, \Delta F = 5.42, p < .01$). As indicated by these results,

exposure to diversity accounted for the greatest amount of variance in racial understanding followed by belonging and ethnic identity.

Both prior exposure ($\beta = .09, p < .01$) and current exposure ($\beta = .18, p < .01$) to diversity significantly predicted racial understanding. With regard to belonging, however, current exposure to diversity had a significant relationship with belonging ($\beta = .11, p < .01$), while prior exposure did not ($\beta = .04, N.S.$). Likewise, prior exposure to diversity did not have a significant relationship with ethnic identity ($\beta = .03, N.S.$), and contrary to predictions, current exposure had a significant positive relationship with ethnic identity ($\beta = .09, p < .05$). Thus, in the freshman sample, hypothesis 1a was fully supported, hypothesis 1b was partially supported, and hypothesis 1c was not supported.

Hypothesis 2. In hypothesis 2, it was predicted that exposure to diversity would have a positive association with climate for racial diversity. To test this hypothesis, regression analysis was conducted whereby climate was regressed on prior and current exposure to diversity after controlling for SDO, SAT, and race.

Results of this regression analysis are shown in Table B5. After accounting for the controls, the regression model was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .15, \Delta F = 39.87, p < .01$). However, only current exposure to diversity had a significant relationship with climate ($\beta = .07, p < .01$), prior exposure did not ($\beta = .02, N.S.$). Thus, in the freshman sample, hypothesis 2 was partially supported.

Hypothesis 4. In hypotheses 4a through 4c, it was predicted that the relationship between media usefulness and outcomes (racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity), would be stronger for face-to-face media than for non face-to-face media. To test these hypotheses, each of the outcomes was regressed on both types of media, and

the differences between the partial regression coefficients of the two types of media were calculated. As outlined by Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken (2002, pp. 640-641), t-tests at the .05 significance level were then conducted to compare partial regression coefficients obtained from the same sample to determine whether the regression coefficients of face-to-face media were significantly higher than those of non face-to-face media.

The results of these regression analyses are shown in Step 2 of Table B4. As expected, the regression coefficients of face-to-face media for racial understanding ($\beta = .11, p < .01$) and belonging ($\beta = .15, p < .01$) were higher than the regression coefficients of non face-to-face media for racial understanding ($\beta = .10, p < .01$) and belonging ($\beta = .06, p < .05$). On the contrary, for ethnic identity, the regression coefficient of face-to-face media ($\beta = .03, N.S.$) was lower than the regression coefficient of non face-to-face media ($\beta = .08, p < .05$). However, t-tests indicated that media usefulness did not have a significant differential relationship with outcomes based on media type. Thus, hypotheses 4a-4c were not supported.

Hypothesis 5. In hypothesis 5, it was predicted that the relationship between media usefulness and climate for racial diversity would be stronger for face-to-face media than for non face-to-face media. Specifically, it was expected that the relationship between individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity and media usefulness would be stronger for face-to-face media than for non-face-to-face media. To test this hypothesis, climate was regressed on both types of media and the difference between the partial regression coefficients of each medium was calculated. As outlined by Cohen et al. (2002, pp. 640-641), t-tests at the .05 significance level were then conducted to compare partial regression coefficients obtained from the same sample to

determine whether the regression coefficients of face-to-face media were significantly higher than that of non face-to-face media.

The results of these regression analyses are shown in Table B5. As expected, the regression coefficient of face-to-face media ($\beta = .16, p < .01$) was higher than that of non face-to-face media ($\beta = .11, p < .01$). However, the t-test did not indicate that climate had a significantly stronger positive relationship with face-to-face media than with non face-to-face media ($t = 1.52, N.S.$). Thus, hypothesis 5 was not supported.

In sum, in the freshman sample, as expected, both prior and current exposure to diversity had a positive association with racial understanding. However, only current exposure to diversity had a positive association with belonging and, contrary to expectations, with ethnic identity. Further, only current exposure to diversity was positively associated with psychological climate for racial diversity. Finally, media richness was not associated with psychological climate or any of the outcomes as originally hypothesized.

Climate as a Mediator

Hypothesis 3. In hypothesis 3a through 3c, it was predicted that individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity would partially mediate the relationship between prior and current exposure to diversity and outcomes: racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity. As outlined in the analysis plan, Baron and Kenny's (1986) causal steps method was followed to test these hypotheses.

The first step of Baron and Kenny's (1986) method, testing for the presence of a significant direct association between exposure to diversity and outcomes above and beyond the controls, was performed in order to test hypotheses 1a through 1c. Results of

these regression analyses are shown in Step 2 of Table B4. As discussed when presenting the results for hypothesis 1, overall, the regression analyses indicated the presence of a significant direct association between exposure to diversity and all three outcomes, racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity. However, while both prior and current exposure to diversity were significant predictors of racial understanding, only current exposure to diversity was a significant predictor of belonging and ethnic identity.

Second, regression analysis was conducted to determine the presence of a significant direct relationship between exposure to diversity and climate perceptions. As indicated by the regression coefficients shown in Table B5, only current exposure to diversity was a significant predictor of climate ($\beta = .07, p < .01$).

Finally, regression analyses were conducted to determine whether exposure to diversity and climate had a significant relationship with each of the outcomes when considered simultaneously. These results are presented in Step 3 of Table B4. Climate was a significant predictor of all three outcomes: racial understanding ($\beta = .65, p < .01$), belonging ($\beta = .61, p < .01$), and ethnic identity ($\beta = .24, p < .01$). And, compared to the regression models testing the direct association of exposure to diversity on each of the outcomes, the models including climate as an additional predictor explained a significantly larger amount of variance in all three outcomes: racial understanding ($\Delta R^2 = .26, \Delta F = 403.97, p < .01$), belonging ($\Delta R^2 = .18, \Delta F = 217.26, p < .01$), and ethnic identity ($\Delta R^2 = .02, \Delta F = 21.42, p < .01$). These results indicated that climate for racial diversity mediated the relationship between current exposure to diversity and all three outcomes, whereas prior exposure to diversity had a direct association with racial understanding.

To determine whether climate acted as a full or partial mediator of the relationship between current exposure to diversity and outcomes, the regression coefficients of the direct association between current exposure to diversity and outcomes (shown in Step 2, Table B4) were compared to the regression coefficients of the association between current exposure to diversity and outcomes after adding climate to the regression model (shown in Step 3, Table B4). If the regression coefficients of current exposure to diversity reduced, but remained significant after including climate as a predictor, it was concluded that climate acted as a partial mediator of the relationship. On the other hand, if the regression coefficients of current exposure were no longer significant after including climate as a predictor, it was concluded that climate acted as a full mediator of the relationship. Further, the Sobel test was performed to test the significance of the indirect effect of exposure to diversity on outcomes through climate perceptions.

For racial understanding, after adding climate in the regression model, the current exposure coefficient reduced, but remained significant ($\beta = .14, p < .01$). In addition, the Sobel test was significant ($z = 3.46, p < .01$). Similarly for belonging, after adding climate in the regression model, the current exposure coefficient reduced, but remained significant ($\beta = .07, p < .05$). In addition, the Sobel test was significant ($z = 3.41, p < .01$). For ethnic identity, however, after adding climate in the regression model, the current exposure coefficient was no longer significant ($\beta = .07, N.S.$). In addition, the Sobel test was significant ($z = 2.83, p < .01$).

The reduced, but significant, regression coefficients of current exposure to diversity in predicting racial understanding and belonging indicated that climate for racial

diversity acted as a partial mediator of these relationships. The non-significant regression coefficient of current exposure to diversity in predicting ethnic identity indicated that climate fully mediated this relationship. The results of the Sobel test further confirmed that the indirect effect of current exposure on the three outcomes through climate perceptions was significant. Because prior exposure to diversity was associated with outcomes, but not with climate for racial diversity, it was concluded that climate did not mediate this relationship. Hence, in the freshman sample, hypotheses 3a and 3b were partially supported, while hypothesis 3c was not supported.

Hypothesis 6. In hypotheses 6a through 6c, it was predicted that individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity would partially mediate the relationship between media usefulness and outcomes: racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity. As outlined in the analysis plan, Baron and Kenny's (1986) causal steps method was followed to test these hypotheses.

First, regression analyses were conducted to determine the presence of a significant direct association between media usefulness and the outcomes of racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity. As shown in Step 2 of Table B4, the regression analyses yielded significant results. After accounting for the controls, the model including both types of media usefulness as predictors explained a significant amount of variance in racial understanding ($\Delta R^2 = .15$, $\Delta F = 39.42$, $p < .01$), belonging ($\Delta R^2 = .08$, $\Delta F = 18.21$, $p < .01$), and ethnic identity ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $\Delta F = 5.42$, $p < .01$).

With regard to the extent to which each type of media predicted outcomes, face-to-face media was a significant predictor of racial understanding ($\beta = .11$, $p < .01$) and belonging ($\beta = .15$, $p < .01$), but not ethnic identity ($\beta = .03$, *N.S.*). Non face-to-face

media, however, was a significant predictor of all three outcomes: racial understanding ($\beta = .10, p < .01$), belonging ($\beta = .06, p < .05$), and ethnic identity ($\beta = .08, p < .05$).

Second, regression analysis was conducted to determine the presence of a significant direct relationship between media usefulness and climate. As indicated by the regression coefficients, shown in Table B5, both face-to-face media ($\beta = .16, p < .01$) and non face-to-face media ($\beta = .11, p < .01$) were significant predictors of climate.

Finally, regression analyses were conducted to determine whether media usefulness and climate had a significant relationship with each of the outcomes when considered simultaneously. These results are presented in Step 3 of Table B4. As discussed when presenting the results for hypothesis 3, climate was a significant predictor of all three outcomes: racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity. And, compared to the regression models testing the direct association of media usefulness on each of the outcomes, the models including climate as an additional predictor explained a significantly larger amount of variance in all three outcomes. These results indicated that climate for racial diversity mediated the relationship between both types of media usefulness and two of the outcomes, racial understanding and belonging, and the relationship between non face-to-face media and ethnic identity.

To determine whether climate acted as a full or partial mediator of the relationship between media usefulness and outcomes, the regression coefficients of the direct association between both types of media usefulness and outcomes (shown in Step 2, Table B4) were compared to the regression coefficients of the association between both types of media usefulness and outcomes after adding climate to the regression model (shown in Step 3, Table B4). If the regression coefficients of media usefulness reduced,

but remained significant after including climate as a predictor, it was concluded that climate acted as a partial mediator of the relationship. On the other hand, if the regression coefficients of media usefulness were no longer significant after including climate as a predictor, it was concluded that climate acted as a full mediator of the relationship. Further, the Sobel test was performed to test the significance of the indirect effect of media usefulness on outcomes through climate perceptions.

For racial understanding, after adding climate to the regression model, both face-to-face media ($\beta = .01, N.S.$) and non face-to-face media ($\beta = .03, N.S.$) coefficients were no longer significant. In addition, the Sobel tests for face-to-face media ($z = 7.50, p < .01$) and non face-to-face media ($z = 5.33, p < .01$) were significant.

Similarly, for belonging, after adding climate to the regression model, both face-to-face media ($\beta = .06, N.S.$) and non face-to-face media ($\beta = -.01, N.S.$) coefficients were no longer significant. In addition, the Sobel tests for both face-to-face media ($z = 7.08, p < .01$) and non face-to-face media ($z = 5.17, p < .01$) were significant.

For ethnic identity, after adding climate to the regression model, both the face-to-face media ($\beta = -.01, N.S.$) and the non face-to-face media ($\beta = .06, N.S.$) coefficients were non-significant. The prior exposure coefficient was non-significant both prior to and after adding climate to the regression model, whereas the current exposure coefficient was significant prior to, but was no longer significant after adding climate to the regression model. In addition, the Sobel tests for both face-to-face media ($z = 4.12, p < .01$) and non face-to-face media ($z = 3.62, p < .01$) were significant.

Psychological climate for racial diversity was expected to partially mediate the relationship between media usefulness and outcomes. However, the non-significant

regression coefficients of the two types of media usefulness for the three outcomes along with the significant Sobel tests indicated full mediation by climate. Thus, hypotheses 6a-6c were not supported.

In sum, in the freshman sample, psychological climate for racial diversity partially mediated the relationship between current exposure to diversity and two of the outcomes, racial understanding and belonging, and fully mediated the relationship between current exposure and ethnic identity. Further, psychological climate for racial diversity fully mediated the relationship between both types of media usefulness and two of the outcomes, racial understanding and belonging, and between non face-to-face media usefulness and ethnic identity.

Race as a Moderator

Hypothesis 7. It was predicted that race would moderate the relationship between antecedents and climate for racial diversity (hypothesis 7a), and the relationship between climate for racial diversity and outcomes (hypothesis 7b).

To detect the presence of the moderating effect of race on the antecedents-climate relationship, regression analyses were conducted whereby climate was first regressed on the antecedents (exposure to diversity and media) and race, followed by the interactions of these antecedents and race, to see if the interactions predicted climate above and beyond the main effect of the antecedents. Results of these regression analyses are shown in Table B6. As indicated by the non-significant regression coefficients, race did not have a direct association with climate for racial diversity. Further, the non-significant regression coefficients of the interaction of the antecedents and race, indicated that race

did not have a moderating effect on these relationships. Thus, in the freshman sample, hypothesis 7a was not supported.

To detect the presence of the moderating effect of race on the climate-outcomes relationship, regression analyses were conducted whereby each of the outcomes (racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity) was first regressed on climate and race, then on the interaction of climate and race, and finally on the antecedents. If the interactions predicted any of the outcomes above and beyond the main effect of climate, and if the interaction remained significant after the addition of the antecedents of climate in the regression model, it was concluded that race moderated the relationship between climate and that outcome.

Results of these regression analyses are shown in Table B7. As indicated by the non-significant regression coefficients, race did not have a direct association with racial understanding (Asian: $\beta = -.02$, *N.S.*; African-American: $\beta = -.03$, *N.S.*; Hispanic: $\beta = .14$, *N.S.*). Further, the relationship between climate and racial understanding was moderated by race only for Hispanics ($\beta = .24$, $p < .05$).

The direct association between race and belonging was mixed. Race had a direct association with belonging for Asians ($\beta = -.31$, $p < .01$) and African-Americans ($\beta = -.20$, $p < .01$), but not for Hispanics ($\beta = .01$, *N.S.*). And, the relationship between climate and belonging was moderated by race for Asians ($\beta = .25$, $p < .05$) and Hispanics ($\beta = .35$, $p < .05$).

The direct association between race and ethnic identity was also mixed. Race had a direct association with ethnic identity for Asians ($\beta = .57$, $p < .01$) and African-Americans ($\beta = .51$, $p < .01$), but not for Hispanics ($\beta = .15$, *N.S.*). However, the

relationship between climate and ethnic identity was moderated by race for Hispanics ($\beta = .46, p < .05$).

As indicated by these results, illustrated in Figures B1, B2, and B3, race moderated the relationship between climate for racial diversity and all three outcomes for Hispanics, and the relationship between climate and belonging for Asians such that these relationships were stronger than the climate-outcomes relationship for Whites. Thus, in the freshman sample, hypothesis 7b was partially supported.

In sum, in the freshman sample, race did not have a direct association with psychological climate for racial diversity or moderate the relationship between the antecedents (exposure to diversity and media usefulness) and psychological climate. However, the relationships between psychological climate and all three outcomes, racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity, were significantly stronger for Hispanics. Additionally, the relationship between psychological climate and belonging was significantly higher for Asians.

Junior-Senior Sample

Means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of the scales administered to the junior-senior sample, and the zero-order correlations between them are shown in Table B9. In general, the pattern of correlations in the junior-senior sample was similar to that of the freshman sample for outcomes, but not for antecedents of climate. With regard to the antecedents, prior exposure to diversity was more strongly related to climate for diversity ($r = .16, p < .01$) than was current exposure to diversity ($r = .13, p < .01$). However, current exposure to diversity was more strongly related to outcomes

(correlations ranged from .08 to .39) than was prior exposure to diversity (correlations ranged from -.06 to .16).

With regard to the four outcomes studied in the junior-senior sample, racial understanding ($r = .48, p < .01$) and belonging ($r = .45, p < .01$) were highly correlated with climate for diversity, whereas the correlations of ethnic identity ($r = .04, N.S.$) and performance ($r = .08, p < .05$) with climate for diversity were much weaker. Considering these correlations, it was in accordance with expectations that the correlation between racial understanding and belonging ($r = .30, p < .01$) was much higher than the correlations of these variables with ethnic identity and performance, which ranged from -.06 to .17.

Antecedents

Hypothesis 1. In hypotheses 1a through 1d, it was predicted that exposure to diversity would have a direct association with diversity related outcomes: racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and performance. To test these hypotheses, a series of regressions were conducted whereby each of the outcomes was regressed on prior and current exposure to diversity, after controlling for SDO, SAT, and race.

Results of these regression analyses are shown in Step 2 of Table B10. After accounting for the controls, the regression models were significant for all four outcomes: racial understanding ($\Delta R^2 = .18, \Delta F = 75.25, p < .01$), belonging ($\Delta R^2 = .03, \Delta F = 11.72, p < .01$), ethnic identity ($\Delta R^2 = .04, \Delta F = 16.40, p < .01$), and performance ($\Delta R^2 = .02, \Delta F = 8.92, p < .01$). As indicated by these results, exposure to diversity accounted for the greatest amount of variance in racial understanding followed by belonging, ethnic identity, and performance.

Both prior and current exposure to diversity significantly predicted racial understanding ($\beta = .11, p < .01$ and $\beta = .29, p < .01$, respectively) and belonging ($\beta = .10, p < .01$ and $\beta = .14, p < .01$, respectively). However, only current exposure significantly predicted performance ($\beta = .09, p < .01$). And, contrary to expectations, current exposure had a significant positive association with ethnic identity ($\beta = .21, p < .01$). Thus, in the junior-senior sample, hypotheses 1a and 1b were fully supported, hypothesis 1c was not supported, and hypothesis 1d was partially supported.

Hypothesis 2. In hypothesis 2, it was predicted that exposure to diversity would have a positive association with climate for racial diversity. To test this hypothesis, regression analysis was conducted whereby climate was regressed on prior and current exposure to diversity after controlling for SDO, SAT, and race.

Results of these regression analyses are shown in Table B11. After accounting for the controls, the regression model was significant ($\Delta R^2 = .04, \Delta F = 15.96, p < .01$). Both prior exposure ($\beta = .07, p < .01$) and current exposure ($\beta = .13, p < .01$) to diversity had a significant relationship with climate. Thus, in the junior-senior sample, hypothesis 2 was fully supported.

In sum, in the junior-senior sample, as expected, both prior and current exposure to diversity had a positive association with racial understanding and belonging. However, only current exposure to diversity had a positive association with performance and, contrary to expectations, with ethnic identity. Further, both prior and current exposure to diversity were positively associated with psychological climate for racial diversity.

Climate as a Mediator

Hypothesis 3. In hypotheses 3a through 3d, it was predicted that individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity would partially mediate the relationship between prior and current exposure to diversity and the outcomes of racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and performance. As outlined in the analysis plan, Baron and Kenny's (1986) causal steps method was followed to test these hypotheses.

The first step of Baron and Kenny's (1986) method, testing the presence of a significant direct association between exposure to diversity and the outcomes above and beyond the controls, was performed in order to test hypotheses 1a through 1d. Results of these regression analyses are shown in Step 2 of Table B10. As discussed when presenting the results for hypothesis 1, overall, the regression analyses indicated the presence of a significant direct association between exposure to diversity and all four outcomes, racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and performance, although prior exposure to diversity did not predict ethnic identity or performance.

Second, regression analysis was conducted to determine the presence of a significant direct relationship between exposure to diversity and climate. As indicated by the regression coefficients, shown in Table B11, both prior exposure ($\beta = .07, p < .01$) and current exposure ($\beta = .13, p < .01$) to diversity were significant predictors of climate.

Finally, regression analyses were conducted to determine whether exposure to diversity and climate had a significant relationship with each of the outcomes when considered simultaneously. These results are presented in Step 3 of Table B10. Climate was a significant predictor of all outcomes except performance: racial understanding ($\beta =$

.43, $p < .01$), belonging ($\beta = .57, p < .01$), and ethnic identity ($\beta = .15, p < .01$). And, compared to the regression models testing the direct association of exposure to diversity on each of the outcomes, the models including climate as an additional predictor explained a significantly larger amount of variance in these three outcomes: racial understanding ($\Delta R^2 = .16, \Delta F = 168.42, p < .01$), belonging ($\Delta R^2 = .15, \Delta F = 130.24, p < .01$), and ethnic identity ($\Delta R^2 = .01, \Delta F = 8.71, p < .01$). These results indicated that climate for racial diversity mediated the relationship between exposure to diversity and all outcomes except performance.

To determine whether climate acted as a full or partial mediator of the relationship between exposure to diversity and these three outcomes, the regression coefficients of the direct association between exposure to diversity and outcomes (shown in Step 2, Table 10) were compared to the regression coefficients of the association between exposure to diversity and outcomes after adding climate to the regression model (shown in Step 3, Table 10). If the regression coefficients of exposure to diversity reduced, but remained significant after including climate as a predictor, it was concluded that climate acted as a partial mediator of the relationship. On the other hand, if the regression coefficients of exposure were no longer significant after including climate as a predictor, it was concluded that climate acted as a full mediator of the relationship. Further, the Sobel test was performed to test the significance of the indirect effect of exposure to diversity on outcomes through climate perceptions.

For racial understanding, after adding climate in the regression model, both the prior exposure ($\beta = .08, p < .01$) and the current exposure ($\beta = .24, p < .01$) coefficients

reduced, but remained significant. In addition, the Sobel tests for prior exposure ($z = 3.40, p < .01$) and current exposure ($z = 4.15, p < .01$) to diversity were significant.

For belonging, after adding climate in the regression model, both the prior exposure ($\beta = .06, N.S.$) and the current exposure ($\beta = .07, N.S.$) to diversity coefficients were no longer significant. In addition, the Sobel tests for prior exposure ($z = 3.35, p < .01$) and current exposure ($z = 4.05, p < .01$) to diversity were significant.

For ethnic identity, after adding climate in the regression model, the prior exposure coefficient was non-significant ($\beta = .04, N.S.$) and the current exposure coefficient reduced, but remained significant ($\beta = .19, p < .05$). The prior exposure coefficient was non-significant both prior to and after adding climate in the regression model, whereas the current exposure coefficient was significant prior to, but was no longer significant after adding climate to the regression model. In addition, the Sobel tests for prior exposure ($z = 2.28, p < .05$) and current exposure ($z = 2.47, p < .01$) to diversity were significant.

The reduced, but significant, regression coefficients of both prior and current exposure to diversity in predicting racial understanding indicated that climate for racial diversity acted as a partial mediator of this relationship. The non-significant regression coefficients of both prior and current exposure to diversity in predicting belonging indicated that climate for racial diversity acted as a full mediator of this relationship. Finally, the reduced, but significant, regression coefficient of current exposure to diversity in predicting ethnic identity indicated that climate for racial diversity acted as a partial mediator of this relationship. The results of the Sobel test further confirmed that the indirect effect of current exposure on the three outcomes through climate perceptions

was significant. However, because climate was not a significant predictor of performance, it indicated that climate did not mediate this relationship. Hence, in the junior-senior sample, hypotheses 3a was fully supported, hypothesis 3c was partially supported, and hypotheses 3b and 3d were not supported.

In sum, in the junior-senior sample, psychological climate for racial diversity partially mediated the relationship between both prior and current exposure to diversity and racial understanding, and the relationship between current exposure and ethnic identity. Additionally, psychological climate fully mediated the relationship between both prior and current exposure and belonging. However, psychological climate did not mediate the relationship between exposure and performance.

Race as a Moderator

Hypothesis 7. It was predicted that race would moderate the relationship between antecedents and climate for racial diversity (hypothesis 7a), and the relationship between climate for racial diversity and outcomes (hypothesis 7b).

To detect the presence of the moderating effect of race on the antecedents-climate relationship, regression analyses were conducted whereby climate was first regressed on the antecedents (prior and current exposure to diversity) and race, followed by the interactions of exposure and race, to see if the interactions predicted climate above and beyond the main effect of exposure. Results of these regression analyses are shown in Table B12. As indicated by the regression coefficients (Asian: $\beta = -.31, p < .01$; African-American: $\beta = -.49, p < .01$; Hispanic: $\beta = -.27, p < .05$), race had a direct association with climate for racial diversity. Further, interactions of exposure and race indicated that race moderated the relationship between current exposure to diversity and climate for

racial diversity for African-Americans ($\beta = -.24, p < .01$) and Hispanics ($\beta = -.30, p < .05$). Additionally, the regression model including the interaction of exposure and race explained a significant amount of variance in climate above and beyond the main effect of race ($\Delta R^2 = .02, \Delta F = 2.91, p < .05$). However, contrary to expectations, as shown in Figure B4, the current exposure-climate relationship was stronger for Whites than for African-Americans and Hispanics. Thus, in the junior-senior sample, hypothesis 7a was not supported.

To detect the presence of the moderating effect of race on the climate-outcomes relationship, regression analyses were conducted whereby each of the outcomes (racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and performance) was first regressed on climate and race, then on the interaction of climate and race, and finally on the antecedents. If the interactions predicted any of the outcomes above and beyond the main effect of climate, and if the interaction remained significant after the addition of the main effects of all the antecedents in the regression model, it was concluded that race moderated the relationship between climate and the outcome.

Results of these regression analyses are shown in Table B13. In general, race did not have a direct association with racial understanding except for African-Americans ($\beta = .15, p < .05$). Further, the relationship between climate and racial understanding was moderated by race for African-Americans ($\beta = -.18, p < .05$) and Hispanics ($\beta = -.27, p < .05$), but not for Asians ($\beta = .03, N.S.$). Additionally, the regression model including the interaction of exposure and race explained a significant amount of variance in racial understanding above and beyond the main effect of race ($\Delta R^2 = .10, \Delta F = 51.59, p < .01$).

In addition, race had a direct association with ethnic identity (Asian: $\beta = .59, p < .01$; African-American: $\beta = .74, p < .01$; Hispanic: $\beta = .45, p < .01$). However, the relationship between climate and ethnic identity was not moderated by race. Further, surprisingly, race did not have a direct effect on belonging or performance, or moderate the exposure-belonging or exposure-performance relationships.

As indicated by these results, race moderated the relationship between climate for diversity and racial understanding for African-Americans and Hispanics. However, contrary to expectations, as shown in Figure B4, the exposure-climate relationship was stronger for Whites than for African-Americans and Hispanics. Thus, in the junior-senior sample, hypothesis 7b was not supported.

In sum, in the junior-senior sample, race had a direct association with psychological climate for racial diversity and moderated the relationship between the current exposure to diversity and psychological climate such that it was significantly weaker for Hispanics and African-Americans. Additionally, the relationship between psychological climate and racial understanding was also weaker for Hispanics and African-Americans.

Sample Comparison

In hypothesis 8, it was predicted that the relationships between antecedents, climate for racial diversity, and outcomes would be stronger for tenured incumbents than for newcomers. The relationships between exposure to diversity and climate perceptions for newcomers and incumbents were obtained from regression analyses conducted to test hypotheses 1 and 2 in the two samples. The differences between the regression

coefficients obtained from the two samples were calculated and 95% confidence intervals (*CI*) constructed around the differences. The bounds of the confidence intervals determined whether the regression coefficients obtained from the junior-senior sample were significantly higher than those obtained from the freshman sample,

If both the lower and upper bounds of a *CI* were above 0, it indicated that the regression coefficient of the junior-senior sample was significantly larger than that of the freshman sample, i.e., the strength of the relationship was higher among individuals with greater organizational tenure. On the other hand, if both the lower and upper limits of a *CI* were below 0, it indicated that the regression coefficient of the junior-senior sample was significantly smaller than that of the freshman sample, i.e., the strength of the relationship was lower among individuals with greater organizational tenure. Finally, if the lower and upper bounds of the *CI* included 0, it indicated that the regression coefficients of two samples did not differ significantly, i.e., the strength of the relationship was similar regardless of individuals' organizational tenure.

Results of the comparison of regression coefficients between the freshman and junior-senior samples are shown in Table B14. As indicated by the positive *CI*s, current exposure to diversity had a significantly stronger positive relationship with racial understanding ($CI_{.95} = .04, .16, p < .01$) and ethnic identity ($CI_{.95} = .01, .23, p < .05$) in the junior-senior sample. The stronger positive current exposure-racial understanding relationship in the junior-senior sample was as expected. However, although the current exposure-ethnic identity relationship was expected to be stronger in the junior-senior sample, as stated in hypothesis 1c, the relationship was expected to be negative in both samples. Additionally, also contrary to expectations, as indicated by the negative *CI*, the

current climate perceptions-racial understanding relationship was stronger in the freshman sample ($CI_{.95} = -.30, -.14, p < .01$).

In sum, current exposure to diversity was a better predictor of racial understanding and ethnic identity in individuals with greater organizational tenure, whereas individuals' climate perception was a better predictor of their racial understanding in newcomers than in tenured incumbents. The remaining CI s included 0, indicating that the strength of these relationships did not differ significantly in the two samples. Thus, overall, the results for hypothesis 8 were weak.

Chapter 4: Discussion

The primary objective of the present study was to examine some of the factors that contribute to individuals' perceptions of climate for racial diversity in organizations. Another objective of the study was to expand our knowledge of outcomes related to individuals' perceptions of climate for racial diversity. The final objective of the study was to examine the role of organizational tenure on climate perceptions and outcomes. In essence, by examining some of the antecedents and outcomes of climate for racial diversity, the present study attempted to expand the nomological network surrounding individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity.

Based on extensive research conducted in the areas of climate and information processing in organizations, and drawing from theories in the fields of psychology and communication, the following relationships were proposed and examined: (a) the extent to which individuals come in contact with a diverse set of people and the extent to which they receive information regarding diversity in the organization from various communication media are associated with their racial understanding, sense of belonging, ethnic identity, and performance; (b) individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for racial diversity partially mediates the relationship between antecedents (exposure to diversity and receipt of information regarding diversity) and outcomes of diversity; (c) face-to-face communication media are more effective in communicating diversity related messages; and (d) individuals' race moderates the antecedents-climate and climate-outcomes relationships.

These relationships were tested in two samples, college freshmen and junior-seniors. This allowed for replication of some of the hypotheses, as well as testing the notion that tenure would be associated with stronger relationships among antecedents, climate perceptions, and outcomes. Results generally supported the model and hypotheses.

Individuals' climate perceptions partially mediated the relationship between their exposure to diversity and outcomes, and fully mediated the relationship between the extent to which they received information regarding diversity and outcomes. However, results with regard to race as a moderator of the relationships between antecedents, climate perceptions, and outcomes were weak. Among organizational newcomers, the relationship between climate perceptions and outcomes was moderated by race primarily for Hispanics. And, among tenured incumbents, a few of the relationships were moderated by race for African-Americans and Hispanics. Finally, results with regard to organizational tenure were also weak. With a few exceptions, the relationships among antecedents, climate perceptions, and outcomes were largely similar in the two samples.

Contrary to expectations, although the extent to which individuals received information regarding diversity at the organization was associated with their climate perceptions, the type of media source utilized in obtaining this information was not differentially associated with their climate perceptions. Another surprising finding was that individuals' ethnic identity was positively related to their exposure to diversity and their climate perceptions. These findings are discussed in detail below.

Climate for Diversity as a Mediator

Exposure to diversity was expected to increase sensitivity to cues related to diversity being valued in the environment. Further, because a diverse work environment signals that diversity is valued, it was expected to enhance climate perceptions regarding the extent to which diversity is valued and promoted in the organization. And, based on the notion of strategic climate (Reichers & Schneider, 1990), individuals' perceptions of climate for racial diversity were expected to affect their outcomes related to racial diversity. Thus, it was proposed that individuals' perceptions of climate for racial diversity are a critical mechanism underlying the exposure-outcome relationship. Hence, it was expected that the relation between exposure and outcomes would be partially mediated by individuals' climate for racial diversity perceptions.

Results indicated that individuals' climate perceptions are indeed a critical mechanism underlying the exposure-outcome relationship. In both samples, in general, climate partially mediated the exposure-outcomes relationship. It should be noted, however, that results of the mediation analyses in the freshman sample revealed mediation of climate only for the relationship between current exposure to diversity and outcomes.

One explanation for this finding could be that newcomers, more than tenured incumbents, focus on trying to understand their organization and learn about the diversity related aspects of their new environment. Therefore, they may rely more on immediate cues (i.e., their experiences with diversity within the organization) to form their perceptions of the climate for racial diversity, rather than relying on their experiences

with diversity prior to joining the organization. Moreover, because interaction with a diverse set of people within the organization is a clear and unambiguous indication of the diversity related environment of the organization, newcomers might be more inclined to rely on such experiences form their perceptions of climate at the organization rather than their prior experiences (McKay & Avery, 2006).

Further, contrary to expectations, in both samples, climate for racial diversity was positively associated with ethnic identity. And, in the junior-senior sample, current exposure to diversity was positively associated with ethnic identity beyond individuals' climate perceptions. This finding can be explained using optimal distinctiveness theory, which posits that individuals strive to define themselves in terms of distinctive category memberships (Brewer, 1991). According to this theory, social identity is a reconciliation of individuals' opposing needs for assimilation and differentiation from others and is likely to be strongest for those self-categorizations that simultaneously provide for a sense of belonging and a sense of distinctiveness (Brewer, 1991).

Further, similar to social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), Brewer (1991) posits that the optimal level of self-categorization changes with the social context and allows individuals to have a positive sense of self. There is considerable empirical support for optimal distinctiveness theory. It has been shown that optimal distinctiveness operates in individuals in group settings such as work teams and is associated with phenomena such as group identification (Sorrentino, Seligman, & Battista, 2007), perceptions of group inclusiveness (Hornsey, & Hogg, 1999), and formation of organizational identity (Gioia, Price, Hamilton, & Thomas, 2010).

In the context of the current study, it is likely that individuals would identify with their racial in-group if it satisfied their need to belong and feel included, and yet feel distinct from the larger group of all employees in general, while maintaining a positive sense of self. Although it is true that a sense of threat heightens the need to self-enhance, simply being among a diverse set of people could have similar consequences (Hogg, 2004; Reid & Hogg, 2005). In addition, an organization with a positive climate for diversity is likely to be inclusive of all regardless of their racial background. In such an environment, people might feel safe to freely express their opinions or exhibit behaviors typical of their race without fear of being negatively stereotyped or discriminated against. Hence, contrary to the original hypothesis, exposure to diversity and climate for diversity might actually be positively related to ethnic identity.

Similar to the exposure-outcomes relationship, the media-outcomes relationship in the freshman sample was also expected to be partially mediated by individuals' climate perceptions. Newcomers to an organization seek information to reduce uncertainty and understand their work environment (Miller & Jablin, 1991), and as they learn about and form perceptions of organizational events and attributes, it gives rise to climate (Ashforth, 1985). Thus, it was expected that receiving diversity related information via various media sources would be associated with newcomers' climate perceptions with regard to diversity, which would in turn be associated with their diversity related outcomes.

Results indicated that individuals' climate perceptions are indeed a critical mechanism underlying the media-outcome relationship. Individuals' climate perceptions fully mediated the media-outcomes relationship.

One possible explanation for the general lack of a direct association of media with outcomes beyond individuals' climate perceptions could be that simply assessing the extent to which various media sources provided general information regarding diversity at the organization, although a good indicator of climate perceptions, might not be a good indicator of more specific diversity related outcomes such as individuals' understanding of people from different backgrounds, sense of belonging, or ethnic identity. For specific outcomes such as the ones examined in this study, as indicated by the results, more proximal indicators of attitudes and behaviors, such as actual experiences with diversity within the organization might be a better predictor of outcomes.

In sum, results indicated that both exposure to diversity and receipt of information related to diversity are likely to influence individuals' perceptions with regard to diversity at their organization, which in turn could affect their diversity related outcomes. However, although exposure to diversity might also directly affect diversity related outcomes, receipt of diversity related information primarily acts as an input to individuals' climate perceptions with regard to diversity, rather than directly affecting outcomes.

Race as a Moderator

Because diversity issues are likely to be more relevant to minority group members (Mor Barak et al., 1998), it was expected that they would be more sensitive to diversity related cues in the organization and would value the organization's efforts to promote diversity more than majority group members (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Parker et al., 1997). Thus, the relationship between antecedents (exposure to diversity and media usefulness)

and climate perceptions, as well as the relationship between climate perceptions and outcomes, were expected to be moderated by race such that these relationships are stronger for minority group members than for majority group members.

Rather than comparing the relationships between the antecedents, psychological climate, and the outcomes for White and non-White races dichotomously, the moderation by race was examined for each of the racial groups, Asian, African-American, and Hispanic, in comparison to Whites. This strategy was adopted to test for moderation by race because of the nature of the sample. Given that the sample comprised students enrolled in a university located in a large city in a racially diverse geographic area, the demographic composition of the community in general, as well as that of the student population at the university are likely to be fairly heterogeneous (Brief, Butz, & Dietch, 2005).

Research indicates that the diversity of the community where an organization is located influences individuals' psychological perceptions of climate for diversity in the organization (Pugh et al., 2008). In addition, research has shown that group size matters with regard to outcomes of intergroup contact such as bias (González & Brown, 2006), conflict (Brief et al., 2005), and social identity (Brewer, Manzi, & Shaw, 1993; Simon & Pettigrew, 1990) because it can be assumed that the number of majority and minority group members is an indicator of the proportion of majority versus minority interactions that occur. In the current study, because it was unlikely that there was one dominant minority group in the student population from where the sample was drawn, and the size of the various racial groups in the sample could have played a role in individuals'

psychological climate perceptions and outcomes, it warranted examination of each of the minority racial groups individually with respect to Whites.

In the freshman sample, the relationships between climate perceptions and the outcomes of racial understanding, belonging, and ethnic identity were significantly stronger for Hispanics. The relationship between climate perceptions and belonging was also significantly stronger for Asians. However, contrary to expectations, race did not moderate the relationship between antecedents and climate perceptions.

In the junior-senior sample, although race moderated the relationship between current exposure to diversity and climate perceptions, contrary to expectations, they were weaker for minority group members. With one exception, the relationship between climate perceptions and outcomes were largely similar for all races.

A possible explanation for the non-significant findings for moderation of the antecedent-climate relation by race in the freshman sample is that newcomers, in general, are likely to seek information in order to understand different aspects of their work environment (Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Because diversity is an important aspect of the workplace today (Jackson, May, & Whitney, 1995; Milliken & Martins, 1996), it is likely that individuals, regardless of their race, will try to understand this aspect of their work environment.

With regard to the moderation of the relationship between climate perceptions and outcomes in the freshman sample, the results may have been significant only for Hispanics because of the demographic make-up of the sample. Only 6.1% of the freshman sample was Hispanic. The smallest group in the junior-senior sample was also Hispanics (5.7%), suggesting that Hispanics at this university might be the smallest

among all the racial groups represented at the university. Hence, this group is most likely to experience minority status and also likely to value diversity the most (Kossek & Zonia, 1993). In accordance with expectations, the relationship between climate perceptions and outcomes was the strongest for Hispanics.

African-Americans are likely the next larger minority group at the university, considering 9.8% and 10.9% of the freshman and junior-senior samples respectively were African-American. Hence, it is no surprise that for the two relationships in the junior-senior sample that were moderated by race (current exposure to diversity - climate perceptions; climate perceptions - racial understanding), the moderation effect was significant for African-Americans and Hispanics. However, contrary to expectations, both relationships were significantly weaker for these two races than for Whites.

One explanation for the weaker association between current exposure and climate perceptions for African-Americans and Hispanics is that majority group members, in general, tend to have more positive perceptions of climate with respect to diversity than minority group members (Mor Barak et al., 1998), and having a diverse work environment might reinforce this belief. Because having the opportunity to interact with diverse others within the organization is an indication that the organization values diversity, it could be more salient to majority group members, because it would further confirm their beliefs regarding the climate for diversity in the organization. Hence, while minority group members are also likely perceive a positive climate for diversity when they have the opportunity to interact with a diverse set of people within the organization, interacting with diverse others in the workplace could be associated with higher perceptions of climate in the organization.

In the junior-senior sample, in general, regardless of race, individuals' perceptions of climate for racial diversity at the organization are fairly similarly associated with their outcomes. These findings can be explained on the basis of prior research on the long-term consequences of diversity in teams or workgroups.

Research has shown, with regard to performance, that even though racial or ethnic workgroup diversity may have negative effects on individual and group outcomes initially, later on, such differences are usually overcome, and do not necessarily compromise performance (Harrison et al., 1998, 2002). Once individuals are familiar with each other, they are able to garner the benefits of diverse perspectives within the group, and hence perform better (Watson et al., 1993, 1998, 2002). Although research has primarily examined the long term effects of diversity on performance, these results may be extended to other diversity related outcomes such as the ones examined in the current study.

In an organization that values and promotes diversity, over time, it is very likely that such surface-level demographic differences will cease to make a significant difference in the outcomes of people from different racial backgrounds. An environment which encourages collaboration and cooperation among a diverse set of people, might facilitate racial understanding, enhance individuals' sense of belonging in the organization, and be associated with improved performance. In addition, if people feel valued and appreciated regardless of their racial or ethnic background, they are less likely to feel threatened, and might be more inclined to express attitudes or behaviors in accordance with their racial background.

Based on the above rationale, it can be expected that in the long run, individuals' climate perceptions will be similarly positively associated with the outcomes of racial understanding, belonging, ethnic identity, and performance, regardless of their race. The results largely support this view.

Organizational Tenure

It was expected that the relationships between antecedents, climate perceptions, and outcomes would be stronger in the junior-senior sample compared to the freshman sample. However, although the pattern of correlations between the variables of interest was similar in both samples, organizational tenure did not have an impact on outcomes as hypothesized.

As expected, the relationship between current exposure to diversity and racial understanding was stronger in the junior-senior sample than the freshman sample. However, surprisingly, individuals' climate perceptions were a significantly better predictor of their racial understanding in the freshman sample than in the junior-senior sample. Also contrary to expectations, the relationship between climate perceptions and ethnic identity was positive in both samples, and this relationship was significantly stronger in the junior-senior sample.

In general, the results of the current study did not support the notion that organizational tenure makes a difference in the association between individuals' exposure to diversity and climate perceptions, or between individuals' perceptions of climate and their levels of belonging and ethnic identity. One explanation for the weak results is the

cross-sectional nature of the data, which made it impossible to test the true longitudinal effect on climate perceptions and outcomes.

The stronger relationship between climate perceptions and racial understanding in newcomers could be because of the salience of climate among organizational newcomers. Newcomers actively seek out information about the organization in an effort to understand their work environment (De Vos et al., 2005; Miller, 1996; Morrison, 1993), which could increase the salience of their climate perceptions. The results of this study seem to corroborate this notion. In general, the association of climate with outcomes was stronger for newcomers than for tenured incumbents.

The likely reason for the positive association between current exposure to diversity and ethnic identity was explained in the previous section on the basis of optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer, 1991). This theory views social identity as a reconciliation of individuals' opposing needs for assimilation and differentiation from others, and argues that the optimal level of self-categorization changes with the social context (Brewer, 1991). Because the theory acknowledges that self-categorization may change with the social context, it can be used to explain results with regard to organizational tenure.

It can be expected that newcomers would want to reduce uncertainty regarding their new environment and want to belong and be a part of the organization (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), i.e., newcomers are likely to have a greater need for assimilation than for differentiation. On the other hand, tenured incumbents may want to have a distinct identity because they want to maintain a positive sense of self within the larger pool of diverse employees, i.e., tenured incumbents are likely to have a greater need for

differentiation than for assimilation. Based on this rationale, it can be expected that exposure to diversity within the organization will be more strongly associated with ethnic identity in tenured incumbents than in newcomers. The findings corroborate the principles of optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer, 1991).

Summary and Practical Implications

This study was based on a theoretical framework provided by intergroup contact theory (Allport, 1954), the mere exposure effect (Zajonc, 1968), social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), media richness theory (Daft & Lengel, 1984), and the vast body of organizational climate literature. Based on these theories and past empirical work in psychology and communication, the current findings have furthered our understanding of diversity and its perceptions in the organizational context.

Specifically, the study has furthered our understanding of the process by which individuals' form perceptions of climate for diversity at their organization and how that might affect their work related attitudes and behaviors. From a practical point of view, this knowledge can inform us as to how organizations can hire and retain a diverse workforce, overcome roadblocks such as prejudice, encourage collaboration, and utilize the resources of a diverse workforce so as to maximize performance.

First, the stronger association of current exposure to diversity with climate perceptions and outcomes as compared to prior exposure to diversity, showed that even though prior experience in interacting with a diverse set of people might help individuals' level of racial understanding or their sense of belonging in an organization, being exposed to diversity in one's work environment is important. Not only does interacting

with diverse people enhance work related attitudes and behaviors such as belonging and performance, it also enhances general diversity related attitudes such as racial understanding. Similar results were found in both samples, indicating that the benefits of interacting with people from diverse backgrounds continue to hold over time.

Additionally, the media-outcomes relationship was fully mediated by climate perceptions, which indicates how important information regarding diversity is, in forming climate perceptions and its consequent influence on outcomes. Effectively communicating to newcomers that the workplace values minorities and individuals from diverse backgrounds is likely to help to enhance their perceptions of the organization with regard to diversity, which in turn could have a positive effect on outcomes such as belonging, commitment, retention, and performance.

Another contribution of the present study was that it expanded our knowledge of outcomes related to perceptions of climate for racial diversity. While past research has examined broader outcomes such as commitment, turnover, and performance in relation to climate for diversity (Gonzalez & Denisi, 2009; McKay et al., 2007, 2008, 2009), outcomes specific to diversity have received less attention. In order to better understand the influence of climate perceptions on diversity related work outcomes, in the present study, in addition to more general outcomes such as belonging and performance, diversity specific outcomes such as racial understanding and ethnic identity were examined. Based on the notion of strategic climate, (Reichers & Schneider, 1990), which suggests that the outcomes examined should be specific to the type of climate being studied, the present study provided additional insight on diversity related work outcomes.

With regard to outcomes, a surprising finding was that individuals' climate perceptions were positively associated with their level of ethnic identity. Ethnic identity was also positively correlated with racial understanding and belonging. Another interesting finding was that performance was most strongly related to belonging followed by racial understanding.

From a practical perspective, these results indicate that being in a diverse social environment does not necessarily "homogenize" people. In fact, it might make racial or ethnic differences salient in people's minds and they might express themselves accordingly. However, this need not have negative consequences if it is coupled with positive perceptions of climate for diversity and racial understanding. If people feel valued and appreciated regardless of their racial or ethnic background, it is likely that they will not feel threatened to express attitudes or behaviors in accordance with their racial background. And, an environment that encourages and promotes diversity might in fact facilitate racial understanding and collaboration in a diverse workgroup, which may lead to a greater sense of belonging in the organization and better performance.

One important finding, indicated by the lack of moderation of the antecedents-climate perceptions relationship by race in the freshman sample, was that race does not matter in the sources or cues that newcomers pay attention to when trying to understand the diversity related aspects of their work environment. Both the diversity of the work environment and information regarding diversity at the organization were equally important to newcomers in forming climate perceptions regardless of race. On the other hand, as expected, race moderated the relationship between climate perceptions and

outcomes in the freshman sample such that this relationship was stronger for non-Whites than for Whites.

In sum, with a few exceptions, for newcomers, regardless of race, actual diversity of the workforce and information regarding diversity at the organization sends a strong signal that diversity is valued and promoted in the organization. However, a positive climate for diversity at the organization benefits minority group members more than majority group members.

Another interesting finding was that among tenured incumbents, the climate-outcomes relationship was largely similar regardless of race. This indicates that a positive climate for diversity might benefit minority newcomers more, but over time it benefits all employees similarly regardless of their racial background.

Contrary to expectations, many of the differences in the antecedents-climate-outcomes relationships between newcomers and incumbents were not significant. These weak results indicate that the role of organizational tenure with regard to diversity requires more research before any conclusions can be drawn. Future directions are explained further in the next section.

In sum, the results of this study suggest that if organizations want to facilitate collaboration and cooperation in diverse workgroups, they should send strong signals that this is valued and reinforce such behaviors early on. And, hiring a diverse workforce and providing information regarding diversity at the organization are two important ways by which organizations can indicate to employees that diversity is valued.

Limitations and Future Directions

One limitation of the current study is the sample. Because of the use of a student sample in an academic context, it might be difficult to generalize the results of the study to organizational employees. Future research should replicate the study in an organizational setting to validate the findings.

Second, because some attitudes related to diversity are sensitive issues, response bias could have occurred due to social desirability (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964). Thus, future research should include social desirability indices to determine whether response bias occurred.

Third, the only objective measure used in the study was that of performance, which was assessed as respondents' cumulative GPA. The remaining measures were based on self-reported responses. This could have resulted in common method variance and inflated the observed correlations between the constructs, leading to Type I error (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Some strategies that could be employed to mitigate this problem include temporally separating the climate perception and outcome variables by introducing a time lag between collection of measures, or psychologically separating them by changing the order of the measures in the survey questionnaire (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Fourth, a concurrent methodology was employed. Even though the model implied that individuals' climate perception was the underlying mechanism by which antecedents affected outcomes, and partial support for these hypotheses was found, it is difficult to infer causality because there was no time lag between the responses. Causality implies that some time has elapsed between the occurrence of the causal event and the

consequent outcomes (Mathieu, DeShon, & Bergh, 2008). If the measures had been temporally separated such that the measures of antecedents were administered first, followed by the measure of climate perceptions, and finally by the outcome measures, and mediation analyses yielded similar results, it would have strengthened causal inferences, i.e., it would have shown that the effects of climate perceptions are still present even after the passage of time (Maxwell & Cole, 2007).

Fifth, because of the cross-sectional nature of the data, cohort effects cannot be ruled out when comparing the relationships between the constructs in the two samples. Thus, one avenue for future research is to conduct a longitudinal study to examine the effects of organizational tenure on climate perceptions and outcomes. It is known that the correlation among variables may be attenuated in studies employing longitudinal design (Podsakoff, et al., 2003). Hence, a shorter time interval between measures would help mitigate extraneous factors and better delineate the relationships among the variables of interest. For example, a time interval of less than a year between surveys could help lower the chances of contextual factors such as change in organizational policies affecting individuals' climate perceptions.

Finally, in the current study, all the variables and the relationships among them were examined at the individual level. However, it is known that unit-level climate can influence individual level outcomes above and beyond individuals' perceptions of climate (Liao & Rupp, 2005; Schulte, Ostroff, & Kinicki, 2006). Prior research has tended to examine the extent to which climate for diversity might moderate relationships between race and outcomes (Gonzalez & Denisi, 2009; McKay et al., 2008). However, the direct effect of unit-level climate for diversity on individual outcomes, and more importantly,

whether unit-level climate for diversity has independent effects on individual outcomes beyond that of psychological climate perceptions, need to be explored further.

Based on the results of the current study, an area that warrants further research is the role of organizational tenure in the formation of individuals' perceptions of climate for diversity and their diversity related outcomes. The weak results of the current study could be due to methodological limitations such as the use of a student sample or the cross-sectional design, or it could be due to conceptual limitations such as additional outcomes or controls that were not included in the current model. For example, climate perceptions might vary depending on one's status in the organizational hierarchy (McKay et al., 2009) or based on the ethnicity of one's supervisor (McKay et al., 2008). Controlling for these factors could further help delineate the relationships among antecedents, climate perceptions, and outcomes, and determine whether organizational tenure has an impact on these relationships.

In addition, the interaction of leader and subordinates' climate perceptions has been shown to affect subordinates' performance, with performance being highest when both leaders' and subordinates' climate perceptions were high (McKay et al., 2009). It might be interesting to examine whether this interaction extends to other diversity related outcomes such as racial understanding or attitudes such as belonging.

Finally, research has shown that newcomers to an organization rely on different sources of information depending on the type of information they seek (Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Future research could investigate the relative importance of information sources associated with individuals' diversity related climate perceptions. Moreover, it is known that leader characteristics may influence subordinates' climate

perceptions (Mayer et al., 2007). And, the leader is a source of information for newcomers as they try to understand their work environment. Therefore, examining the extent to which leader characteristics or behaviors might impact subordinates' climate perceptions could help us better understand what leaders can do to improve subordinates' climate perceptions and facilitate collaboration in diverse teams.

The current study can be extended as outlined above and conducted in an organizational setting using a longitudinal design in order to better generalize the results and to understand the role of organizational tenure. Understanding differences in newcomers and tenured individuals with respect to how they form perceptions of climate for racial diversity and how that could affect their work related attitudes and behaviors could prove useful, both in understanding and improving the newcomer socialization process, and in improving climate perceptions in incumbents, in order to facilitate a collaborative atmosphere and retain a diverse workforce. For example, better understanding the role of organizational tenure on climate perceptions could help tenured individuals play a greater role in helping newcomers adjust to the workplace and recognize what is valued in the organization with regard to diversity through an informal socialization process or a formal mentoring program.

In sum, research suggests that there is value in differences. Hence, it is important to understand how organizations can overcome roadblocks such as prejudice and exclusion so as to harness the potential of a diverse workforce. Additionally, if organizations want to encourage minority members to reach their potential and maximize their performance, understanding how differences might inhibit demographic minority members from contributing their ideas or participating in decision-making because they

feel excluded or psychologically unsafe is also important. Thus, the demographic diversity of today's workforce necessitates further understanding of the process by which individuals in organizations form perceptions of climate for diversity, what contextual factors influence this process, how they may interact with each other, and extent to which this might affect individual and organizational outcomes.

Appendices

Appendix A: Measures

Appendix B: Tables and Figures

Appendix A

The items for each of the measures are listed below. All items used a 5-pt scale to indicate the degree to which participants agreed or disagreed with the item. Items in the freshman sample ranged from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5 = “strongly agree” whereas items in the junior-senior sample ranged from 1 = “strongly agree” to 5 = “strongly disagree.” Item scores in the junior-senior sample were reverse coded before conducting all analyses. The measures are the same for both samples unless otherwise specified.

Prior Exposure to Diversity

How would you compare the racial/ethnic composition of the following?

1. Neighborhood where I grew up
2. My high school
3. My friends

Current Exposure to Diversity: Freshman Sample

Since the beginning of the fall semester, how often have you participated in the following activities at UM?

1. Events that promote diversity
2. Organized discussions on race/ethnicity

Current Exposure to Diversity: Junior-Senior Sample

Since coming to the University, how often have you done the following?

1. Actively participated in an organization that promotes cultural diversity
2. Engaged in discussions about racial/ethnic issues in class
3. Worked in small, ethnically diverse groups with other students in class
4. Attended or participated in organized campus discussions on racial/ethnic issues

Psychological Climate for Diversity

1. Students are encouraged to discuss a range of ideas and to explore diverse perspectives in their courses
2. UM has made a special effort to help racial and ethnic minority students feel like they "belong" on campus
3. The different perspectives that students from diverse backgrounds bring to the campus are valued at UM
4. This university actively promotes appreciation for diversity through clubs and university wide events
5. This university fosters respect for cultural differences
6. Students are treated fairly here regardless of their racial/ethnic background

Racial Understanding: Freshman Sample

1. My experiences at UM have challenged me to think about things from a different perspective
2. At UM, I have been able to gain a better understanding and appreciation of other cultures
3. At UM, I have been able to engage in discussions that bring in multiple perspectives
4. At this university, I have been able to learn about different cultures

Racial Understanding: Junior-Senior Sample

1. At this university, I have been challenged to critically examine my own beliefs regarding race and ethnicity
2. At this university, I have been able to gain a better understanding and appreciation of other cultures
3. At this university, I have been able to engage in discussions that bring in multiple perspectives
4. At this university, I have been able to learn about different cultures

Belonging: Freshman Sample

1. I am proud to be a student at this university
2. I feel as though I am a part of the UM community
3. I would recommend UM to my family and friends
4. If I had to do it all over again, I would still enroll at UM

Belonging: Junior-Senior Sample

1. I am proud to be a student at this university
2. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to the university
3. I would feel comfortable promoting this university to potential students

Ethnic Identity

1. I identify with my ethnic or racial background
2. My ethnic or racial background is important to me
3. My ethnic or racial background guides my thinking or behavior

Social Dominance Orientation

1. Some groups of people are simply inferior to other groups
2. It's OK if some groups have more of a chance in life than others
3. To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups
4. It would be good if groups could be equal

Media Richness: Freshman Sample

Please indicate the extent to which the following provided information about diversity at UM

1. Campus Tours and Admissions information sessions
2. College Fairs/Open House
3. Summer 2-Day Orientation
4. New Resident Orientation (first few days on campus)

5. University of Maryland Facebook groups
6. University of Maryland listserves or mass emails
7. Posters, signs and pamphlets distributed around campus
8. News and media coverage related to UM

Note: Items 1-4 are face-to-face media and items 5-8 are non face-to-face media.

Appendix B

Table B1

Confirmatory factor analysis to determine the factor structure of media sources

Item	Factor Loading	
	FF Media	Non FF Media
1. Campus tours and admissions information sessions	0.81	--
2. College fairs/Open House	0.77	--
3. Summer 2-day orientation	0.72	--
4. New Resident Orientation (first few days on campus)	0.59	--
5. University of Maryland Facebook groups	--	0.68
6. University of Maryland listservs or mass emails	--	0.81
7. Posters, signs and pamphlets distributed around campus	--	0.78
8. News and media coverage related to UM	--	0.62

Note: FF Media = Face-to-face media usefulness. Non FF Media = Non face-to-face media usefulness.

Table B2

Confirmatory factor analysis to determine the factor structure of items in the freshman sample

Item	Factor Loading						
	Prior Diversity	Current Diversity	Climate for Diversity	Racial Understanding	Belonging	Ethnic Identity	SDO
1. Neighborhood where I grew up [How would you compare the racial/ethnic composition of the following?]	0.82	--	--	--	--	--	--
2. My high school [How would you compare the racial/ethnic composition of the following?]	0.81	--	--	--	--	--	--
3. My friends from home [How would you compare the racial/ethnic composition of the following?]	0.80	--	--	--	--	--	--
4. Events that promote diversity [Since the beginning of the fall semester, how often have you participated in the following activities at UM?]	--	0.82	--	--	--	--	--
5. Organized discussions on race/ethnicity [Since the beginning of the fall semester, how often have you participated in the following activities at UM?]	--	0.52	--	--	--	--	--
6. Students are encouraged to discuss a range of ideas and to explore diverse perspectives in their courses	--	--	0.54	--	--	--	--
7. UM has made a special effort to help racial and ethnic minority students feel like they "belong" on campus	--	--	0.63	--	--	--	--
8. The different perspectives that students from diverse backgrounds bring to the campus are valued at UM	--	--	0.81	--	--	--	--
9. This university actively promotes appreciation for diversity through clubs and university wide events	--	--	0.84	--	--	--	--
10. This university fosters respect for cultural differences	--	--	0.84	--	--	--	--
11. Students are treated fairly here regardless of their racial/ethnic background	--	--	0.51	--	--	--	--
12. My experiences at UM have challenged me to think about things from a different perspective	--	--	--	0.63	--	--	--
13. At UM, I have been able to gain a better understanding and appreciation of other cultures	--	--	--	0.82	--	--	--
14. At UM, I have been able to engage in discussions that bring in multiple perspectives	--	--	--	0.68	--	--	--

Note: Prior Diversity = Prior exposure to diversity. Current Diversity = Current exposure to diversity. SDO = Social dominance orientation.

Table B2

(Continued)

Item	Factor Loading						
	Prior Diversity	Current Diversity	Climate for Diversity	Racial Understanding	Belonging	Ethnic Identity	SDO
15. At this university, I have been able to learn about different cultures	--	--	--	0.73	--	--	--
16. I am proud to be a student at this university	--	--	--	--	0.79	--	--
17. I feel as though I am a part of the UM community	--	--	--	--	0.76	--	--
18. I would recommend UM to my family and friends	--	--	--	--	0.93	--	--
19. I identify with my ethnic or racial background	--	--	--	--	--	0.76	--
20. My ethnic or racial background is important to me	--	--	--	--	--	0.84	--
21. My ethnic or racial background guides my thinking or behavior	--	--	--	--	--	0.48	--
22. Some groups of people are simply inferior to other groups	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.75
23. It's OK if some groups have more of a chance in life than others	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.83
24. To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.76
25. It would be good if groups could be equal (reverse)	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.40

Note: Prior Diversity = Prior exposure to diversity. Current Diversity = Current exposure to diversity. SDO = Social dominance orientation.

Table B3

Means, standard deviations, and correlations of scales in the freshman sample

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Prior exposure to diversity	3.91	1.06	(.86)						
2. Current exposure to diversity	1.83	.85	-.12 **	(.60)					
3. FF media	3.36	.92	.08 *	.16 **	(.81)				
4. Non FF media	2.98	1.01	.04	.17 **	.45 **	(.81)			
5. Climate for diversity	3.94	.60	.05	.15 **	.34 **	.30 **	(.84)		
6. Racial understanding	3.71	.69	.15 **	.25 **	.27 **	.25 **	.63 **	(.81)	
7. Belonging	4.15	.78	.09 **	.12 **	.24 **	.17 **	.50 **	.47 **	(.85)
8. Ethnic identity	3.39	.90	-.03	.16 **	.09 *	.14 **	.15 **	.20 **	.22 **
9. SDO	1.83	0.81	.02	-.04	-.03	-.03	-.20 **	-.15 **	-.09 *
10. SAT	1300.55	129.49	.03	-.07 *	-.05	-.08 *	.08 *	.06	.02
11. Asian	0.17	0.37	-.14 **	.06	.02	.07 *	.02	.00	-.13 **
12. African-American	0.10	0.30	-.13 **	.29 **	.00	.02	-.03	.01	-.05
13. Hispanic	0.06	0.24	-.15 **	.07 *	.00	.03	-.02	-.06	.02
14. White	0.68	0.47	.27 **	-.26 **	-.01	-.08 *	.01	.03	.13 **

Note: Correlations are based on listwise deletion. $N = 871$. Alpha reliabilities appear in parentheses along the diagonal. FF media = Face-to-face media usefulness. Non FF media = Non face-to-face media usefulness. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test.

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

Table B3

(Continued)

Variable	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Prior exposure to diversity							
2. Current exposure to diversity							
3. FF Media							
4. Non FF Media							
5. Climate for diversity							
6. Racial understanding							
7. Belonging							
8. Ethnic identity	(.84)						
9. SDO	.15 **	(.78)					
10. SAT	-.09 **	-.08 *	--				
11. Asian	.22 **	.09 **	.20 **	--			
12. African-American	.17 **	.00	-.42 **	-.15 **	--		
13. Hispanic	.00	-.04	-.21 **	-.11 **	-.08 *	--	
14. White	-.28 **	-.06	.22 **	-.64 **	-.45 **	-.37 **	--

Note: Correlations are based on listwise deletion. $N = 871$. Alpha reliabilities appear in parentheses along the diagonal. FF media = Face-to-face media usefulness. Non FF media = Non face-to-face media usefulness. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test.

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

Table B4

Regression analysis of outcomes on exposure to diversity and media in the freshman sample

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
<i>1. DV: Racial understanding</i>						
Intercept	3.69 **	0.29	2.18 **	0.30	0.47	0.26
SDO	-0.13 **	0.03	-0.11 **	0.03	-0.03	0.02
SAT	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Asian	0.00	0.06	-0.03	0.06	-0.02	0.05
African-American	0.04	0.09	-0.06	0.09	-0.03	0.07
Hispanic	-0.16	0.10	-0.16	0.10	-0.14	0.08
Prior exposure to diversity			0.09 **	0.02	0.08 **	0.02
Current exposure to diversity			0.18 **	0.03	0.14 **	0.02
FF media			0.11 **	0.03	0.01	0.02
Non FF media			0.10 **	0.02	0.03	0.02
Climate for diversity					0.65 **	0.03
R^2	.03 **		.18 **		.44 **	
ΔR^2			.15 **		.26 **	
<i>2. DV: Belonging</i>						
Intercept	4.22 **	0.32	3.06 **	0.35	1.44 **	0.33
SDO	-0.07 *	0.03	-0.05	0.03	0.02	0.03
SAT	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Asian	-0.28 **	0.07	-0.32 **	0.07	-0.31 **	0.06
African-American	-0.17	0.10	-0.23 *	0.10	-0.20 *	0.09
Hispanic	-0.01	0.11	-0.02	0.11	0.00	0.10
Prior exposure to diversity			0.04	0.02	0.03	0.02
Current exposure to diversity			0.11 **	0.03	0.07 *	0.03
FF Media			0.15 **	0.03	0.06	0.03
Non FF Media			0.06 *	0.03	-0.01	0.03
Climate for diversity					0.61 **	0.04
R^2	.03 **		.10 **		.28 **	
ΔR^2			.08 **		.18 **	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 871$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test. FF media = Face-to-face media usefulness. Non FF media = Non face-to-face media usefulness. SAT scores range from 200-1400 whereas the self-report measures range from 1-5. Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table B4

(Continued)

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
<i>3. DV: Ethnic Identity</i>						
Intercept	3.34 **	0.36	2.66 **	0.40	2.02 **	0.42
SDO	0.14 **	0.04	0.15 **	0.04	0.18 **	0.04
SAT	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Asian	0.60 **	0.08	0.57 **	0.08	0.57 **	0.08
African-American	0.58 **	0.11	0.52 **	0.12	0.53 **	0.12
Hispanic	0.15	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.14	0.13
Prior exposure to diversity			0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03
Current exposure to diversity			0.09 *	0.04	0.07	0.04
FF Media			0.03	0.04	-0.01	0.04
Non FF Media			0.08 *	0.03	0.06	0.03
Climate for diversity					0.24 **	0.05
R^2	.11 **		.13 **		.15 **	
ΔR^2			.02 **		.02 **	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 871$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test. FF media = Face-to-face media usefulness. Non FF media = Non face-to-face media usefulness. SAT scores range from 200-1400 whereas the self-report measures range from 1-5. Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B5

Regression analysis of psychological climate on exposure to diversity and media in the freshman sample

	Step 1		Step 2	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
1. <i>DV: Climate for diversity</i>				
Intercept	3.87 **	0.25	2.63 **	0.26
SDO	-0.14 **	0.03	-0.13 **	0.02
SAT	0.00	0.00	0.00 *	0.00
Asian	0.04	0.06	-0.01	0.05
African-American	-0.01	0.08	-0.05	0.07
Hispanic	-0.02	0.09	-0.03	0.08
Prior exposure to diversity			0.02	0.02
Current exposure to diversity			0.07 **	0.02
FF media			0.16 **	0.02
Non FF media			0.11 **	0.02
R^2	.04 **		.19 **	
ΔR^2			.15 **	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 871$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test. FF media = Face-to-face media usefulness. Non FF media = non face-to-face media usefulness. Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B6

Race as a moderator of the relationship between antecedents and psychological climate in the freshman sample

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
1. <i>DV: Climate for diversity</i>						
Intercept	3.82 **	0.21	3.66 **	0.23	3.65 **	0.23
SDO	-0.14 **	0.02	-0.13 **	0.02	-0.13 **	0.02
SAT	0.00	0.00	0.00 *	0.00	0.00 *	0.00
Prior exposure to diversity			0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
Current exposure to diversity			0.07 **	0.02	0.07 *	0.03
FF media			0.16 **	0.02	0.15 **	0.03
Non FF media			0.11 **	0.02	0.11 **	0.03
Asian			-0.01	0.05	-0.01	0.06
African-American			-0.05	0.07	-0.06	0.09
Hispanic			-0.03	0.08	0.01	0.09
Prior exposure to diversity * Asian					-0.02	0.05
Current exposure to diversity * Asian					-0.01	0.07
FF media * Asian					0.01	0.07
Non FF media * Asian					-0.04	0.06
Prior exposure to diversity * African-American					-0.05	0.05
Current exposure to diversity * African-American					-0.02	0.06
FF media * African-American					0.10	0.08
Non FF media * African-American					0.00	0.07
Prior exposure to diversity * Hispanic					0.08	0.08
Current exposure to diversity * Hispanic					0.01	0.09
FF media * Hispanic					-0.10	0.09
Non FF media * Hispanic					0.08	0.09
R^2	.04 **		.19 **		.20 **	
ΔR^2			.15 **		.01	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 871$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test.

FF media = Face-to-face media usefulness. Non FF media = Non face-to-face media usefulness. Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B7

Race as a moderator of the relationship between psychological climate and outcomes in the freshman sample

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
1. <i>DV: Racial Understanding</i>								
Intercept	3.64 **	0.24	3.74 **	0.22	3.78 **	0.22	3.08 **	0.25
SDO	-0.13 **	0.03	-0.03	0.02	-0.03	0.02	-0.03	0.02
SAT	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Climate for diversity			0.71 **	0.03	0.69 **	0.04	0.63 **	0.04
Asian			-0.02	0.05	-0.02	0.05	-0.02	0.05
African-American			0.05	0.07	0.05	0.07	-0.03	0.07
Hispanic			-0.15	0.08	-0.14	0.08	-0.14	0.08
Climate for diversity * Asian					-0.03	0.09	-0.04	0.08
Climate for diversity * African-American					0.10	0.09	0.08	0.09
Climate for diversity * Hispanic					0.27 *	0.13	0.24 *	0.12
Prior exposure to diversity							0.08 **	0.02
Current exposure to diversity							0.14 **	0.02
FF Media							0.01	0.02
Non FF Media							0.03	0.02
R^2	.03 **		.40 **		.40 **		.44 **	
ΔR^2			.37 **		0		.04 **	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 871$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test. FF Media = Face-to-face media usefulness. Non FF Media = Non face-to-face media usefulness. Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B7

(Continued)

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
2. <i>DV: Belonging</i>								
Intercept	4.18 **	0.28	4.27 **	0.28	4.30 **	0.28	3.90 **	0.32
SDO	-0.08 *	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.03
SAT	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Climate for diversity			0.66 **	0.04	0.57 **	0.05	0.53 **	0.05
Asian			-0.31 **	0.06	-0.31 **	0.06	-0.31 **	0.06
African-American			-0.16	0.09	-0.16	0.09	-0.20 *	0.09
Hispanic			0.00	0.10	0.01	0.10	0.01	0.10
Climate for diversity * Asian					0.25 *	0.11	0.25 *	0.10
Climate for diversity * African-American					0.17	0.11	0.16	0.11
Climate for diversity * Hispanic					0.35 *	0.16	0.35 *	0.16
Prior exposure to diversity							0.03	0.02
Current exposure to diversity							0.06 *	0.03
FF Media							0.06 *	0.03
Non FF Media							-0.01	0.03
R^2	.01 *		.27 **		.28 **		.29 **	
ΔR^2			.27 **		.01 *		.01 *	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 871$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test. FF Media = Face-to-face media usefulness. Non FF Media = Non face-to-face media usefulness. Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B7

(Continued)

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
3. <i>DV: Ethnic Identity</i>								
Intercept	3.82 **	0.32	3.36 **	0.35	3.35 **	0.35	2.98 **	0.40
SDO	0.16 **	0.04	0.18 **	0.04	0.19 **	0.04	0.19 **	0.04
SAT	0.00 *	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Climate for diversity			0.29 **	0.05	0.28 **	0.06	0.25 **	0.06
Asian			0.59 **	0.08	0.58 **	0.08	0.57 **	0.08
African-American			0.58 **	0.11	0.57 **	0.11	0.51 **	0.12
Hispanic			0.15	0.12	0.17	0.12	0.15	0.13
Climate for diversity * Asian					0.05	0.13	0.04	0.13
Climate for diversity * African-American					-0.23	0.14	-0.24	0.14
Climate for diversity * Hispanic					0.49 *	0.20	0.46 *	0.20
Prior exposure to diversity							0.02	0.03
Current exposure to diversity							0.07	0.04
FF Media							-0.01	0.04
Non FF Media							0.05	0.03
R^2	.03 **		.14 **		.15 **		.16 **	
ΔR^2			.11 **		.01 *		.01	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 871$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test. FF Media = Face-to-face media usefulness. Non FF Media = Non face-to-face media usefulness. Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B8

Confirmatory factor analysis to determine the factor structure of items in the junior-senior sample

Item	Factor Loading						
	Prior Diversity	Current Diversity	Climate for Diversity	Racial Understanding	Belonging	Ethnic Identity	SDO
1. How would you compare the racial/ethnic composition of the following? -Neighborhood where I grew up	0.87	--	--	--	--	--	--
2. How would you compare the racial/ethnic composition of the following? -My High School	0.80	--	--	--	--	--	--
3. How would you compare the racial/ethnic composition of the following? -My friends	0.69	--	--	--	--	--	--
4. Actively participated in an organization that promotes cultural diversity	--	0.64	--	--	--	--	--
5. Engaged in discussions about racial/ethnic issues in class	--	0.68	--	--	--	--	--
6. Worked in small, ethnically diverse groups with other students in class	--	0.57	--	--	--	--	--
7. Attended or participated in organized campus discussions on racial/ethnic issues	--	0.68	--	--	--	--	--
8. The university has made special efforts to help minority feel like they belong	--	--	0.61	--	--	--	--
9. The university actively promotes appreciation for diversity	--	--	0.68	--	--	--	--
10. Students are encouraged to discuss a range of ideas	--	--	0.56	--	--	--	--
11. The different perspectives that students from diverse backgrounds bring to the campus are valued at this university	--	--	0.75	--	--	--	--
12. Students are treated fairly here regardless of their racial/ethnic background	--	--	0.67	--	--	--	--
13. This university fosters respect for cultural differences	--	--	0.78	--	--	--	--
14. At this university, I have been able to learn about different cultures	--	--	--	0.76	--	--	--
15. At this university, I have been challenged to critically examine my own beliefs regarding race and ethnicity	--	--	--	0.28	--	--	--

Note: Prior Diversity = Prior exposure to diversity. Current Diversity = Current exposure to diversity. SDO = Social dominance orientation.

Table B8

(Continued)

Item	Factor Loading						
	Prior Diversity	Current Diversity	Climate for Diversity	Racial Understanding	Belonging	Ethnic Identity	SDO
16. At this university, I have been able to gain a better understanding and appreciation of other cultures	--	--	--	0.85	--	--	--
17. At this university, I have been able to engage in discussions that bring in multiple perspectives	--	--	--	0.70	--	--	--
18. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to the university (reverse)	--	--	--	--	0.65	--	--
19. I would feel comfortable promoting this university to potential students	--	--	--	--	0.88	--	--
20. I am proud to be a student at this university	--	--	--	--	0.87	--	--
21. I identify with my ethnic or racial background	--	--	--	--	--	0.75	--
22. My ethnic or racial background is important to me	--	--	--	--	--	0.92	--
23. My ethnic or racial background guides my thinking or behavior	--	--	--	--	--	0.60	--
24. To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.53
25. It would be good if groups could be equal (reverse)	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.45
26. Some groups of people are simply inferior to other groups	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.62
27. It's OK if some groups have more of a chance in life than others	--	--	--	--	--	--	0.62

Note: Prior Diversity = Prior exposure to diversity. Current Diversity = Current exposure to diversity. SDO = Social dominance orientation.

Table B9

Means, standard deviations, and correlations of scales in the junior-senior sample

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Prior exposure to diversity	3.91	1.04	(.83)					
2. Current exposure to diversity	2.63	.82	-.09 *	(.74)				
3. Climate for diversity	3.75	.60	.16 **	.13 **	(.83)			
4. Racial understanding	3.69	.61	.16 **	.39 **	.48 **	(.71)		
5. Belonging	3.85	.83	.12 **	.14 **	.45 **	.30 **	(.82)	
6. Ethnic identity	3.49	.86	-.06	.27 **	.04	.17 **	.13 **	(.79)
7. Performance	3.17	.47	.05	.08 *	.08 *	.03	.11 **	-.06
8. SDO	2.12	0.70	.06	-.14 **	-.11 **	-.11 *	-.09 *	.03
9. SAT	1247.88	137.93	.14 **	-.15 **	.01	-.10 *	-.11 *	-.26 **
10. Asian	0.16	0.36	-.11 **	.05	-.14 **	-.12 **	-.06	.19 **
11. African-American	0.11	0.31	-.19 **	.21 **	-.16 **	.08 *	-.03	.28 **
12. Hispanic	0.06	0.23	-.09 *	.03	-.04	.01	-.05	.09 *
13. White	0.68	0.47	.26 **	-.19 **	.24 **	.03	.09 *	-.37 **

Note: Correlations are based on listwise deletion. $N = 688$. Where applicable, alpha reliabilities appear in parentheses along the diagonal.

SDO = Social dominance orientation.

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

Table B9

(Continued)

Variable	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Prior exposure to diversity							
2. Current exposure to diversity							
3. Climate for diversity							
4. Racial understanding							
5. Belonging							
6. Ethnic identity							
7. Performance	--						
8. SDO	.00	(.63)					
9. SAT	.38 **	.01	--				
10. Asian	-.04	.09 *	.00	--			
11. African-American	-.16	-.14 **	-.41 **	-.15 **	--		
12. Hispanic	-.09	-.04	-.24 **	-.11 *	-.09 *	--	
13. White	.18	.04	.39 **	-.62 **	-.51 **	-.36 **	--

Note: Correlations are based on listwise deletion. $N = 688$. Where applicable, alpha reliabilities appear in parentheses along the diagonal.

SDO = Social dominance orientation.

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

Table B10

Regression analysis of outcomes on exposure to diversity in the junior-senior sample

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
1. <i>DV: Racial understanding</i>						
Intercept	4.43 **	0.26	3.06 **	0.27	1.30 **	0.27
SDO	-0.08 *	0.03	-0.05	0.03	0.00	0.03
SAT	0.00 *	0.00	0.00 *	0.00	0.00	0.00
Asian	-0.18 **	0.06	-0.19 **	0.06	-0.06	0.05
African-American	0.02	0.08	-0.05	0.08	0.18 *	0.07
Hispanic	-0.07	0.11	-0.06	0.10	0.06	0.09
Prior exposure to diversity			0.11 **	0.02	0.08 **	0.02
Current exposure to diversity			0.29 **	0.03	0.24 **	0.02
Climate for diversity					0.43 **	0.03
<i>R</i> ²	.03 **		.21 **		.37 **	
ΔR^2			.18 **		.16 **	
2. <i>DV: Belonging</i>						
Intercept	5.65 **	0.36	4.82 **	0.39	2.47 **	0.41
SDO	-0.12 *	0.05	-0.11 *	0.04	-0.05	0.04
SAT	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 **	0.00
Asian	-0.20 *	0.09	-0.18 *	0.09	-0.01	0.08
African-American	-0.39 **	0.12	-0.39 **	0.12	-0.08	0.11
Hispanic	-0.42 **	0.14	-0.39 *	0.14	-0.23	0.13
Prior exposure to diversity			0.10 **	0.03	0.06	0.03
Current exposure to diversity			0.14 **	0.04	0.07	0.04
Climate for diversity					0.57 **	0.05
<i>R</i> ²	.04 **		.08 **		.22 **	
ΔR^2			.03 **		.15 **	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 688$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test.

Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B10

(Continued)

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
1. <i>DV: Racial understanding</i>						
Intercept	4.43 **	0.26	3.06 **	0.27	1.30 **	0.27
SDO	-0.08 *	0.03	-0.05	0.03	0.00	0.03
SAT	0.00 *	0.00	0.00 *	0.00	0.00	0.00
Asian	-0.18 **	0.06	-0.19 **	0.06	-0.06	0.05
African-American	0.02	0.08	-0.05	0.08	0.18 *	0.07
Hispanic	-0.07	0.11	-0.06	0.10	0.06	0.09
Prior exposure to diversity			0.11 **	0.02	0.08 **	0.02
Current exposure to diversity			0.29 **	0.03	0.24 **	0.02
Climate for diversity					0.43 **	0.03
<i>R</i> ²	.03 **		.21 **		.37 **	
ΔR^2			.18 **		.16 **	
2. <i>DV: Belonging</i>						
Intercept	5.65 **	0.36	4.82 **	0.39	2.47 **	0.41
SDO	-0.12 *	0.05	-0.11 *	0.04	-0.05	0.04
SAT	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 **	0.00
Asian	-0.20 *	0.09	-0.18 *	0.09	-0.01	0.08
African-American	-0.39 **	0.12	-0.39 **	0.12	-0.08	0.11
Hispanic	-0.42 **	0.14	-0.39 *	0.14	-0.23	0.13
Prior exposure to diversity			0.10 **	0.03	0.06	0.03
Current exposure to diversity			0.14 **	0.04	0.07	0.04
Climate for diversity					0.57 **	0.05
<i>R</i> ²	.04 **		.08 **		.22 **	
ΔR^2			.03 **		.15 **	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 688$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test.

Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B10

(Continued)

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
3. <i>DV: Ethnic Identity</i>						
Intercept	4.08 **	0.35	3.23 **	0.38	2.60 **	0.43
SDO	0.07	0.04	0.10 *	0.04	0.11 *	0.04
SAT	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 *	0.00	0.00 *	0.00
Asian	0.56 **	0.09	0.54 **	0.08	0.59 **	0.09
African-American	0.77 **	0.11	0.70 **	0.11	0.79 **	0.12
Hispanic	0.40 **	0.14	0.40 **	0.14	0.44 **	0.14
Prior exposure to diversity			0.04	0.03	0.03	0.03
Current exposure to diversity			0.21 **	0.04	0.19 **	0.04
Climate for diversity					0.15 **	0.05
<i>R</i> ²	.16 **		.20 **		.21 **	
ΔR^2			.04 **		.01 **	
4. <i>DV: Performance</i>						
Intercept	1.59 **	0.19	1.32 **	0.21	1.16 **	0.24
SDO	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02
SAT	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 **	0.00
Asian	-0.05	0.05	-0.07	0.05	-0.06	0.05
African-American	-0.02	0.06	-0.06	0.06	-0.04	0.06
Hispanic	-0.02	0.08	-0.03	0.08	-0.02	0.08
Prior exposure to diversity			0.00	0.02	-0.01	0.02
Current exposure to diversity			0.09 **	0.02	0.08 **	0.02
Climate for diversity					0.04	0.03
<i>R</i> ²	.15 **		.17 **		.17 **	
ΔR^2			.02 **		0	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 688$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test.

Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B11

Regression analysis of psychological climate on exposure to diversity in the junior-senior sample

	Step 1		Step 2	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
1. <i>DV: Climate for diversity</i>				
Intercept	4.80 **	0.25	4.12 **	0.28
SDO	-0.12 **	0.03	-0.11 **	0.03
SAT	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 *	0.00
Asian	-0.31 **	0.06	-0.30 **	0.06
African-American	-0.52 **	0.08	-0.54 **	0.08
Hispanic	-0.29 **	0.10	-0.27 *	0.10
Prior exposure to diversity			0.07 **	0.02
Current exposure to diversity			0.13 **	0.03
R^2	.09 **		.13 **	
ΔR^2			.04 **	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 688$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test. Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B12

Race as a moderator of the relationship between antecedents and psychological climate in the junior-senior sample

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
1. <i>DV: Climate for diversity</i>						
Intercept	3.88 **	0.22	4.73 **	0.25	4.66 **	0.25
SDO	-0.10 **	0.03	-0.11 **	0.03	-0.10 **	0.03
SAT	0.00	0.00	0.00 *	0.00	0.00 *	0.00
Prior exposure to diversity			0.07 **	0.02	0.09 **	0.03
Current exposure to diversity			0.13 **	0.03	0.20 **	0.04
Asian			-0.30 **	0.06	-0.31 **	0.06
African-American			-0.54 **	0.08	-0.49 **	0.09
Hispanic			-0.27 *	0.10	-0.27 *	0.10
Prior exposure to diversity * Asian					-0.05	0.06
Current exposure to diversity * Asian					-0.07	0.07
Prior exposure to diversity * African-American					-0.10	0.06
Current exposure to diversity * African-American					-0.24 **	0.08
Prior exposure to diversity * Hispanic					-0.09	0.08
Current exposure to diversity * Hispanic					-0.30 *	0.11
R^2	.01 *		.13 **		.15 **	
ΔR^2			.12 **		.02 *	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 688$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test. Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B13

Race as a moderator of the relationship between psychological climate and outcomes in the junior-senior sample

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
1. <i>DV: Racial Understanding</i>								
Intercept	4.40 **	0.22	3.90 **	0.23	3.84 **	0.23	2.90 **	0.24
SDO	-0.09 *	0.03	-0.02	0.03	-0.01	0.03	0.00	0.03
SAT	0.00 *	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Climate for diversity			0.50 **	0.03	0.58 **	0.05	0.47 **	0.04
Asian			-0.03	0.06	-0.01	0.06	-0.04	0.06
African-American			0.28 **	0.08	0.23 **	0.08	0.15 *	0.07
Hispanic			0.07	0.09	0.06	0.09	0.05	0.09
Climate for diversity * Asian					-0.01	0.09	0.03	0.08
Climate for diversity * African-American					-0.32 **	0.10	-0.18 *	0.09
Climate for diversity * Hispanic					-0.40 **	0.13	-0.27 *	0.12
Prior exposure to diversity							0.07 **	0.02
Current exposure to diversity							0.23 **	0.02
R^2	.02 **		.26 **		.28 **		.37 **	
ΔR^2			.24 **		.02 **		.10 **	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 688$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test. Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B13

(Continued)

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
2. <i>DV: Belonging</i>								
Intercept	4.86 **	0.30	5.03 **	0.33	5.00 **	0.33	4.60 **	0.36
SDO	-0.10 *	0.04	-0.05	0.04	-0.04	0.04	-0.04	0.04
SAT	0.00 *	0.00	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 **	0.00
Climate for diversity			0.60 **	0.05	0.63 **	0.06	0.59 **	0.07
Asian			-0.01	0.08	-0.01	0.08	-0.01	0.08
African-American			-0.07	0.11	-0.13	0.11	-0.13	0.11
Hispanic			-0.24	0.13	-0.22	0.13	-0.21	0.13
Climate for diversity * Asian					-0.04	0.13	-0.02	0.13
Climate for diversity * African-American					-0.25	0.14	-0.20	0.14
Climate for diversity * Hispanic					0.12	0.18	0.16	0.18
Prior exposure to diversity							0.05 *	0.03
Current exposure to diversity							0.07	0.04
R^2	.02 **		.22 **		.22 **		.23 **	
ΔR^2			.20 **		0		.01 *	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 688$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test. Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B13

(Continued)

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
3. <i>DV: Ethnic Identity</i>								
Intercept	5.42 **	0.30	3.86 **	0.35	3.80 **	0.35	3.18 **	0.38
SDO	0.05	0.05	0.10 *	0.04	0.10 *	0.04	0.12 *	0.04
SAT	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 *	0.00	0.00 *	0.00	0.00 *	0.00
Climate for diversity			0.21 **	0.05	0.30 **	0.07	0.22 **	0.07
Asian			0.63 **	0.09	0.63 **	0.09	0.59 **	0.09
African-American			0.88 **	0.11	0.82 **	0.12	0.74 **	0.12
Hispanic			0.47 **	0.14	0.47 **	0.14	0.45 **	0.14
Climate for diversity * Asian					-0.12	0.13	-0.09	0.13
Climate for diversity * African-American					-0.38 *	0.15	-0.28	0.15
Climate for diversity * Hispanic					-0.17	0.19	-0.07	0.19
Prior exposure to diversity							0.03	0.03
Current exposure to diversity							0.18 **	0.04
R^2	.07 **		.18 **		.19 **		.22 **	
ΔR^2			.11 **		.01		.03 **	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 688$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test. Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B13

(Continued)

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
4. <i>DV: Performance</i>								
Intercept	1.55 **	0.16	1.53 **	0.19	1.53 **	0.19	1.31 **	0.21
SDO	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.01	0.02
SAT	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 **	0.00	0.00 **	0.00
Climate for diversity			0.06	0.03	0.09 *	0.04	0.06	0.04
Asian			-0.03	0.05	-0.04	0.05	-0.07	0.05
African-American			0.01	0.06	0.02	0.07	-0.03	0.07
Hispanic			0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.08	-0.02	0.08
Climate for diversity * Asian					-0.09	0.07	-0.08	0.07
Climate for diversity * African-American					-0.03	0.08	0.01	0.08
Climate for diversity * Hispanic					-0.13	0.11	-0.08	0.11
Prior exposure to diversity							-0.01	0.02
Current exposure to diversity							0.08 **	0.02
R^2	.15 **		.15 **		.16 **		.17 **	
ΔR^2			.01		0		.02 **	

Note: Regressions are based on listwise deletion. $N = 688$. SDO = Social dominance orientation. SAT = Scholastic assessment test. Because of this difference in measurement units, regression analysis may yield a significant 0.00 coefficient rounded to two decimal places.

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

Table B14

Comparison of relationships in the freshman and junior-senior samples

	Freshman sample		Junior-senior sample		95 % CI(B)	
	B	SE	B	SE		
1. <i>DV: Climate for diversity</i>						
Prior exposure to diversity	0.02	0.02	0.07	0.02	-0.01	0.11
Current Exposure to diversity	0.07	0.02	0.13	0.03	-0.01	0.13
2. <i>DV: Racial Understanding</i>						
Prior exposure to diversity	0.08	0.02	0.08	0.02	-0.06	0.06
Current Exposure to diversity	0.14	0.02	0.24	0.02	0.04	0.16 **
Climate for diversity	0.65	0.03	0.43	0.03	-0.30	-0.14 **
3. <i>DV: Belonging</i>						
Prior exposure to diversity	0.03	0.02	0.06	0.03	-0.04	0.10
Current Exposure to diversity	0.07	0.03	0.07	0.04	-0.10	0.10
Climate for diversity	0.61	0.04	0.57	0.05	-0.17	0.09
4. <i>DV: Ethnic Identity</i>						
Prior exposure to diversity	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03	-0.07	0.09
Current Exposure to diversity	0.07	0.04	0.19	0.04	0.01	0.23 *
Climate for diversity	0.24	0.05	0.15	0.05	-0.23	0.05

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

Table 15

Summary of results

	Climate for Diversity	Racial Understanding	Belonging	Ethnic Identity	Performance
Freshman Sample					
Prior exposure to diversity	Not Supported	<i>Supported (+)</i>	Not Supported	Not Supported	--
Current exposure to diversity	<i>Supported (+)</i>	<i>Supported (+)</i>	<i>Supported (+)</i>	Not Supported (+)	--
FF Media	<i>Supported (+)</i>	<i>Supported (+)</i>	<i>Supported (+)</i>	Not Supported	--
Non FF Media	<i>Supported (+)</i>	<i>Supported (+)</i>	<i>Supported (+)</i>	Not Supported (+)	--
Climate for diversity	--	<i>Supported (+)</i>	<i>Supported (+)</i>	Not Supported (+)	--
Junior-Senior Sample					
Prior exposure	<i>Supported (+)</i>	<i>Supported (+)</i>	<i>Supported (+)</i>	Not Supported	Not Supported
Current exposure	<i>Supported (+)</i>	<i>Supported (+)</i>	<i>Supported (+)</i>	Not Supported (+)	Not Supported (+)
Climate for diversity	--	<i>Supported (+)</i>	<i>Supported (+)</i>	Not Supported (+)	Not Supported

Note. FF media = Face-to-face media usefulness. Non FF media = Non face-to-face media usefulness. (+) = Significant positive relationship. (-) = Significant negative relationship

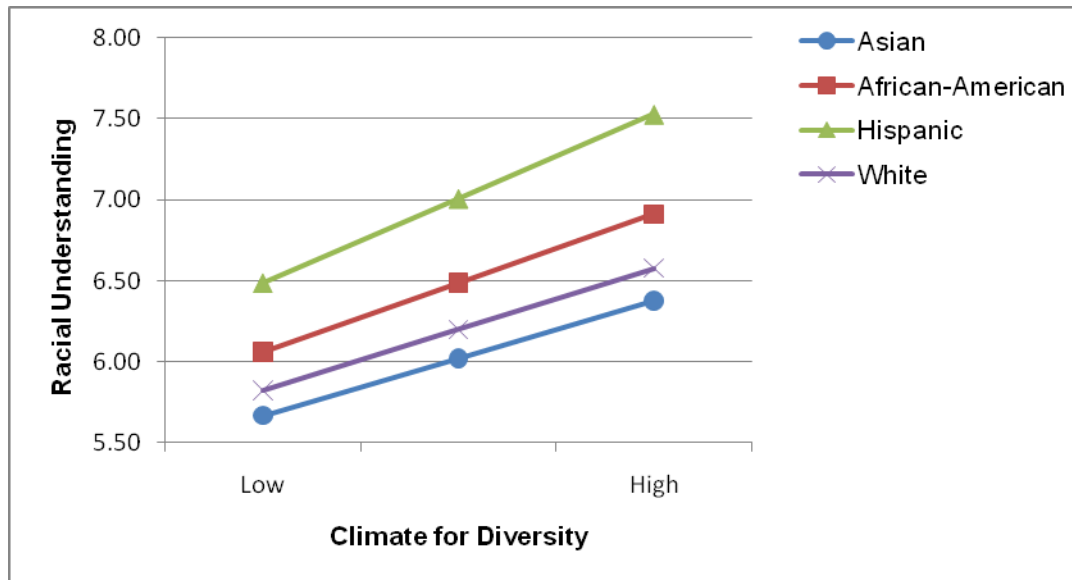


Figure B1. Race as a moderator of the relationship between psychological climate and racial understanding in the freshman sample.

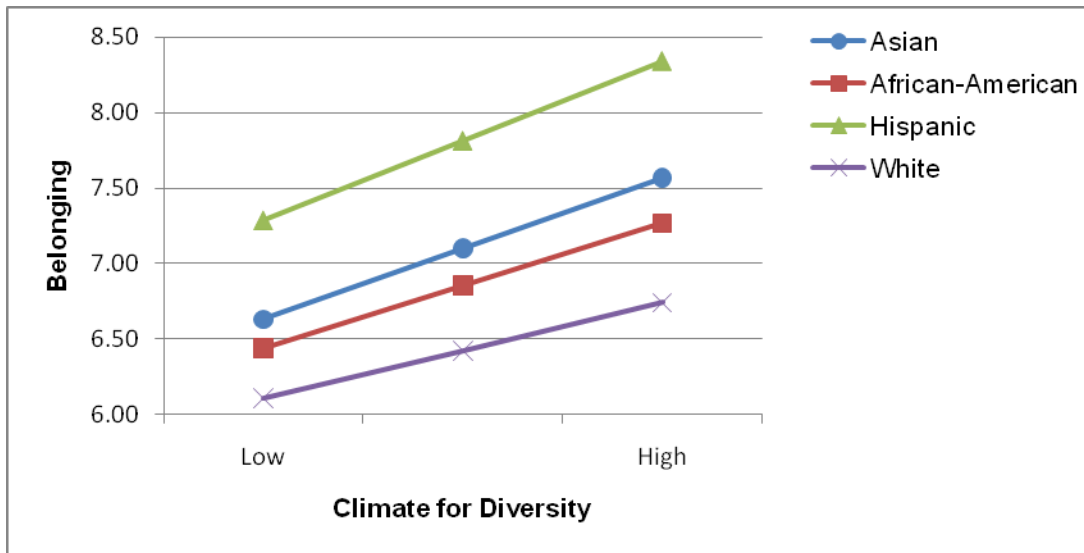


Figure B2. Race as a moderator of the relationship between psychological climate and belonging in the freshman sample.

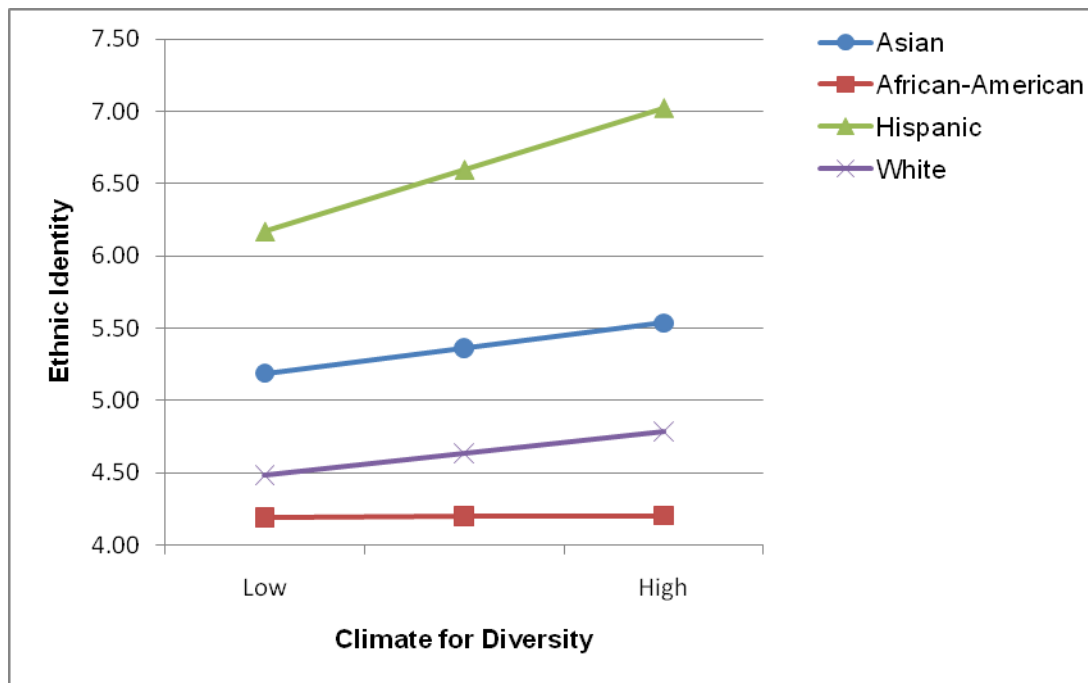


Figure B3. Race as a moderator of the relationship between psychological climate and ethnic identity in the freshman sample.

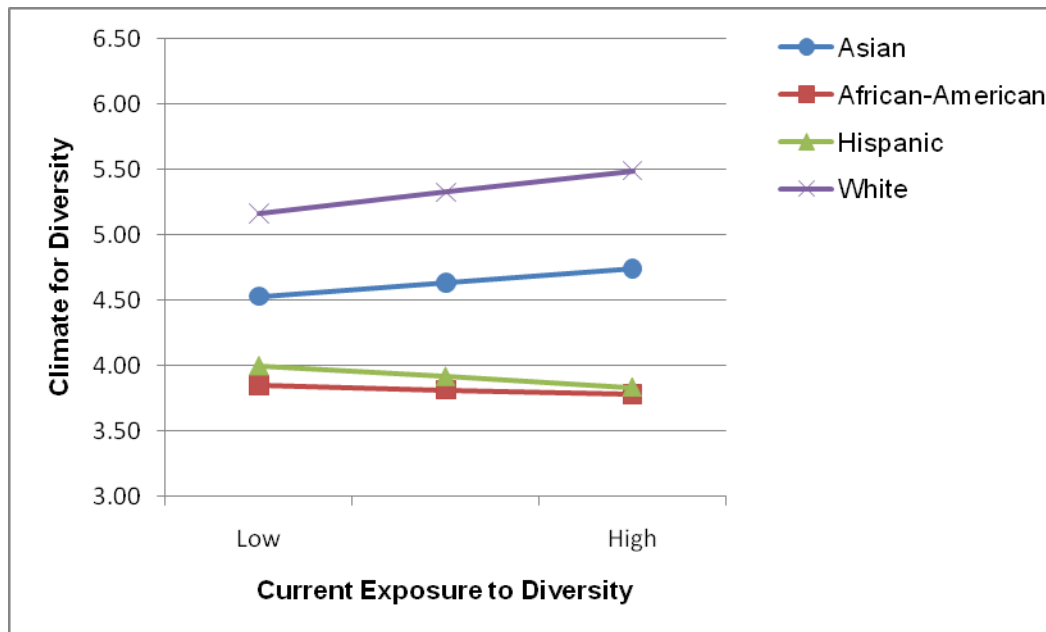


Figure B4. Race as a moderator of the relationship between current exposure to diversity and psychological climate in the junior-senior sample.

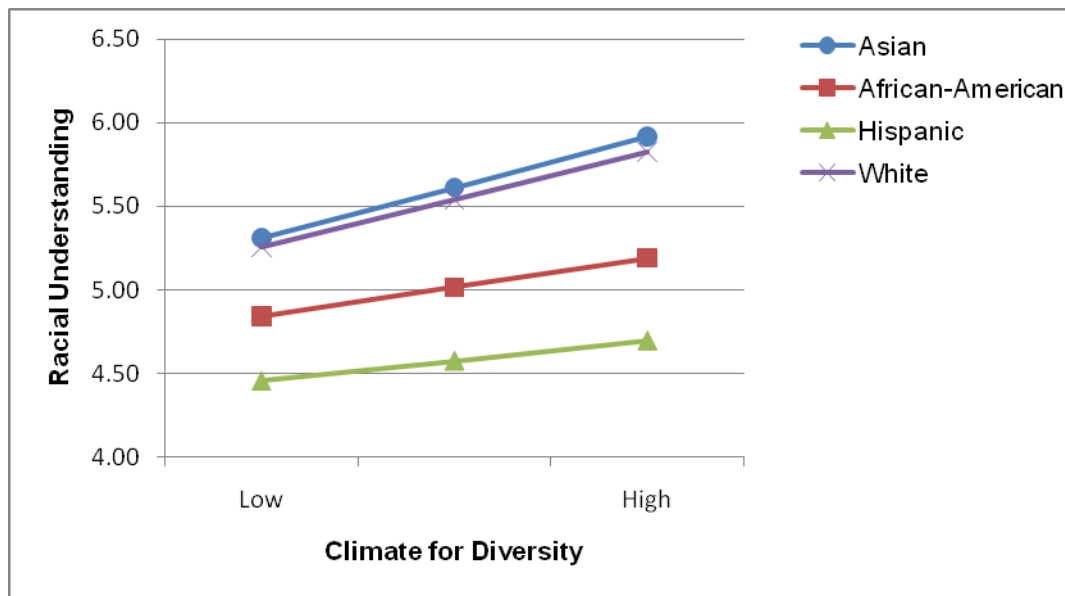


Figure B5. Race as a moderator of the relationship between psychological climate and racial understanding in the junior-senior sample.

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