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The Language of Recruitment: How Minority Status, Racial Minority Centrality,
& Linguistic Cues Impact Applicant Perceptions

by

Clark Waters

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We the undersigned committee hereby approve the attached thesis,
“The Language of Recruitment: How Minority Status, Racial Minority Centrality, &
Linguistic Cues Impact Applicant Perceptions.”
by
Clark Waters

Jessica L. Wildman, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
School of Psychology
Major Advisor

Patrick D. Converse, Ph.D.
Professor
School of Psychology

Emily Martinez-Vogt, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
Nathan M. Bisk College of Business

Robert A. Taylor, Ph.D.
Professor and Dean
College of Psychology & Liberal Arts

Abstract

The Language of Recruitment: How Minority Status, Racial Identity Centrality, and Linguistic Cues Impact Applicant Perceptions

Author: Clark Waters

Advisor: Jessica Wildman, Ph.D.

As color-blindness, the intentional denial of racial differences, continues to occupy corporate policy, expressions and consequences of modern racism in the workplace remain pervasive. Color-blind attitudes can be harmful due to their focus on perceived equality, at the expense of actionable, functional equity. Establishing a culture of racial equity in the workplace requires an understanding of how the language used to discuss race can impact potential applicants' opinions of the company. To attract a diverse pool of job applicants, the language of recruitment is of particular importance in the current study. Using a vignette-style survey design, a diverse sample of employed American adults viewed two mock job advertisements reflecting two language conditions (LCs): color-blind language (CBL) or functional equity language (FEL) respectively. Applicant measures of organizational attraction (OA) and perceived organizational support (POS) were collected, as were measures of individual racial saliency (RIC) and racial minority status (RMS). It was hypothesized that racial minority status, identity centrality, and recruitment language interact such that minority, high-centrality applicants will report the highest POS and OA under the functional equity language condition, whereas majority, high-centrality applicants will report the highest POS and OA under the color-blind language condition. However, a factorial ANOVA examining all interactions yielded no significant findings, likely due to a lack of power, despite the patterns of scores generally following the hypothesized logic. RIC was found to have a main effect on POS and OA, and RMS had a main effect on OA.

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my partner Luke, for supporting my interests, goals, and dreams with his whole heart.

1. Introduction

At the turn of the 21st century, reported spending on diversity programs among many Fortune 500 companies often exceeded a billion dollars per organization (Hansen, 2003). While this great expenditure might appear as a symbol of good faith towards mending the turbulent racial tensions of just decades prior, the true impetus behind the investment was legal in nature. With the passing of Title VII and the founding of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), the Civil Rights Act of 1964 expressly forbade “employment discrimination based on race, sex, color, religion, and national origin”. Unfortunately, the protections of Title VII and the EEOC are not far-reaching. Policy designed to promote equality in hiring did little to protect minority employees, especially after hire. A striking number of lawsuits (84,442 in 2002; Hansen, 2003) claiming racial discrimination within the workplace were brought forth, and large organizations responded in turn with aggressive spending on publicity campaigns, internal training, and minority visibility in recruitment materials. However, little was done to rectify these ineffective policies at an organizational level. In the 1990’s, researchers became fixated on the fiscal return of this investment in diversity, or diversity’s business case (Kochan et al., 2003).

In his influential 2003 publication, Kochan described the resulting policy of corporate investment in diversity programs as hollow, performative, and lacking empirical foundation. In the present day, the functionality of organizational DEI has improved only marginally (Wu, 2015; Smith, 2017; Roberts, 2014; Kong & Jolly, 2019). While societal opinions of what it means to be ‘racially tolerant’ have changed since the Jim Crow Era of almost 80 years ago (Banks, Kohn-Wood, & Spencer, 2006), post-modern racism is still alive within many organizations in the United States. While this statement carries immense weight, the psychological and performance-related burdens of organizational racism have been empirically noted

so frequently that this reality is impossible to overlook. If there was true organizational equity, we would not need to investigate the effects of racial identity masking in the workplace (Klotz et al., 2018; Madera, King, & Hebl, 2012; Roberts, Cha, & Kim, 2014). There would not be publications discussing the negative health effects (Pascoe & Smart-Richman, 2009), high rates of burnout and turnover (Chambers-Holder, 2020), workplace trauma and rejection sensitivity (Wu et al., 2015), and various types of withdrawal and other counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) that occur at a higher rate among the racial minority sample when compared to the majority group sample. (Buttner, Lowe, & Billings-Harris, 2009; 2012).

Since organizations invest a great deal into maintaining a positive public image of diversity, this spending should be used in a functional manner that provides stability, support, and psychological safety for its employees. A predominant attitude regarding race among a large percentage of Americans is one of color-blindness (Neville et al., 2000). It is important to emphasize to emphasize that the color-blind racial ideology is not inherently malicious in nature. Color-blindness was first discussed at length by Frankenberg (1993) as a sociological construct and as a framework of racial ideology.

Many Americans support racial equality, and yet many Caucasian Americans feel uncomfortable discussing racial inequity due to their own beliefs in the fundamental correctness of racial equality, as well as their belief in a 'just world' that has moved past racial inequity (Smith & Mayorga-Gallo, 2017; Neville et al., 2000). Whether it be from a lack of interaction with racial minority groups, patterns of socialization to not discuss race (as it can be perceived as being impolite), or simply a lack of awareness of past inequity, color-blindness on the individual level does not always come from a place of discrimination. However, intentionally or not, color-blindness is a form of prejudice (Neville et al., 2000;

Bell & Hartmann, 2007). The hallmark of such language comes from its “explicit disavowal” of past and/or present societal systems of inequity. When someone says they do not ‘see color’, this implies they do not recognize, or simply choose to overlook historical mistreatment of minority groups in terms of access to education, health care, housing, and employment opportunities (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2010; Banks, Kohn-Wood, & Spencer, 2006). The color-blind viewpoint can be insidious because it implies that the outcome of one’s life is entirely dependent on individual choices and amount of effort, and fails to consider that other barriers exist for some.

The presence of color-blind language within organizational policy/materials is actively damaging to minority employees, as well as the whole organization. Whether or not the intentions behind claiming not to see color are good or bad, from the minority applicant and employee perspective, it may reflect a lack of support. This becomes evident when the number of psychological contracts between minority employees and their superiors is examined. Also known as diversity promise fulfillment (DPF), this unwritten ‘promise’ or mutual understanding between employer and employee is a common form of protection sought out by minority employees when there is no larger system of support available. These support systems are more than just channels to report discrimination; these systems allow for ethnic self-expression, safety in numbers, and a sense of belonging (Kong & Jolly, 2019).

In a hypothetical condition of true ‘functional equity’, meaning that the organization recognizes systematic, modern forms of racism, and is actively working to rectify intra-organizational inequalities by creating systems of support, training, and policies to promote accountability. The goals of functional equity include creating policy to authentically foster a culture that promotes freedom of racioethnic self-expression, and furthering equitable access to historically

Caucasian spaces, such as executive positions. When organizational policy does not have the support systems in place to fulfill promises made to its minority employees, a psychological contract violation will often occur. This violation involves a fracture of trust and causes an increase in Counterproductive Work Behaviors (CWBs), and a decrease in organizational citizenship behaviors, or Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) (Robinson, 1996). Since organizations invest a great deal into maintaining a positive public image of inclusion, this spending should be used in a functional manner that provides stability, support, and psychological safety for its employees.

The first exposure a potential applicant has to the unique climate and culture of the organization is during the recruitment process. In today's digital world, this initial exposure and subsequent applicant judgment often occurs after viewing a job posting online. The goal of a job posting is to present a polished snapshot of the organization to attract high-quality talent. When an applicant views this material, the cues presented provide the basis of a psychological contract. The applicant expects that the opportunities described in the posting will be afforded to them in exchange for their labor and time. Previous research has documented the effectiveness of visual signaling cues in increasing organizational attraction among minority applicants (Avery, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2004; Avery, McKay & Wilson, 2008). The expected directional influence in perceptions of color-blind linguistic signaling on minority versus non-minority groups will be discussed at length in the following chapters; these hypothesized relationships will be compared to the findings generated from the current dataset.

The unique contributions of the study apply to both practice and research alike. Firstly, this study aims to expand our understanding of the minority work experience, specifically during the recruitment stage, in order to attract and retain diverse talent. The data generated from this study affords us with direct, controlled,

within-person judgements based on two distinct types of racial dialogue. In real time, variable participant reactions to color-blind linguistic cues will be documented. To better understand the effects of color-blind- versus functional equity language on applicants' perceptions of organizational attraction and perceived organizational support, I designed a within-persons experimental vignette study. In addition to the two experimental language conditions (color-blind language (CBL) and functional equity language (FEL), racial minority status (RMS) and racial identity centrality (RIC) will also be explored as moderators.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Initial Literature Search

To justify proposed relationships between variables prior to data collection, and fully investigate potentially pertinent interactions, a comprehensive literature search was conducted. The basis for the current study draws heavily on behaviorist principles and DEI literature. Also, racial dialogue and differences in racioethnic perspectives between groups were central themes included in my research. I then identified and categorized these variations in modern racial ideologies and contrasted them to provide context to themes of color-blindness and functional equity. Using the most relevant university databases (i.e. ProQuest, PsycInfo, PsycTests), I compiled a list of key search terms crucial to my research, which are depicted below & categorized for clarity and brevity (please view Table 1 on the following page).

Table 1. Key Search Terms & Themes

<i>Area of Subject Matter</i>	<i>Initial Search Terms</i>	<i>Refined Search Terms</i>
Organizational Attraction	Recruitment strategies Signaling theory ROI	Types of cues, organizational goals of signaling, racial salience in pictorial cues
Perceived Organizational Support	Diversity promise fulfillment (DPF) Upward mobility trends Minority work experiences/outcomes	Case studies, CWBs/OCBs, policy-based structures of minority support, psychological contract violations (PCVs), counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs)
Color-blindness	Language, ideology, implications, and functional roots of color-blindness	Theories of modern racism, Interactionism, institutional racism, discrimination lawsuits, interview-format case studies
Functional Equity	Affirmative action Equity rhetoric	Systemic inequity, benefits of racial diversity, workplace case-studies
Race as a Moderator	Racial Minority Status (RMS) Racial Identity Centrality Life experience differences Systemic inequity Cultural tourism	Racioethnic interactionism, social group identification, SDT, social categorization theory, ODT (optimal distinctiveness theory)
Vignette Construction	Experimental vignette design Recency effects	Distractor task effectiveness Randomization strategies

2.2 Modern Racial Attitudes

The present experimental design views race and ethnicity as conceptually unique, yet functionally identical for the purposes of participant grouping and for both moderators (RIC and RMS). In both applied organizational settings and the informal, between-person settings alike, the terms race and ethnicity are used rather interchangeably, a trend noted during my review of patterns of demographic categorization. While ethnicity concerns deeper-level components of culture (such as oral histories, traditions, or behavior), race describes more superficial outward physical differences (such as skin color, hair texture, facial features, etc.) as the sole means of categorization (Keirns & Strayer, 2012). Consistent with cultural mosaic theory (Chao & Moon, 2005), broader acceptance of one's ethnic identity is the ultimate goal of inclusion to build a system of functional equity. Critics of color-blind modes of racial discourse draw such criticisms from the erasure associated with color-blind values. To support the preservation of racioethnic history and culture, systematic modes of discrimination that involve overly broad grouping should be avoided. Paradoxically, color-blind attitudes inherently contradict the importance of ethnicity when such an individual considers their racial attitudes towards others, as a main hallmark of color-blindness is disavowal of differing life experiences accounted for by one's racial background (Gardner & Ryan, 2020).

Productive discussion of ethnic inclusion is not presently able to occur due to the Western tendency to categorize individuals based solely on physical appearance (e.g. race) without attempting to gather deeper information (e.g. ethnicity) (Chambers-Holder, 2020; Ford & Patterson, 2019). Addressing and replacing color-blind policy with deep-level, ethnic

infusion is a costly endeavor, but given the strong empirical support of implementing Shore's model, Kochan's (2003) and, later, Herring's (2009) ROI arguments are starting to dissolve as the demographic makeup of the United States' workforce shifts. Race acts as a generalized, identifiable, 'signal' cue that is indicative of a much deeper construct.

Across the United States, there exists a wide variety of racial ideologies (Tevis & Foste, 2022). American racial attitudes are as diverse as its people; ideologies range from theories of majority supremacy, defined as "an ideology of (Caucasian) racial dominance and/or entitlement, which begins to arrange a racial hierarchy" (Ansley, 1997), to the idealistic pluralism, which acknowledges racial theories of social dominance, yet advocates for mutual respect and peaceful coexistence between majority and minority racial groups (Keirns & Strayer, 2012). Regardless of one's individual perceptions of race, there exists an ideology that is widely accepted, and pervasive enough to work its way into organizational inclusion policy, and into the language used to discuss race. This ideology is color-blindness.

Color-Blind Language. Color-blind ideology, and the associated language, is a form of (post)modern racism, and the foundational philosophy of color-blindness involves a disavowal of racial differences in life experience and opportunity. Refusing to acknowledge surface-level racial differences also glosses over institutionalized racism, discrimination, and inequity.

Color-blindness is a dominant racial attitude in the United States due to several factors. Firstly, there is a discrepancy between the way many Americans think about racial equity, and the tangible action steps taken to promote equity. The readiness to purposefully overlook physical racial

differences to promote *equality* is visible in our society, but so is the hesitation in acknowledging past and present inequity. This perspective is considered a form of prejudice because of the following fundamental perspective: one's achievements in life are due entirely to the actions of the individual, and the circumstances of one's life should have no impact on career/personal outcomes (Neville et al., 2000). With this perspective comes the erasure of past patterns of discrimination, whose after-effects are still visible in our societal structure.

Color-blindness can also be implied through pictorial cues. 'Cosmetic', surface-level forms of inclusion policy, which may include increased visual representation of minorities in materials for visibility purposes (Avery, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2004), or cultivating an image of inclusion via tailored social media representation (Allen, Mahto, & Otondo, 2007), create a mirage of equality. However, increased representation does little to rectify outdated recruitment materials containing color-blind language.

Discussed in the applied sense in Chapter 3, but included in the review for explanatory purposes, this research explores possible individual-level and systemic causes of this gap between passively supporting general equality, and actively working to promote functional equity. Modern research has shown that this 'principle-policy' gap is a major blockade in promoting organizational equity (Carr, 1997; Bonilla-Silva, 2003, Smith & Mayorga-Gallow, 2017). A component of this metaphorical blockade is the language used during racial discourse. In the scope of the proposed study, the use of color-blind language in job postings will be contextualized by the dominant racial attitudes of our society.

The second factor that makes color-blindness so predominant is its surface level of political correctness, with undertones of covert racism that

often go undetected by Caucasians who believe strongly in racial equality but haven't been personally exposed to race-related inequity (Smith & Mayorga-Gallow, 2017). It is often more comfortable for Caucasians to talk about positive aspects of diversity, or surface-level aspects of culture rather than the realities of institutionalized racism due to their own perceptions of innocence (Applebaum, 2010). Lastly, due to the ongoing precedent of traditionally male-dominated, Caucasian executive leadership spaces (glass ceiling effects) within the organizational setting, the color-blind ideology remains pervasive to this day, as few in positions of power to change such policy would be impacted themselves (Applebaum, 2010; Rosette, 2008). Currently, a gap exists in the literature as to how manipulating specific linguistic cues (such as color-blind language cues) impact minority perceptions of organizational attraction and perceived organizational support.

Functional Equity Language. Functional equity is a hypothetical condition of policy-driven, inclusive, organizational support that is designed to remedy minority exclusion from traditionally Caucasian-dominated spaces, thus increasing equity. Another goal of functional equity is promoting openness in minority signaling in recruitment materials using direct, informative linguistic cues that attract diverse talent. Conceptual basis of functional equity language was derived in part from the work of Shore et al., (2010), namely aspects such as 'active integration', and an emphasis on the positive effects of actionable inclusion initiatives (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Homan et al., 2008). The language used to convey functional equity is highly important in attracting minority talent (Brancu & Hayes, 2020): equitable, working policy must be readily apparent to declare any level of functional equity.

2.4 The Language of Recruitment

There exists a discrepancy between the way organizational researchers emphasize the importance of racial equity, and the tangible steps organizations have taken to promote such equity. The combination of readiness to purposefully overlook physical racial differences to promote *equality*, in conjunction with the disavowal or hesitation in acknowledging past and present inequity creates the color-blind ideology. This ‘principle-policy’ gap is considered the most significant barrier in promoting organizational equity (Carr, 1997; Bonilla-Silva, 2003, Smith & Mayorga-Gallow, 2017). A major component of this metaphorical blockade is the language used during racial discourse (Smith & Mayorga-Gallow, 2017).

A steadfast fixture within American racial discourse, color-blindness language is widely prevalent in our society, which inevitably extends such values into our organizational spaces. In the scope of the current study, the use of color-blind language in job postings will be contextualized by the dominant racial attitudes of our society, and contrasted with a language condition of ideal inclusion, called functional equity language. The variable impact of such language on prospective applicants’ levels of organizational attraction and perceived organizational support will be investigated.

The viewing of a job posting is often the first direct exposure an applicant has with the organization. Organizations want to impress desirable applicants, and prospective applicants make their initial judgments on an organization’s suitability based on the limited information available to them. *Organizational attraction*, or how strongly an individual feels drawn to a company, has been studied in conjunction with race previously (Avery, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2004; Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008). This study attempted to identify if and how organizational racial attitudes can be

conveyed through linguistic cues alone, and data collected resulted in a set of applied recommendations for attracting a diverse applicant pool.

Similarly, *perceived organizational support*, or the degree to which an individual feels their organization will be there for them in exchange for their labor and commitment, will be used to measure perceptions of fit. Previous studies of race and organizational support are largely centered around unfulfilled vs. fulfilled expectations in terms of organizational support policy and outcomes for employees of color (for further discussion, see Chapter 3).

In the context of the current study, linguistic best practices are identified for organizational recruitment materials and beyond. I sought to investigate how word choice can aid in creating a tangible, policy-driven, recruitment system. In order to increase the demographic diversity of currently racially-homogeneous applicant pools, a climate of psychological safety among minority applicants needs to be established.

2.5 Race as a Moderator & Framework

The term *race* is not a straightforward construct, and most popular sociological perspectives of race interpret it as multi-faceted (Keirns & Strayer, 2012). For the current framework, two aspects of racial identity will be operationalized. Racial minority status, or whether someone belongs to a racial minority group, determines individual interpretation of language, impressions of our interactions with others, perceptions of others, and self-perception. Essentially, minority status acted as the foundational framework on which many assumptions were based, due to discrepancies in life experiences between minority and majority groups. Racial identity centrality is defined as the importance of one's race to their self-perception. A continuous variable, one's level of racial identity centrality (RIC) is associated with factors including the

following: the amount of time we each spend either thinking about race, participating in cultural activities that remind us of our race, or learning new things about one's race. This measure of centrality also includes the level of satisfaction someone has with their race, and how strongly they identify with, or value, that group identity.

2.6 Rectifying Organizational Color-blindness at the Macro-level

The current study intended to demonstrate the negative effects of color-blind language in recruitment material on minority applicant interest levels using data from a diverse sample that mimics the country's workforce. An organization which refuses to 'see color' fosters inequity through further disavowal of racial differences and does not address current racial inequality. The 'blindness' of color-blind ideology is a literal blindness to current inequitable practices, highlighting the presence of the aforementioned principle-policy gap (Chrobot-Mason, 2003). As such, color-blindness can be damaging as a functional basis of organizational inclusion policy. Given the existing research calling for drastic change, reformative inaction is unwise, as current racial workplace inequities have been noted frequently and consistently.

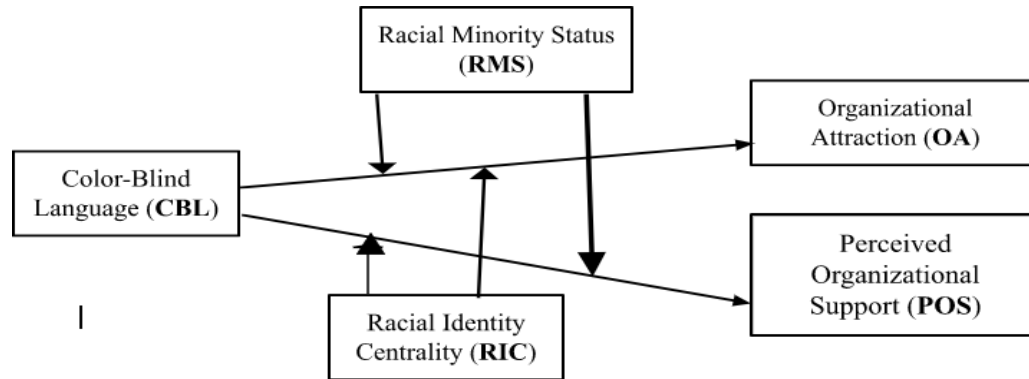
Extensive research conducted on the minority experience in the workplace discovered the following negative shared experiences among racial minority groups: identity masking (Hewlin, 2004), burnout (Chambers-Holder, 2020), trends of poor upward mobility (Bennett et al., 2004; Blancero, DelCampo, & Marron, 2007), and the abundance of minority psychological contract violations (Chrobot-Mason, 2003) suggest that we still have a ways to go in fostering functional organizational equity.

3. Hypotheses Development

3.1 Theoretical Framework

Color-blindness is a common racial ideology within the United States (The presence of color-blind language in organizational recruitment materials often indicates cosmetic diversity (Ford & Patterson, 2019), or out-of-date DEI policy that has color-blind qualities (Bell & Hartmann, 2007; Smith & Mayorga-Gallow, 2017). Organizational color-blindness can often be damaging for minority employees due to a lack of protective infrastructure (Blancero, DelCampo, & Marron, 2007). Functional equity language is a proposed construct intended to represent the perspective of acknowledging past/present inequity, while actively working to create equity through actionable steps. The presence of functional equity language (FEL) in recruitment materials is justified and encouraged by Optimal Distinctiveness Theory (ODT), as translated through Shore's model of infusionary inclusion without erasure (Shore, 2010). However, the current study will investigate the differential racial effects of language condition manipulation on levels of organizational attraction and perceived organizational support for minority & majority racial groups.

Figure 1. *Proposed Theoretical Model*



Using a postmodern, interactionist¹(Blumer, 1958) perspective of racial identity, the experimental model will test differences in responses to the presence of color-blind language & functional equity language will be investigated, with racial identity centrality and racial minority status as moderators on the relationship between language condition & participants' levels of perceived organizational support (POS) and organizational attraction (OA). The novelty of this study comes from its multidimensional approach to race; it is hoped that the manipulation will demonstrate racially-salient findings between language conditions that lead to organizational improvements in the diversity of the applicant pool.

3.2 Racial Minority Status as an Explanatory Framework

Race was hypothesized to alter mean directional trends of organizational judgements of perceived organizational support (POS) and organizational attraction (OA) based on individual perceptions formed after viewing linguistic cues. Within the current theoretical model, racial minority status is a fixed moderator on the relationship between Language Condition and levels of OA and POS. When completing the survey, participants self-identified as a racioethnic minority (i.e. Latino/a, Asian, Pacific Islander, African-American/black, Middle Eastern, etc.), or as a racioethnic majority (i.e. Caucasian). Under both vignette conditions, racial minority status was predicted to act as a boundary condition in predicting reactions to color-blind language and functional equity language. RMS was analyzed as a fixed-factor, criterion-like, moderating variable expected to result in differing amounts of OA and POS.

Individual rationale that justifies the type of perceptions (i.e. positive v. negative) formed under both conditions can be largely attributed to previous experiences in one's personal & professional life. Differences in life experiences grant us each a unique personal lens of sorts. This personal lens is equipped with a contextual filter (our life experiences and expectations). Everyone's filter looks so different that no two people can ever capture an identical photo of the same object. When this camera metaphor is applied to the proposed model, racial minority status (and associated experiences) profoundly affects individual racial ideology, due to systemic issues of past and present inequity. Therefore, it is impossible to study the variable effects of racially-oriented, linguistic cue manipulation without first acknowledging that race is the main determinant of perception under the current framework.

The language used in each job posting vignette is designed to have distinctive empirical hallmarks that will send participants cues about the organization's approach to race and inclusion. The next several paragraphs explain the two of the model's experimental groupings in relation to the proposed hypotheses. This information will be conveyed in two different ways. Firstly, an empirical explanation will be provided for the relationships described in the proposed hypotheses for foundational purposes. Secondly, the reader will become more deeply immersed into the current model: through the metaphorical 'lens' of minority vs. non-minority groups under both color-blind conditions and functionality-equity conditions.

Consciously acknowledging race-based differences in expected perceptions of organizational attraction and support will generate clarity in best practice for sustainable minority recruitment signaling. The four conditional perspectives (or again, lenses) presented will model how linguistic cues make different racial groups feel based on minority status, and possible explanations as to why using relatable, everyday examples.

Color-Blind Language Condition. In the scope of the current model, color-blind language represents one of two independent manipulation vignette conditions. This type of language is characterized by surface-level explanations of diversity without much functionality or discussion of improving inclusion. Also, there is a tendency to avoid acknowledgment of racial or ethnic differences due to perceived equality, but this avoidance has undertones of denying that institutional racism exists. A scenario of hypothetical organizational color-blindness is modeled in this condition.

Minority Reactions to Color-blind Language. Levels of perceived organizational support and organizational attraction will be altered by the presence of color-blind language, creating the potential for unmet expectations,

insufficient support & inclusion infrastructure, and employee dissatisfaction in minority groups. Robinson operationalized this feeling of dissatisfaction in his 1996 examination of the psychological contract (PC) & psychological contract violation (PCV). He describes a psychological contract as the expectations an employee has towards their organization in terms of what they will do for them in exchange for their work and commitment. When an organization signals opportunity for advancement, managerial support, and executive coaching in their job posting, the psychological contract is already developing.

Minority employees are keen to the racial climate of their workplace (Buttner, Lowe & Billings-Harris, 2010), but while examining a job posting, the prospective employee is forced to work with limited information to form these climate-based judgements, often by observing linguistic cues within the posting. Indicating a racially tolerant workplace can provide minorities with a false sense of security about the climate/culture of the organization. Color-blind language can create an altered view of organizational alignment with the minority applicants' needs. In the context of the current study, minority applicants are expected to respond poorly to CBL due to previous patterns of socialization (Banks & Spencer, 2006).

Under the color-blind language condition, racial minority applicants may have a different schema from non-minority applicants surrounding the amount of perceived support they expect they will receive from their organization. The opportunities for upward mobility often emphasized in job postings are historically inaccessible to employees of color. Researchers conducted a survey of minority employees residing in the USA, and noted extensive PCVs, and a lack of upward mobility compared to non-minority employees (Rosette et al, 2008). This may decrease perceived organizational support & organizational attraction levels for minority applicants. Color-blind

language inherently disregards equity as an applicable modern construct (Mayorga-Gallo & Smith, 2017). This theme of ‘disavowal’ of racial differences within the organization’s recruitment materials may lower attraction among minority groups.

Avery et al. (2003) noted minority applicants will experience higher levels of organizational attraction (OA) when the applicant shares demographic similarities with the representative(s) they see depicted within the organization. Just as pictorial cues can influence levels of organizational attraction & perceived organizational support in minority samples, linguistic cues also alter such perceptions. The presence of CBL in recruitment materials is not uncommon (Ford & Patterson, 2019), but it may be a potential indicator of sub-optimal DEI policy. However, it is predicted that racial context will mitigate any significant positive signals, as the minority lens under the colorblind condition is not generally positive due to previous discriminatory work experiences that alter one’s racial identity (Banks & Spencer, 2006).

Viewing this two-way interaction (CBL/Minority) through a realistic lens, please entertain the following scenario for explanatory purposes: Picture Applicant 1, a Latina woman, is looking for a job in corporate systems management (similar to the vignette). Applicant 1 sifts through the advertisements and opens a posting that catches her eye. In big, bold letters, the text describes opportunities for advancement & skill-based internal promotion, which interests her, since career growth is important; Applicant 1 left her previous job because she felt under-appreciated, underpaid, and overlooked for a promotion when she met all the qualifications. As there were no programs in place, her direct supervising manager promised that she was next up for the

promotion, but this did not pan out. She quit shortly after the promotion & associated raise was given to a less senior coworker.

Thinking back to her previous job, Applicant 1 remembered not feeling accepted by coworkers even though she had identical qualifications and is also bilingual. When Applicant 1 sees that the new job posting doesn't have any examples of minority support/inclusion, she goes on the company website to investigate the overall impressions of how they handle diversity. Under a tab labeled 'Diversity Policy' is a brief statement about the company's 'fundamental commitment to racial equality', but no further explanation of this commitment is provided besides a copy of EEOC policy, which Applicant 1 knows from experience doesn't bode well and quickly moves on to the next posting.

Caucasian Reactions to Color-blind Language. During the application process, prospective employees look for cues as to the quality of the organization, and how employees are treated and promoted. Signaling theory, a type of 'cooperative behavior', (Bangerter, A., Roulin, N., & König, C. J., 2012) explains the desire of the organization to appear as an ideal match for applicants, and this can be achieved by the transfer of incomplete information to elicit a positive response. If the hypothetical applicant with a strong skill set is seeking a steady career with opportunities for promotion, the organization will undoubtedly attempt to reassure them that their goals are aligned, and the applicant's needs will be met. Color-blind language can influence levels of organizational attraction and perceptions of organizational support through language that generates positive perceptions of culture, climate, and ultimately goodness-of-fit in majority applicants.

Language manipulation alters organizational attraction & perceived organizational support for non-minority applicants as well, but it is

predicted to increase OA, due to themes identified when the racial lens is examined. In 2010, social scientist and researcher Barbara Applebaum posed the thought-provoking question: “Do I implement what I argue for theoretically?” Several case studies suggest that the answer to this question is often ‘no’ for many non-minority Americans.

In their revolutionary 2017 case study, a series of 43 interviews were conducted with a sample of well-educated Caucasian Millennial Americans (Smith & Mayorga-Gallow, 2017). Most participants responded favorably to the cue term word ‘diversity’, and this majority also stated they believed diversity is important when the term was presented without a pre-established racial lens. However, when the same participants were asked to describe how the term ‘affirmative action’ made them feel regarding equity in college admissions, responses were not favorable. When asked to explain this disconnect, the most commonly-voiced concern was that this policy seems unfair, and that it could affect them negatively. Color-blindness was noted throughout many participants’ statements.

The researchers concluded that color-blindness can stem from places of ignorance and privilege of racial dominance. Interestingly, participants tended to associate ‘diversity’ with other factors besides race, such as occupational background or hobbies. Some participants reported these surface-level factors as comparable in importance with racial diversity, which shows a lack of awareness towards the weight of racial inequity, and color-blindness tendencies that can be applied to this population (within reason). They also saw racial diversity as a commodity of experience, in the way that it is enjoyable to try food or music from a different culture, and in reports of participants visiting minority spaces to learn about culture, which are not necessarily bad things. The research duo also noted a particularly important

point: as the United States becomes increasingly demographically diverse, these shifts may eventually make Caucasian people a ‘numerical minority’ (Smith & Mayorga-Gallow, 2017), the effects of which are widely hypothetical and do not warrant mention. However, general findings of this case study indicate that young, Caucasian Americans may tend to overlook inequity because they either view it as a relic of times past due to the (mean) liberal-leaning social views of the sample, or because it makes them uncomfortable as somehow being complicit or responsible.

In the current study, it was predicted that that color-blind language is likely to increase organizational attraction for the racial majority due to the language’s appealing, palatable messages of surface-level, racial tolerance (Bell & Hartmann, 2007). This is not a new phenomenon: color-blindness among Caucasian groups was noted in the literature nearly thirty years ago. Quite like the case study research of Smith & Mayorga-Gallow, Frankenberg (1993) conducted a series of interviews with Caucasian American women and found that nearly all participants had adopted a color-blind perspective at some point in their lives.

What follows is the second lens scenario through the lens of a racial majority applicant, under the color-blind language condition (Majority/CBL). Applicant 2 is a Caucasian man. He left his old job because of a supervisor that was causing him excessive stress. He works in corporate systems management. As Applicant 2 browses job listings, he notices a company that offers great benefits and a good salary. Then, he notices that the posting mentions that they don’t see color in hiring under the EEOC policy. Applicant 2 responds to this positively. He thinks that equality is important, as many of his minority friends are also looking for work and he has heard from his friends that some people can give them a hard time during interviews.

Applicant 2 feels like this organization has a good culture and likes the benefits and the opportunities listed for internal promotion.

Functional Equity Language Condition. In the other LC, functional equity language (FEL), the linguistic cues differ greatly in the types of signals they send when compared to color-blind cues, due to an emphasis on actively working to promote equity, from a long-standing state of racial inequity that persists to the present. It is important to note that functional equity is not the explicit inverse of color-blindness; they are distinct constructs and will be treated as such. The present study was not intended to test the strength or directionality of the correlation between the two vignette conditions.

Minority Reactions to Functional Equity Language. It was predicted that minority applicants would respond more favorably to the functional equity language condition than the color-blind language due to racial salience. Functional equity language is expected to convey signals of policy-backed support, protection against discrimination, and a sense of community to minority employees. This equity also should signal fair access to the resources listed in recruitment materials, and a safe space for freedom of identity expression. I predict minority employees will view the functional equity condition as a refuge to recover from perceived discrimination.

While minority reactions to color-blind language are expected to be poor, the functional equity language condition was predicted to elicit another response. When cues of tolerance, self-expression, and support are presented, reactions are more likely to be positive. Picture the following lens scenario: Applicant 1, the Latina woman, sees another job posting. As she reads, she sees that the posting describes an opening for systems manager, internal opportunities for promotion, and a program called Voices of Color, which

provides training and educational courses for minority employees. Given her poor experiences with feeling overlooked at her last job, she feels that this organization understands her needs as a person of color.

Majority Reactions to Functional Equity Language. While it is predicted that majority applicants will have positive reactions to the color-blind condition, the same group's reaction to functional equity language is expected to be less favorable. This is in part due to the color-blind belief held by many that the discrimination isn't real until it's happening to oneself specifically. For the same reasons that majority reactions to color-blindness are positive, the functional equity condition may be viewed as exclusionary or inequitable in a non-traditional sense.

Picture the following scenario. Applicant 2, the Caucasian man, sees the same functional equity posting as Applicant 1. Initially, he thinks that the program sounds great. However, as he reads on and identifies cues of open acknowledgement of racial inequity, this may cause discomfort as Applicant 1 wrestles with his self-image. He wonders if the Voices of Color program will put him at a disadvantage, and why it is even necessary to begin with. 'Why not give the same chances to everyone?' he thinks, and then remembers his Asian friend's comment about having a hard time during interviews, and not really understanding what he meant. Applicant 1 can sympathize, but not empathize, and he feels as though another organization would be a better fit.

H1. *(Two-way interaction): Recruitment language and racial minority status interact such that for minority applicants, (a) Perceived Organizational Support and (b) Organizational Attraction will be higher within the functional equity condition as compared to the color-blind language condition, whereas for majority applicants, (a) Perceived Organizational Support and (b) Organizational Attraction will be higher within the color-blind language condition as compared to the functional equity condition.*

H2. *(Three-way interaction): Recruitment language, racial minority status, and racial identity centrality interact such that (a) perceived organizational support and (b) organizational attraction will be the highest for high centrality, minority applicants in the functional equity language condition, whereas (a) perceived organizational support and (b) organizational attraction will be highest for high centrality minority applicants in the color-blind language condition.*

4. Methodology

4.1 Participant Sample Requirements

A sample of at least 260 was needed for enough statistical power, given the analyses required by the two hypotheses. Qualifications for participation included being over the age of 18, and being currently employed in any capacity, including remote or temporary work. Since the experiment attempted to illustrate the influences of both race & identity centrality on applicant reactions, the sample needed sufficient representation from minority and non-minority groups alike; having a heterogeneous racial sample was important in order to sufficiently test for group differences. Additionally, participants needed an internet connection & electronic device in order to participate, since this study utilized a remote hosting platform (CloudResearch), and an online survey-building platform (Qualtrics) to collect data.

4.2 Power Analysis

For the analyses to have adequate statistical power & effect size to sufficiently test H1 and H2, several a-priori power analyses were conducted. Since LC, RMS, and RIC can be treated as statistically or functionally similar, interactions between all three IVs were examined using a 2x2x2 factorial design.. To determine sample size, relationships considered in power analysis included the three main effects, 2 two-way interaction effects, and one 3- way interaction effect. For a depiction of power analysis inputs & outputs, please refer to Table 2 below.

Table 2. A-Priori Power Analyses

<i>Type of Analysis</i>	<i>Sample Size Needed</i>	<i>Effect Size</i>
Paired-samples <i>t</i> -test	260	.20
Univariate ANOVA	216	.25
Independent samples <i>t</i> -test	223	.35

Note. 80% power was desired.

4.3 Experimental Design

The design of the proposed study is centered around reducing error and contamination to isolate the desired interactions. Both vignettes are void of image-based signaling, and language was tailored to mimic each condition as authentically as (please refer to Table 3). Given the short window of time for data collection & analysis, participants' data was thoroughly parsed through so that only quality respondents' ratings were included in the dataset.

To reduce potential distortion (possibly stemming from identity incongruence) in self-reported judgments and subsequent responses, participants are exposed to an alternate project title; 'The Language of Recruitment: How the Wording of Job Advertisements Impacts Applicant Perceptions'. Additionally, the study's anonymity was intended to elicit candid and truthful reactions; though this anonymity also produced unanticipated racial faking behaviors among several participants.

The dual-moderator design (RMS v. RIC) of the current model was devised out of necessity for nuanced, continuous data, that extends analyses past categorical demographics in this investigation of racial effects. Furthermore, this research design took a deliberate effort to consider theoretical models of race and ethnicity in its materials and structure.

4.4 Vignette Design

To ensure the vignette job posting viewing and response process will feel as realistic and authentic as possible, a significant effort was put forth to produce unique, text-only vignettes that effectively allow participants to make judgements based on variability in language. A faux company name, ‘Voyage Industries’ was created to prevent radical individual differences in perceptions of the climate and culture of real organizations. A neutral color palette and professional-style formatting were used to make the vignettes appear more polished and realistic, given the intentional absence of pictorial cues.

To ensure the linguistic cues within each vignette represent the construct sufficiently, and do not use potentially overlapping cues, a miniature ‘case study’ on the language of race was conducted. First, a thorough literature review of qualitative and quantitative research on color-blindness & functional equity was conducted. Key themes and values of each type of language were identified. Then, I looked for these thematic elements in real job advertisements on the Internet and found numerous examples of both conditions in order to construct each vignette.

Web-Based Vignette Resources. After deciding to use a vignette survey design, care had to be taken in creating the linguistic content of each posting. By viewing publicly-available, web-based job postings via LinkedIn and Google, and by operationalizing past research on color-blindness & fostering tangible equity, I was able to identify specific terms, patterns, and phrases that are indicative of color-blindness and functional equity, respectively. Table 2 (as pictured below) categorizes & lists these ‘cue’ words and/or phrases in further detail.

Table 3.

Vignette Language Benchmarking

<i>Language Condition</i>	<i>Indicative terms/patterns of FEL/CBL (Language Condition)</i>	<i>Examples of such terms/pattern identified in the extant (publicly accessible recruitment literature materials found online)</i>
CBL	Explicit compliance with EEOC guidelines, which represent the legal minimum protections afforded by Title VII.	Verbatim restate of the EEOC guidelines; “We are an equal opportunity employer and we do not discriminate on the basis of age, ancestry, citizenship, color, ethnicity, family or medical care leave, gender identity or expression, genetic information, marital status, medical condition, national origin, physical or invisible disability status, political affiliation, veteran status, race, religion, or sexual orientation.” (2, 3, 6)
CBL	Themes of unity: fitting in, value congruence, & group identity.	“We value our individuality, and we also understand that together, we thrive. Most importantly, we know we’re not for everyone! We’re focused on finding the right people who are energized by our culture, with diverse experiences and backgrounds that will help us unlock our full potential. Complacency doesn’t live here. We’ve built a team of world-class people who really want to work with other world-class people. Click here to view our DNA, and if you like what you see, please, read on!” (7)
CBL	‘Happy Talk’ (Bell & Hartmann, 2007) Buzzwords are used to applaud diversity, while failing to specify how/why the program creates equity. Lack of actionable language.	“Flexible, fun, awesome start-up environment & culture.” (4) “Fun perks; company-sponsored meals and virtual events, DEI + philanthropic initiatives and events.” (6)

CBL	Media spotlight on racially salient events temporarily ‘cures’ organizational color-blindness. This ‘headliner effect’ can be observed when an organization releases a statement of new-found awareness, or makes a visible, yet cosmetic, policy change prompted by media coverage of a race-related incident gaining public attention.	<p>“Up until [the death of George Floyd], the prevailing corporate wisdom identified that having a zero-tolerance policy for racism...or other forms of prejudice or discrimination, was enough.” (1)</p> <p>Note the sudden ‘awareness’ of these long-standing issues (in this example, tensions between minorities and the police are ongoing due to a historical precedent of excessive use of force/racial profiling).</p>
FEL	Shore’s Model of Inclusion (2011) The organization’s language encourages expression of identity, and the importance of inclusivity is emphasized. Actionable language is used.	<p>“[Redacted] is committed to building an inclusive and equitable workplace for individuals of all backgrounds. We strive to build a workplace where employees feel comfortable bringing their authentic selves to work, every day.” (8)</p> <p>Note the language regarding identity expression, and emphasis on ODT. The statement is void of cues of pressure to ‘belong’ or ‘conform’.</p>
FEL	Inclusion policy that goes above and beyond EEOC guidelines	“Trust, safety, & inclusion” as core values (5)
FEL	Plain & direct language patterns with actionable intent. There is recognition of current inequities, and specific next steps towards building equity. (A <i>functional</i> alternative to Bell & Hartmann’s ‘Happy Talk’)	“With several internal committees...dedicated to mental & physical wellness, diversity, inclusion, and community outreach, we are committed to making a culture that is inclusive to all. [Redacted]...seeks out ways to create a mindful workforce that embraces diversity & celebrates a culture of inclusion.” (9)
FEL	Specific minority advancement/leadership/training opportunities mentioned	“...[the organization] orchestrate[s] monthly employee groups (philanthropy, community, DEI)...support [KPIs].” (9)

To reinforce the need for addressing the harm color-blindness can cause within the organization, here is a direct excerpt from a corporate website regarding their diversity policy: “Up until very recently, the prevailing corporate wisdom identified that having a zero-tolerance policy for racism, homophobia, or other forms of prejudice or discrimination, was enough.” This organization only decided to formally acknowledge that there is racial inequality after the death of George Floyd. The plethora of research dating back to the 1980’s regarding the weakness of Title VII expresses the exact opposite of this sentiment.

During the vignette construction process, identifying the linguistic cues that suggest functional equity, a list of ‘best-practice’ terms was deliberately generated, both for local validation purposes and practical use. To successfully attract & retain minority talent, the selection & recruitment fields must encourage tangible equity in DEI policy that acts as a supportive & protective network. To fully reap the functional benefits of diversity, and to foster a climate of racial equity which allows employees of color to be their authentic selves, the statistical findings from the study will hopefully prompt organizations to break the cycle of minority PCVs.

Two vignette recruitment flier-style job postings were constructed (Appendix B) using sufficiently loaded linguistic cues. The vignettes are loaded into the Qualtrics survey design so that the transition time between viewing the posting and answering perception-based items is as minimal as possible. All participants will be exposed to both postings, but the order of the postings will be randomized across participants.

4.5 Procedure

Participants were recruited using CloudSurvey's Prime Panels feature, which pulls participants from Amazon's MTurk worker database. With Prime Panels, the demographic characteristics of eligible participants are based on quotas specified by the researcher. I constructed a heterogeneous sample quota, using gender and race as demographic filtering criterion. After accepting the task via CloudResearch, eligible participants received the survey link to the Qualtrics platform. All participants were instructed to thoroughly read the informed consent form, which makes it explicit that withdrawal from the study is allowed at any time, for any reason the participant may seem fit.

After giving their consent, participants followed on-screen prompts in order to complete the 10-minute survey. First, participants reported general demographic information. Interestingly, the self-report data generated from the demographics section (pre-manipulation stage) has several implications, which are discussed in Chapter 6. Next, participants viewed one of the two job posting vignette conditions (Color-Blind Language vs. Functional Equity Language) in a randomized order. Then, participants answered Likert-style items assessing their levels of OA & POS after viewing the vignette.

To prevent recency/priming effects that would otherwise contaminate judgements of the second randomized vignette condition, a distractor task with low-difficulty items was created. Item difficulty was determined based on recommendations from Nakajima & Sato, 1989. This brief set of 10 elementary-level addition problems was assigned between the first and second experimental condition blocks. Participants completed simple math problems (refer to Appendix B to view distractor task items) designed to take a minimum of 30 seconds to complete, the amount of time recommended by Glanzer & Cunitz (1966) for sufficient reversal of the unwanted effects.

Next, participants were exposed to the second (randomized block ordered) vignette condition, and answered survey items to measure their supposedly distinct perceptions of OA/POS based on the second posting, by completing the same measures

Lastly, following completion of the vignette viewing/response blocks, participants will answer items from two functionally distinct measures, both of which are designed to evaluate one's racial attitudes towards themselves and others. Participants will receive a thank-you message upon completion of the survey, as well as their payment.

4.6 Measures

Organizational Attraction. To measure participants' levels of OA under both vignette conditions, the Applicant Attraction Measure (AAM) will be utilized. This 7-item, 4-point Likert (1-strongly disagree to 4-strongly agree) inventory was developed by Catano & Morrow-Hines in 2016. This measure features two distinct sections: Applicants will make judgements on four items under the category 'Good workplace' items, and three items under the category 'Positive reputation' under both vignette conditions. The AAM contains items such as "I would find this company a prestigious place to work," and "A job at this company is very appealing for me." (Catano & Morrow-Hines, 2016).

Perceived Organizational Support. Eisenberger's (1986) Brief Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS-B) is an 8-item measure with a 7-point Likert (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) scale format. This brief inventory is appropriate for measuring POS levels under each vignette condition just like the AAM. Several items are reverse-coded, and high inter-item correlations have been reported among all 8 items included in the SPOS-B due to their high validity levels (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Example items include "The organization really cares about my well-being," and "Even if I did the best

job possible, the organization would fail to notice,” It is important to note that several items are reverse-scored.

Racial Identity Centrality. To conceptualize race in more than one way, the Brief Ethnic Identity Scale (EIS-B) will be implemented. This 9-item, 4-point (1 = does not describe me well, 4 = describes me very well) Likert-style measure was developed in 2015 by Douglas & Umana-Taylor. A continuous variable, individual levels of racial identity centrality can be measured using the EIS-B (Appendix A), the applicant can be quantified on a Likert scale of how important their ethnicity is to them, and how strongly each participant identifies with their respective ethnic group can be tested with this data. Example items include “I am clear about what my ethnicity means to me”, and several reverse-coded items, including “I feel negatively about my ethnicity”. High EIS-B scores indicate high levels of racial identity centrality (Douglas & Umana-Taylor, 2015).

The EIS-B furthers the aims of the current study because of its parsimonious outputs. Converting complex internal racial dialogue into quantitative values will enrich the present investigation by providing a second layer of depth to race. Additionally, we will be able to compare trends of racial identity centrality between and among racial groups.

Racial Minority Status. Racial minority status is a fixed moderator: participants will either self-identify as a racioethnic minority (i.e. Latino/a, Asian, Pacific Islander, African-American/black, Indigenous American, Middle Eastern, etc.), or as a racioethnic majority (i.e. Caucasian). This information will allow for inter-group comparisons. It is important to note that participants of all races will also be asked the question, “Do you consider yourself to be a racial minority?” This was a forced-choice (yes/no) item in the Demographic Measures survey block.

Demographic Measures. Demographic data collected include basic items such as participants' age, gender, ethnicity, racial minority status, employment type, and length of tenure at current position.

Color-Blind Benchmark. Published in 2000, the Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAs) was designed to quantify individual levels of color-blind attitudes in a standardized format. This useful inventory is formatted according to its three distinct categories of color-blindness: blatant racial issues, unawareness of racial privilege, and institutional discrimination. Given the scope of the proposed study, the CoBRAs inventory has greater utility in differentiating racial attitudes than its predecessors, such as McConahay's Modern Racism Scale (MRS) of 1986, which focuses exclusively on perceptions of Black individuals. The CoBRAs was determined to be better suited than generalized items such as Ponterotto's Quick Discrimination Index (QDI, 1995) in terms of measuring levels of color-blindness.

4.7 Analyses

In order to effectively compare participant scores across conditions and groups, composite scores were created for variables of interest. Data was examined for discrepancies between persons that prompted exploratory analysis. Additionally, because this study included two dichotomous categorical predictors (LC): color-blind language versus functional equity language, and fixed factor RMS (minority v. majority), along with dichotomized predictor (RIC levels), fixed factor analysis can feasibly be conducted using within the Univariate ANOVA function of SPSS, in which all three predictors plus the calculated interaction terms between predictors are included as predictors of the outcomes. The results of these analyses of variance (along with several related *t*-tests) are discussed as they pertain to the hypotheses in the following chapter.

Expected Relationships. It was predicted that the data collected from the proposed study would show several trends. Firstly, I expected to see a significant mean difference between the two language conditions across all participants. Due to theories of social desirability & value incongruence, as well as the current societal levels of discomfort in authentic racial discourse, I predicted that non-minority participants would report higher levels of OA & POS under the CBL condition. I had also predicted that minority participants will report higher levels of OA & POS under the FEL condition, perhaps due to past workplace racial traumas or rejection sensitivity. It was also expected that individuals who report high levels of RIC will be further from the mean for both conditions in terms of OA & POS due to this strength-based moderation.

5. Results

5.1 Data Characteristics & Preliminary Analyses

The refined, filtered sample used for the following analyses contained up to $N = 278$ participants recruited from CloudResearch (which acts as a proxy to recruit MTurk workers). Of those 278, 125 (45.0%) were Caucasian, and 153 were racial or ethnic minorities (55.0%). Out of the 153 minority participants, 106 (38.1%) were African American/black, 17 were multi-racial (6.1%), 13 were Asian (4.7%), two participants (0.7%) were Indigenous American, one participant (0.4%) participant was Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, seven (2.5%) participants were Hispanic/LatinX, and two (0.7%) self-described as another race not listed. One participant described themselves as Arabic, while another participant described themselves as Middle Eastern. The sample ranged in age ($N = 277$) from 18 to 75, with a mean participant age of 39.2 years ($SD = 13.91$ years). One participant did not wish to report their age, but due to their otherwise complete data and sufficient response quality, their data was kept in the sample set.

81 participants were removed from the dataset for various reasons, and after a thorough review of all raw data, three main criterion for removal were set, including low-effort respondency (i.e. incomplete responses, distorted Likert rating due to minimal engagement), blatant racism, and racial deception (both intentional/unintentional) (see Chapter 6.2 for further discussion of removal criterion). It is important to emphasize that all data removal was done in order to increase the quality of the dataset, and by eliminating poor quality responders, a more accurate sample was acquired.

After data was extracted and cleaned, composite mean variables were created in SPSS in order to test the hypotheses. For the dependent variable POS, which was scaled in a 7-point Likert format, a composite mean was made for each

individual participant based on their responses to all items. In the same fashion, composite mean scores were also created for dependent variable OA, which was scaled in a 5-point Likert format. These composites were created to simplify the analysis and mean comparison process between persons and groups. Grouping of POS & OA scores by RMS & Language Condition occurred later in the analysis, during univariate tests of two- and three-way interaction effects.

5.2 Two-way Interaction Hypothesis Testing

To check for possible between-persons differences for the manipulation of the language condition, while simultaneously evaluating the strength of RMS moderation, composite mean scores were created for variables OA & POS, respectively. Data included in the following analyses was limited to the first language condition viewed by each participant with the dichotomous moderator RMS included as a fixed factor, since RMS was predicted to act as a boundary condition that anticipated directionality for general trends in participant levels of OA and POS, depending on language condition and minority status. (i.e. less favorable or more favorable). The composite mean data used to run each ANOVA for H1 in the following analyses was limited to the first language condition viewed by each participant

POS. A factorial univariate ANOVA was conducted to test H1(a), which suggested an interaction between RMS and experimental condition when predicting POS. RMS (majority v. minority) and experimental condition (FEL v. CBL) were entered as dichotomous fixed factors and the full factorial model was calculated such that the interaction between these factors was also tested. Results indicate no significant impacts on POS for condition, $F(1, 266) = .01, p = .92, \eta = .00$, RMS, $F(1, 266) = 2.35, p = .13, \eta = .01$, or the interaction term, $F(1, 266) = .03, p = .86, \eta = .00$. Thus, H1a was not supported. Additionally, graphic depictions do not reflect any discernible interaction between RMS and experimental conditions (please refer

to Figure 1). For a tabular display of sample sizes, means, and standard deviations, please refer to Table 4 below. For a tabular display of ANOVA values and interaction terms, please refer to Table 5.

Table 4.

*Descriptives for Perceived Organizational Support as a function of (Condition*RMS)*

RMS	<i>Language Condition (LC)</i>								
	Functional Equity			Color-blind			Total		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Majority	3.66	1.01	64	3.70	1.06	56	3.68	1.03	120
Minority	3.50	1.01	73	3.49	.95	77	3.50	.97	150
Total	3.56	1.01	137	3.58	1.00	133	3.57	1.00	270

Note. No significant differences were detected in this two-way interaction.

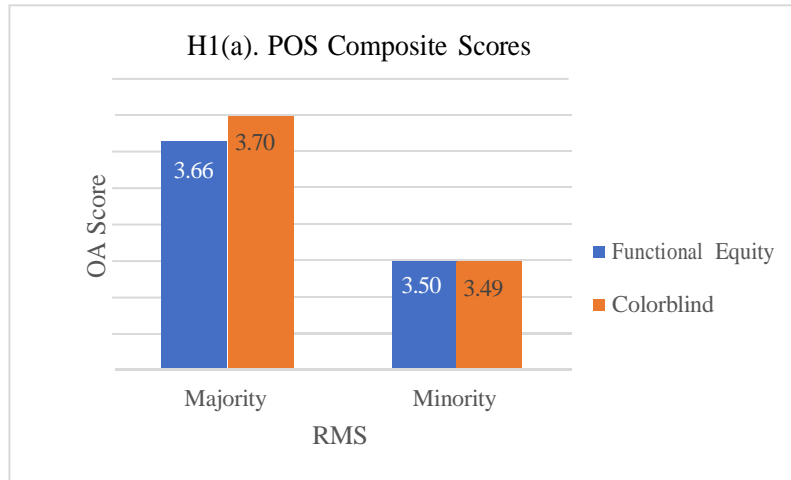
Table 5.

Factorial ANOVA with POS as Criteria

Predictor	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Partial η^2
(Intercept)	3422.30	1	3422.30	3418.96	.001*	.93
Condition	.01	1	.01	.01	.919	.00
RMS	2.35	1	2.35	2.35	.127	.01
Condition * RMS	.03	1	.03	.03	.857	.00
Error	266.26	266	1.00			

Note. The interaction term (Condition*RMS) is not statistically significant ($p = .86$) at an alpha level of $< .05^*$ for DV POS.

Figure 1.
Perceived Organizational Support Composite Scores (RMS*LC)



OA. A factorial univariate ANOVA was conducted to test H1(b), which suggested an interaction between RMS and experimental condition when predicting OA. RMS (majority v. minority) and experimental language condition (FEL v. CBL) were entered as dichotomous fixed factors and the full factorial model was calculated such that the interaction between these factors was also tested. Results indicate no significant impacts on OA for condition, $F(1, 266) = .36, p = .55, \eta = .01$, RMS, $F(1, 266) = 2.61, p = .11, \eta = .01$, or the interaction term, $F(1, 266) = .83, p = .36, \eta = .00$. Thus, H1b was not supported.

However, despite not being statistically significant, the graphic depictions do seem to display a discernible interaction between RMS and experimental conditions. Specifically, the majority group rated OA higher within the colorblind language condition ($M = 3.90, SD = .76$) compared to the functional equity language condition ($M = 3.73, SD = .82$), whereas the minority group rated the functional equity language condition ($M = 3.66, SD = .93$) higher than the colorblind language condition ($M = 3.63, SD = .98$), which does follow the hypothesized pattern (see Figure 2). For a tabular display of sample sizes, means, and standard deviations, please refer to Table 6 below. For a tabular display of ANOVA values and interaction terms, please refer to Table 7 below.

Table 6.

Descriptives for Organizational Attraction (OA) as a function of (LC/RMS)

	<i>Condition</i>								
	Functional Equity			Color-blind			Total		
RMS	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Majority	3.73	.82	63	3.90	.76	58	3.81	.79	121
Minority	3.66	.93	74	3.62	.98	75	3.64	.95	149
Total	3.69	.88	137	3.74	.90	133	3.72	.89	270

Table 7.

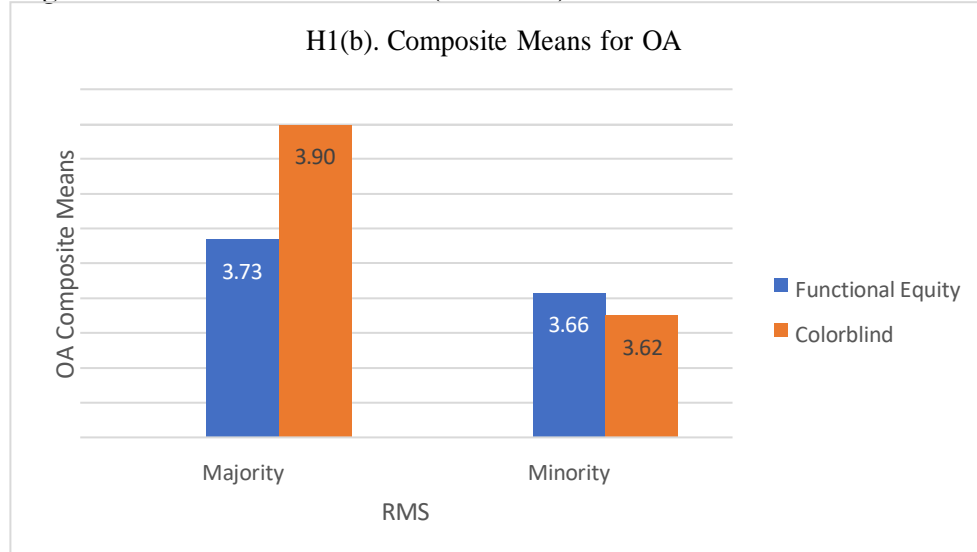
Factorial ANOVA with OA as Criteria

<i>Predictor</i>	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Partial η^2</i>
<i>(Intercept)</i>	3710.90	1	3710.90	4722.08	.001	.95
<i>LC</i>	.29	1	.29	.36	.547	.00
<i>RMS</i>	2.05	1	2.05	2.61	.107	.01
<i>LC * RMS</i>	.653	1	.65	.83	.363	.00
<i>Error</i>	209.04	266	.79			

Note. No significant interactions were detected, $p < .05$.

Figure 2.

Organizational Attraction Scores (RMS*LC)



5.3 Three-way interaction Hypothesis Tests

POS. A factorial univariate ANOVA was conducted to test H2(a), which suggested a 3-way interaction between RMS, RIC, and LC when predicting POS. RMS (majority v. minority), RIC (high v. low), and LC (FEL v. CBL) were entered as dichotomous fixed factors and the full factorial model was calculated such that the interaction between these factors was also tested. Results indicate no significant impacts on POS for condition, $F(1, 261) = .01, p = .93, \eta = .00$, for RMS, $F(1, 261) = 3.37, p = .07, \eta = .01$, or the three-way interaction between RMS, RIC, and LC, $F(1, 261) = .03, p = .86, \eta = .00$. There was a significant main effect of RIC on POS, $F(1, 261) = 8.73, p < .05, \eta = .03$. In sum, H2a was not supported. For a tabular display of sample sizes, means, and standard deviations, please refer to Table 8 below.

Table 8.

Descriptives for three-way interaction using criteria POS as a function of (Condition/RMS/RIC)

<i>RIC Levels</i>										
LC	Low RIC (x < 2.89)				High RIC (x > 2.89)			Total		
	<i>RMS</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Functional Equity	Majority	3.62	1.06	39	3.73	.93	25	3.66	1.01	64
	Minority	3.20	.60	32	3.75	1.20	40	3.64	.95	72
Color-blind	Majority	3.60	.90	31	3.82	1.23	25	3.70	1.06	56
	Minority	3.18	.53	35	3.74	1.14	42	3.49	.95	77
Total		3.41	.83	137	3.76	1.13	132	3.58	1.00	269

Note. Main effects of RIC are visible.

Table 9.

Three-way Factorial ANOVA with POS as Criteria

Predictor	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Partial η^2
(Intercept)	3329.05	1	3329.05	3425.77	.001	.93
<i>LC</i>	.01	1	.01	.01	.928	.00
<i>RMS</i>	3.28	1	3.28	3.37	.067	.01
<i>RIC</i>	8.49	1	8.49	8.73	.003*	.03
<i>LC*RMS</i>	.03	1	.03	.03	.857	.00
<i>LC*RIC</i>	.04	1	.04	.04	.842	.00
<i>RMS*RIC</i>	2.56	1	2.56	2.63	.106	.01
<i>LC*RMS*RIC</i>	.03	1	.03	.03	.855	.00
Error	253.63	261	.97			

Note. Starred values represent significance at a 95% CI, $p < .05$. No interaction effects were detected.

However, despite not being statistically significant, graphic depictions do seem to display a discernible interaction between RMS, RIC, and experimental conditions. Specifically, the majority group rated POS higher within the color-blind LC ($M = 3.82$, $SD = 1.23$), compared to the functional equity LC ($M = 3.73$, $SD = .93$) when RIC was high, whereas the minority group rated the functional equity language condition ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 1.20$) higher than the colorblind language condition when RIC was also high ($M = 3.74$, $SD = 1.14$). This interaction is present only when RIC is high, and does not seem to be present when RIC is low (please refer to Tables 5 and 6 for a tabular display of values). This pattern does follow the hypothesized pattern (see Figures 3 and 4).

Figure 3.

*Perceived Organizational Support Scores (RMS*LC*LOW RIC)*

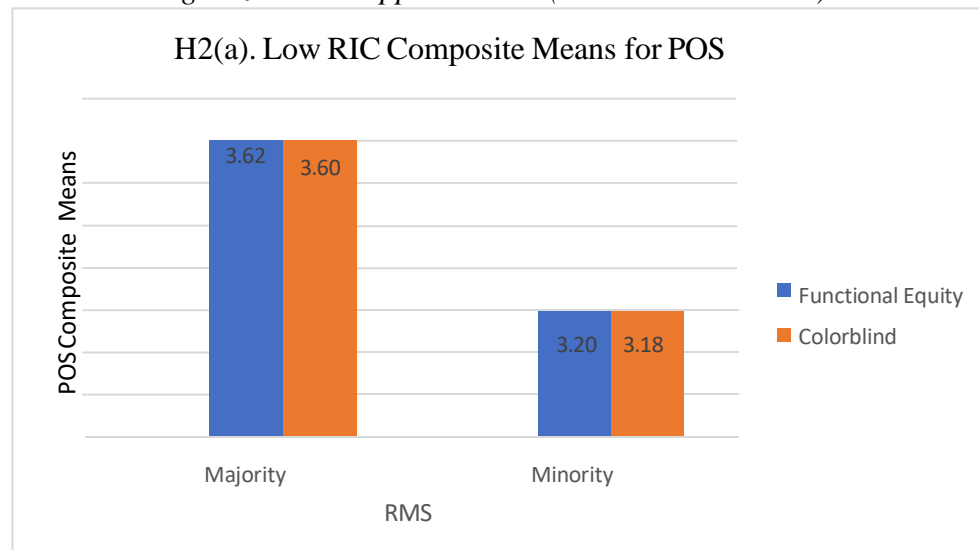
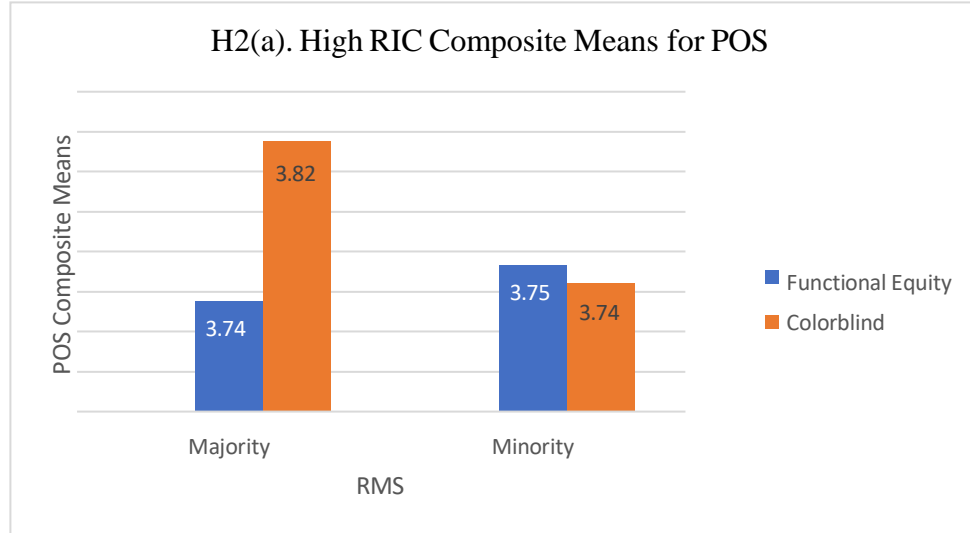


Figure 4.

*Perceived Organizational Support Scores (RMS*LC*HIGH RIC)*



OA. A factorial univariate ANOVA was conducted to test hypothesis 2b, which suggested a three-way interaction between RMS, RIC, and experimental conditions when predicting OA. RMS (majority v. minority), RIC (high v. low), and LC (FEL v. CBL) were entered as dichotomous fixed factors and the full factorial model was calculated such that the interaction between these factors was also tested. Results indicate no significant impacts on OA for condition, $F(1, 261) = .33, p = .57, \eta = .00$, or for the three-way interaction between RMS, RIC, and language condition, $F(1, 261) = .17, p = .68, \eta = .00$. There was a significant main effect of RIC on POS, $F(1, 261) = 11.31, p < .001, \eta = .04$, and for RMS, $F(1, 261) = 4.21, p < .05, \eta = .02$. While several significant main effects were detected, H2b was not ultimately supported due to the insignificance of the three-way interaction posited by the hypothesis.

Table 10.

Descriptives for three-way interaction using criteria OA as a function of (LC/RMS/RIC)

		<i>RIC Levels</i>								
		Low RIC ($x < 2.89$)			High RIC ($x > 2.89$)			Total		
LC	RMS	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Functional Equity	Majority	3.59	.83	38	3.95	.77	25	3.73	.82	63
	Minority	3.38	.78	32	3.90	.99	41	3.67	.93	73
Color-blind	Majority	3.77	.69	33	4.07	.84	25	3.90	.76	58
	Minority	3.47	.89	34	3.75	1.05	41	3.62	.98	75
Total		3.55	.81	137	3.89	.94	132	3.72	.89	269

Table 11.

Three-way Factorial ANOVA with OA as Criteria

Predictor	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	Partial η^2
(Intercept)	3627.95	1	3627.95	4756.58	.001	.95
LC	.25	1	.25	.33	.567	.00
RMS	3.21	1	3.21	4.21	.041*	.02
RIC	8.63	1	8.63	11.31	.001*	.04
LC*RMS	.47	1	.47	.62	.432	.00
LC*RIC	.40	1	.40	.52	.472	.00
RMS*RIC	.07	1	.07	.09	.760	.00
LC*RMS*RIC	.13	1	.13	.17	.678	.00
Error	199.07	261	.76			

Note. $p < .05^*$

However, despite not being statistically significant, the graphic depictions do seem to display a discernible interaction between RMS, RIC, and Language Condition. Similar to the plots for H2a, the majority group rated OA higher within the colorblind language condition ($M = 4.07, SD = .84$) compared to the functional equity language condition ($M = 3.95, SD = .77$) when RIC was high, whereas the minority group rated the functional equity language condition ($M = 3.90, SD = .99$) higher than the colorblind language condition ($M = 3.75, SD = 1.05$), but only when RIC is high, whereas this interaction does not seem to be present when RIC is low. This pattern does follow the hypothesized pattern (see Figures 7 and 8).

Figure 5.

*Organizational Attraction Scores (RMS*LC*LOW RIC)*

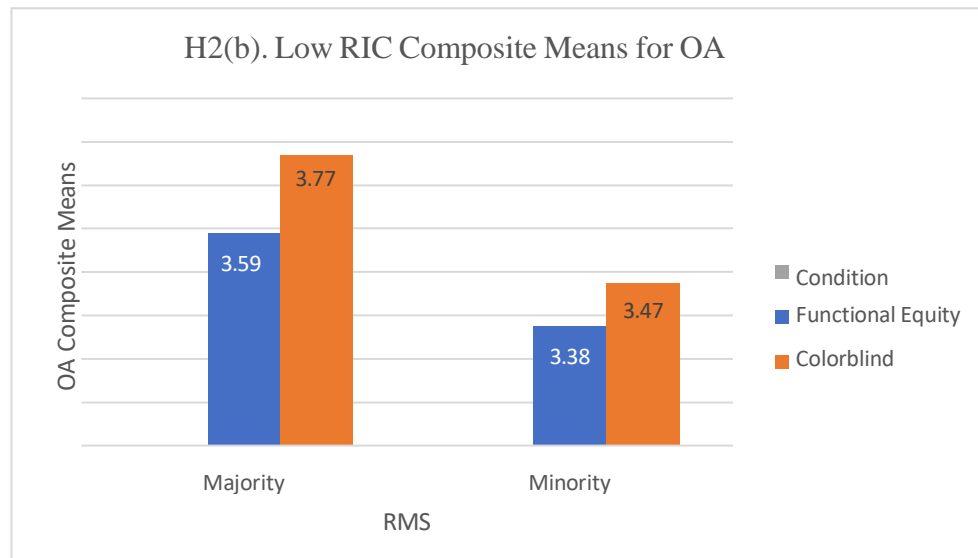
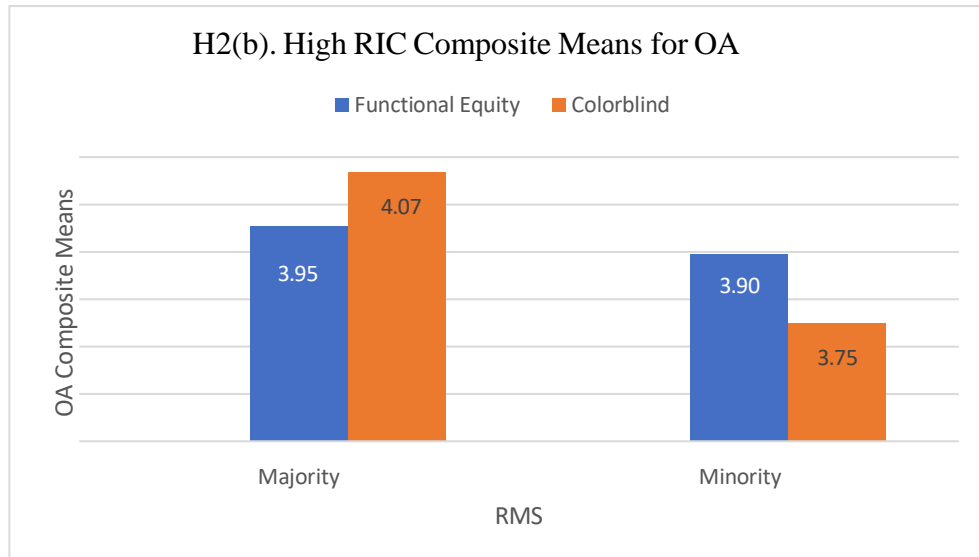


Figure 6. *Organizational Attraction Scores (RMS*LC*HIGH RIC)*



5.4 Exploratory Analyses

Main Effects of RIC. In order to investigate the possible strengthening effect of racioethnic identity centrality (RIC) on POS & OA, the first step was to compare levels of this continuous moderator between the minority and majority samples. After conducting an independent samples *t*-test to check for mean group differences using participants' RIC composite scores (Douglas & Umana-Taylor, 2015) Likert-style data, it was found that minority participants had higher average levels of racioethnic identity centrality ($M = 3.03$, $SD = .51$) than majority participants ($M = 2.82$, $SD = .45$); $t(273) = 3.549$, $p < .001$. Implications of this mean score difference are discussed in Chapter 6.2. In primacy, it is noted here that mean differences were apparent between minority and majority RIC scores, even prior to binning.

CoBRAs. Prior to data collection & analysis, the Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAs, Neville et al., 2000) was indicated as an effective tool to measure participants' level of color-blind attitudes or thoughts. After conducting an independent-samples *t*-test to measure variations in CoBRAs scores conditional on racial minority status (RMS), the majority sample ($N = 122$) had significantly higher levels of color-blind attitudes, ($M = 2.97$, $SD = .59$) in relation to the minority sample ($N = 145$), ($M = 2.75$, $SD = .45$); $t(265) = 3.51$, $p < .001$. However, the Pearson correlation between composite OA/POS scores of Caucasian participants under the CBL condition ($N = 117$) and CoBRAs composite scores is weak ($r = .11$), yet another indicator of an underpowered manipulation.

6. Discussion

6.1 Overview & Implications

While neither hypothesis H1 nor H2 were in a statistical sense, given the lack of significant interactions between RMS, Language Condition, and RIC, there were several notable main effects and mean differences worth reporting due to their salience in a larger, organizational and applied context. Additionally, the overall weakness of the vignette condition manipulation ($M = 3.58$ vs. 3.60) may have obscured any identifiable racial differences to due to the weakness of the experimental design, a flaw that could remedied in future endeavors by manipulating the language differences more strongly in vignette design.

The following sections provide a qualitative interpretation of relevant findings for both H1 and H2, as well as the exploratory CoBRAs and RIC (as grouped by RMS) analyses. Data depicted graphically was produced by comparing mean differences, and any significance, or lack thereof, was empirically determined through the three types of analyses. Graphic depictions are provided as an alternative to the tabular format of the previous chapter for visualization of trends. The implications and salience of these findings are discussed as they pertain to the study's original framework, and through a broader, more applied lens.

As depicted in Figure 1, minority participants rated nearly the same level of POS for both language conditions. Although majority participants did report slightly higher POS in the color-blind condition, mean differences were minimal and not significant. As depicted in Figure 2, consistent with the hypothesized pattern, minority participants reported higher OA in the functional equity condition as compared to the color-blind language condition, whereas majority participants reported higher OA in the color-blind condition as compared to the functional equity condition. Finally, as depicted in Figures 3 and 4 , minority and majority participants reported similar amounts of POS in both conditions when RIC was low, whereas when RIC was high, minority participants reported higher POS in the functional equity condition and majority participants reported higher POS in the color-blind condition. In sum, although there were no statistically significant findings for the study hypotheses, the patterns of mean scores for POS and OA generally followed the hypothesized logic.

6.2 Implications & Recommendations

Participant data was removed from the initial sample if it was deemed irrelevant to the current analysis. Examples include distorted Likert rating patterns due to low-effort responding, intentional manipulation of demographic information, or purposefully providing inappropriate responses in short-answer format items. Several participants chose to self-identify as a minority (while Prime Panels classifies them as another race) in order to use a colorful variety of racial slurs in self-report format questions in a paid survey setting, which prompts questions of motivation behind blatantly racist, unprompted behavior. Blumer's theory of interactionism comes to mind for these biased individuals, whose data was promptly eliminated. Additionally, it was worth noting that gender was examined as a control variable and no notable effects were reported.

Organizational Implications. Based on the mean scores of both FEL and CBL conditions, functional equity is likely desirable to include in organizational recruitment literature if an organization is aiming to attract a diverse applicant pool, but additional research is needed to confirm its utility given the low generalizability of the current analyses. Due to the weakness of the vignette design and the associated experimental manipulation, impactful demographic differences are not readily apparent under the scope of this experiment. Still, other scholars continue to remind us of the lack of current equity for employees of color.

This study attempted to provide a concrete set of organizational recruitment recommendations regarding the language surrounding race. After much analysis, the majority of which demonstrated the model's structural and statistical weaknesses, it seems unwise to provide concrete recommendations at this time. The most significant finding was the sheer range of attitudes, beliefs, judgments, and experiences participants reported.

Overall, it was found that racial minority participants responded marginally more positively to the functional equity language condition when compared to the color-blind language condition, whereas racial majority participants rated the color-blind condition generally (yet still marginally) higher than the functional equity condition. As practitioners, recruiters should be able to readily recognize both functional equity and color-blindness when modifying recruitment strategy.

This study reinforces that not enough is known about race- related organizational language signaling cues to recommend a definitive course of action at this time. While this data alone cannot justify the importance of racial language refinement in recruitment, the loose directional adherence of the dataset to the hypothesized relationships warrants further investigation between racial minority status and recruitment language. Still, CoBRAs scores were significantly higher among majority participants, reinforcing the prevalence of color-blind values first noted decades ago. Racial identity centrality appears to play a complex role in how we perceive the information presented.

6.3 Limitations & Future Research

Firstly, the overall weakness of the vignette manipulation between language conditions was readily apparent ($M = 3.58$ vs. 3.60), and this may have obscured any identifiable racial differences to due to the weakness of the experimental design, a flaw that could remedied in future endeavors. Piloting each language condition before collecting data would have been optimal.

In future research ventures, I would refine and test each language condition's vignette design to increase the likelihood of RMS acting as boundary condition. Since the hypothesized directional patterns were loosely supported, and discrepancies were noted between RMS groups, further analysis is needed to better understand how language cues impact judgements of organizational fit.

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Appendix A

1. Organizational Attraction (OA) Metric

7-item Applicant Attraction Measure (AAM, 2016)

Likert Scale Scoring (1-5, 1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)

Items

Good Workplace

1. A job at this company is very appealing for me.
2. For me, this company would be a good place to work.
3. I would make this company one of my first choices as an employer.
4. I would exert a great deal of effort to work for this company.

Positive Reputation

5. This company seems to care about its employees and their psychological health.
6. This company probably has a reputation for being an excellent employer.
7. I would find this company a prestigious place to work.

Adapted from:

Catano, V. M., & Morrow Hines, H. (2016). *Applicant Attraction Measure* [Database record]. APA PsycTests.

2. Perceived Organizational Support (POS) Metric

8-item Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS)

Likert Scale Scoring (0-6, 0 = Strongly disagree, 6 = Strongly agree)

Participant Instructions

Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that YOU may have about working at 'VOYAGE'. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by filling in the circle on your answer sheet that best represents your point of view about 'VOYAGE'. Please choose from the following answers:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being. (1)
2. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (3R)
3. The organization would ignore any complaint from me. (7R)
4. The organization really cares about my well-being. (9)
5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. (17R)
6. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work. (21)
7. The organization shows very little concern for me. (23R)
8. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work. (27)

Adapted from:

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). *Brief Survey of Perceived Organizational Support* [Database Record]. APA PsycTests.

3. Racial Identity Centrality (RIC) Metric

9-item Brief Ethnic Identity Scale (EIS-B)

Likert Scale Scoring (1-4, 1 = Does not describe me at all, 4 = Describes me very well)

Instructions: The next questions focus on your experiences related to your ethnicity in the past 30 days. As you answer these questions, think about the ethnic group that you feel most a part of. There are no right or wrong answers to any of these questions, we just want to know more about your opinions and experiences. Please fill in one response for each item.

	Does not describe me at all	Describes me a little	Describes me well	Describes me very well
1. I am clear about what my ethnicity means to me.	1	2	3	4
2. I have attended events that have helped me learn more about my ethnicity.	1	2	3	4
3. I have read books/magazines/newspapers or other materials that have taught me about my ethnicity.	1	2	3	4
4. I feel negatively about my ethnicity.	1	2	3	4
5. I wish I were of a different ethnicity.	1	2	3	4
6. I know what my ethnicity means to me.	1	2	3	4
7. I have participated in activities that have taught me about my ethnicity.	1	2	3	4
8. I dislike my ethnicity.	1	2	3	4
9. I have a clear sense of what my ethnicity means to me.	1	2	3	4

Adapted from:

Umaña-Taylor, A. J., Yazedjian, A. & Bámaca-Gómez, M. Y. (2004). Developing the Ethnic Identity Scale using Eriksonian and social identity perspectives. *Identity: An International Journal of Theory and Research*, 4, 9-38.

4. Color-blind Attitudes Metric

20-item Color-Blind Racial Attitudes Scale (CoBRAs)

Likert Scale Scoring (1: Not at all appropriate & clear, 5: very appropriate & clear)

Items

1. White people in the U.S. have certain advantages because of the color of their skin.
2. Race is very important in determining who is successful and who is not.
3. Race plays an important role in who gets sent to prison.
4. Race plays a major role in the type of social services (such as type of health care or day care) that people receive in the U.S.
5. Racial and ethnic minorities do not have the same opportunities as white people in the U.S.
6. Everyone who works hard, no matter what race they are, has an equal chance to become rich.
7. White people are more to blame for racial discrimination than racial and ethnic minorities.
8. Social policies, such as affirmative action, discriminate unfairly against white people.
9. White people in the U.S. are discriminated against because of the color of their skin.
10. English should be the only official language in the U.S.
11. Due to racial discrimination, programs such as affirmative action are necessary to help create equality.
12. Racial and ethnic minorities in the U.S. have certain advantages because of the color of their skin.

13. It is important that people begin to think of themselves as American and not African American, Mexican-American, or Italian-American.
14. Immigrants should try to fit into the culture and values of the U.S.
15. Racial problems in the U.S. are rare, isolated situations.
16. Talking about racial issues causes unnecessary tension.
17. Racism is a major problem in the U.S.
18. It is important for public schools to teach about the history and contributions of racial and ethnic minorities.
19. It is important for political leaders to talk about racism to help work through or solve society's problems.
20. Racism may have been a problem in the past, it is not an important problem today.

Adapted from:

Neville, H. A., Lilly, R. L., Duran, G., Lee, R. M., & Browne, L. (2000). *Color-blind racial attitudes scale*.

For further reading:

Neville, H. A., Lilly, R. L., Duran, G., Lee, R. M., & Browne, L. (2000). Construction and initial validation of the color-blind racial attitudes scale (CoBRAS). *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 47(1), 59-70. [Database Record]. APA PsycTests.

Appendix B

Color-blind Language Vignette



POSITION: OPERATIONS MANAGER
SALARY RANGE: 54,900 - 65,700
START DATE: AUGUST 2022

POSITION DESCRIPTION



BENEFITS

- 401K MATCH (6%), 4 WEEKS PAID VACATION
- DENTAL & VISION GOLD PLAN INSURANCE
- INTERNAL PROMOTION: OPPORTUNITIES FOR CAREER GROWTH

VOYAGER VALUES

TEAMWORK COHESION RESPECT

OUR COMMITMENT TO DIVERSITY

Under the EEOC, Voyager Industries does not discriminate based on sex, age, race, religion, disability, or gender. We are all Voyagers on a Mission! We do not see color, we see your talent!



Appendix C
Functional Equity Vignette



POSITION: OPERATIONS MANAGER
SALARY RANGE: 54,900 - 65,700
START DATE: AUGUST 2022

POSITION DESCRIPTION



BENEFITS

- 401K MATCH (6%), 4 WEEKS PAID VACATION
- DENTAL & VISION GOLD PLAN INSURANCE
- INTERNAL PROMOTION: OPPORTUNITIES FOR CAREER GROWTH

VOYAGER VALUES

SELF-AUTHENTICITY SUPPORT INCLUSION

OUR COMMITMENT TO DIVERSITY

At Voyage, we recognize that some applicants have not been afforded the same opportunities for Advancement & Growth. Under the Voyage Equitable Talent Initiative (VETI), **All** employees will have access to training, support & mentorship, guided learning, & opportunities For advancement.

