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Resistance to Workplace Equality: How and Why Social Dominance Orientation Matters in Diverse Workgroups

par

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Resistance to Workplace Equality: How and Why Social Dominance Orientation Matters in Diverse Workgroups

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Résumé

Cette thèse doctorale comprend trois essais qui examinent le rôle joué par l'orientation de dominance sociale (ODS) dans un milieu de travail diversifié. L'ODS représente la tendance d'un individu à soutenir et à appuyer les systèmes hiérarchiques et les inégalités au sein des groupes sociaux. Alors que les conséquences néfastes de l'ODS sur la société et les milieux de travail sont documentées, il reste des lacunes dans la compréhension des mécanismes sous-jacents par lesquels elle influence les résultantes de travail et la manière dont elle interagit avec le contexte organisationnel. Par conséquent, l'objectif principal de cette thèse est d'explorer plus en profondeur et de mieux comprendre la signification de l'ODS au sein de groupes de travail diversifiés.

Le premier essai de cette thèse doctorale se centre sur le développement d'un modèle théorique mettant en évidence le rôle de l'ODS dans le processus d'auto-vérification au sein de dyades diversifiées de collègues. Sur la base de la théorie de la dominance sociale (Pratto, Sidanius et Levin, 2006 ; Sidanius et Pratto, 2001), cet essai propose que l'ODS joue un rôle essentiel dans la détermination des identités sociales dominantes, subordonnées ou égalitaires présentées par les membres de ces dyades. Ce modèle vise à étudier l'interaction et la vérification de ces identités dominantes, subordonnées ou égalitaires au sein des dyades de collègues en introduisant une typologie de dyades inégales basée sur les niveaux d'ODS des membres. La typologie identifie quatre types de dyades : les dyades tumultueuses, les dyades conformistes, les dyades égalitaires, et les dyades bienveillantes. Cet essai explore également les impacts de l'ODS sur la compatibilité ou l'incompatibilité des efforts d'auto-vérification au sein des types de dyades identifiés et comment ceci influence ensuite le niveau de soutien ou d'antagonisme entre les membres de la dyade.

Le deuxième essai de cette thèse doctorale explore le rôle de l'ODS des superviseurs dans les groupes de travail présentant une diversité de nations. Sur la base de la théorie de la dominance sociale, cet essai soutient que l'ODS des superviseurs influence la différenciation des échanges entre les leaders et les membres (*leader-member exchange* ; LMX), donnant ainsi naissance à un concept appelé différenciation des échanges

entre les leaders et les membres basée sur la nationalité (LMXD basée sur la nationalité). De plus, cet essai propose que la LMXD basée sur la nationalité renforce les conflits relationnels au sein de l'équipe, ce qui mine ensuite l'engagement affectif de l'équipe. Pour tester ces prédictions, une étude en deux temps avec un décalage temporel a été utilisée, et des analyses de modélisation par équations structurelles ont été menées sur base des données d'un échantillon de 931 individus répartis en 108 groupes de travail. Les résultats ont confirmé les hypothèses formulées.

Le troisième essai étudie le rôle de l'ODS des employés dans la relation entre la discrimination raciale/ethnique sur le lieu de travail et le climat de diversité (variable antécédente), ainsi que le comportement d'expression prosociale (variable résultante). Cette recherche examine spécifiquement la possibilité que l'ODS agisse en tant que modérateur dans ces relations. Nous soutenons que l'association négative entre le climat psychologique de diversité et la perception de discrimination raciale/ethnique sur le lieu de travail est plus forte chez les employés à faible ODS. De plus, nous soutenons que la relation entre la perception de discrimination raciale/ethnique sur le lieu de travail et le comportement d'expression prosociale est modérée par l'ODS des employés, de sorte que cette relation est significativement positive chez les employés à faible ODS, mais significativement négative chez ceux à forte ODS. De plus, nous émettons l'hypothèse d'un rôle modérateur de l'ODS sur l'effet indirect du climat psychologique de diversité sur le comportement d'expression prosociale par le biais de la perception de discrimination raciale/ethnique sur le lieu de travail. Pour tester ces hypothèses, des données d'enquête en deux temps de mesure ont été collectées auprès de 826 employés, en utilisant la même base de données que dans le deuxième essai. Les résultats ont confirmé les prédictions formulées.

Mots clés : orientation de dominance sociale ; auto-vérification ; identité ; diversité ; climat de diversité ; soutien des collègues ; antagonisme des collègues ; diversité nationale ; différenciation des échanges entre les leaders et les membres ; conflit relationnel ; engagement de l'équipe ; discrimination sur le lieu de travail ; comportement d'expression prosociale

Méthodes de recherche : méthodes quantitatives ; recherche en deux temps ; modélisation par équations structurelles

Abstract

This doctoral dissertation contains three essays focusing on the role that social dominance orientation (SDO) plays in diverse workplaces. SDO represents an individual's tendency to endorse and support hierarchical systems and inequalities within social groups. While the detrimental effects of SDO on societies and workplaces are well documented, there remain important gaps in the understanding of the underlying mechanisms through which SDO influences work outcomes and how it interacts with the organizational context to influence these outcomes. Therefore, the primary objective of this dissertation is to delve deeper into investigating and comprehending the significance of SDO within diverse workgroups.

The first essay of this doctoral dissertation focuses on developing a theoretical model that emphasizes the role of SDO in shaping the self-verification processes within diverse dyads of coworkers. Grounded in social dominance theory (Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006; Sidanius & Pratto, 2001), the essay proposes that SDO plays a pivotal role in determining the dominant, subordinate, or egalitarian social identities held by members of these dyads. It aims to investigate the interaction among, and verification of, these dominant, subordinate, and egalitarian identities within coworker dyads by introducing a typology of unequal peer dyads based on the members' SDO levels. The typology identifies four types of dyads: stormy dyads, conforming dyads, egalitarian dyads, and compassionate dyads. The essay further explores the impact of SDO on the compatibility or incompatibility among members' self-verification efforts within the identified dyad types and how this, in turn, influences the level of support or antagonism within the dyad.

The second essay of this doctoral dissertation explores the role of supervisors' SDO in nationally diverse work groups. Drawing upon social dominance theory, the essay argues that supervisors' SDO influences the basis of leader-member exchange (LMX) differentiation, thereby giving rise to a concept called nation-based LMX differentiation

(nation-based LMXD). Furthermore, the essay proposes that nation-based LMXD enhances within-team relationship conflict, which subsequently undermines collective team commitment. To test these predictions, a two-wave time-lagged design was employed, and structural equation modeling analyses were conducted using data from a sample of 931 individuals across 108 workgroups. The results provided support for the proposed hypotheses.

The third essay investigates the role of employees' SDO in the relationship between racial/ethnic workplace discrimination and diversity climate (antecedent variable) as well as prosocial voice behavior (outcome variable). Specifically, this research examines how SDO acts as a moderator in these relationships. This essay hypothesizes that the negative association between psychological climate for diversity and perception of racial/ethnic workplace discrimination is stronger for low SDO employees. Moreover, it suggests that the relation between perceived racial/ethnic workplace discrimination and prosocial voice behavior is moderated by employee SDO such that this relation is significantly positive among low-SDO employees but significantly negative among high-SDO employees. Further, it hypothesizes a moderating role of SDO on the indirect effect of psychological climate for diversity on prosocial voice behavior through perceived racial/ethnic workplace discrimination. To test these hypotheses, two-wave survey data were collected from 826 employees, utilizing the same dataset as in the second essay. The results provided support for the proposed predictions.

Keywords: social dominance orientation; self-verification; identity; diversity; diversity climate; coworker support; coworker antagonism; nationality diversity; leader-member exchange differentiation; relationship conflict; team commitment; workplace discrimination; prosocial voice behavior

Research methods: quantitative methods; time-lagged research; structural equation modeling

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To you who know…

"The intuitive mind is a sacred gift and the rational mind is a faithful servant.
We have created a society that honors the servant
and has forgotten the gift."

Albert Einstein

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Introduction

Group-based social hierarchy is a pervasive feature of human societies (Lenski, 2013; Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006). Within such hierarchies, power differentials exist across different identity groups created on the basis of caste, race, ethnicity, religion, nationality, or any other arbitrary characteristic that human beings use to create social groups. Compared to subordinate groups, dominant groups are characterized by a higher social power (Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006; Sidanius & Pratto, 2012) that allows them to benefit from a disproportionate share of positive social value (e.g., wealth, high-status occupation, political power, better health care), while the subordinate groups suffer from negative social value (e.g., substandard housing, underemployment, precarious work, stigmatization) (Doane, 1997; Sidanius & Pratto, 2012). The desire of maintaining such inequality in favour of dominant groups may lead the dominant members to hold and propagate prejudices, discriminate against, and oppress the subordinate members (Riek, Mania, & Gaertner, 2006; Sidanius & Pratto, 2012). Due to the recent increasing trend of workforce diversity, members of dominant groups and members of subordinate groups may become each other's coworkers in organizations (Brief & Barsky, 2000; DiTomaso, Post, & Parks-Yancy, 2007; Hajro, Žilinskaitė, & Baldassari, 2022), and the social inequality among dominant and subordinate groups can be reproduced within organizations (Amis, Mair, & Munir, 2020).

In order to combat workplace inequality among dominant and subordinate social groups, different policies and practices have long been implemented. For instance, in the US, affirmative action programs were initiated in the 1960s to rectify the tendency toward horizontal and vertical segregation within workplaces (Kelly & Dobbin, 1998; Oppenheimer, 2016). In Canada, "employment equity" was the response of Canadian policy makers to prevent the unequal treatments of members of subordinate groups (Agocs, & Burr, 1996). In the 1980s, these controversial mandatory policies, that viewed battling against inequality through the encouragement of equal treatment or affording equal opportunities, as an end in itself that is morally praiseworthy, were replaced by diversity management programs (Nkomo et al., 2019). Diversity management programs are voluntary initiatives

that promote awareness of employees' differences and advance the idea that differences can be source of competitive advantage for firms (Nkomo et al., 2019).

Despite the previously mentioned preventive efforts, the issue of workplace inequality is still unresolved in organizations. Studies on workplace experience of members of subordinate groups provide evidence that selective incivility (Ozturk & Berber, 2020; Van Laer & Janssens, 2011), discrimination (Umphress et al., 2008), bullying (Fox & Stallworth, 2005), racial slurs (Rosette, Carton, Bowes-Sperry, & Hewlin, 2013), and ethnic harassment (Schneider, Hitlan, & Radhakrishnan, 2000), remain significant problems at the workplace. Although these studies inform us that some employees resist equality and inclusion in organizations, our understanding is limited about who and how they do so, and with what consequences (Nkomo et al., 2019).

Social Dominance Theory (SDT) serves as a valuable theoretical lens to effectively address the potential challenges arising from the coexistence of dominant and subordinate members in a workplace setting (Lee, 2022). SDT asserts that group-based social hierarchy is a prevalent aspect of human societies (Sidanius & Pratto, 2012; Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006) and introduces various factors and processes across multiple levels of analysis that actively contribute to the establishment and perpetuation of group-based social hierarchies associated with power inequalities and discriminatory behaviors against subordinate social groups. (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). Beyond explaining why and how group-based social hierarchy sustains, the theory describes social dominance orientation (SDO), which identifies who are more likely to endorse and support the mechanisms responsible for creating and perpetuating these hierarchies.

SDO is defined as ". . .the degree to which individuals desire and support group-based hierarchy and the domination of 'inferior' groups by 'superior' groups" (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001, p. 48). Numerous studies have consistently demonstrated the negative social effects associated with SDO, including generalized prejudice (Osborne et al., 2021), sexism (Sibley, Wilson, & Duckitt, 2007), low empathy for outgroups (Hudson, Cikara, & Sidanius, 2019), resistance to hierarchy-attenuating efforts (Karunaratne & Laham, 2019), and engagement in discriminatory behavior (Kteily, Sidanius, & Levin, 2011).

While social dominance orientation (SDO) has primarily been studied in the field of social psychology, its significance within diverse workgroups has also been recognized by management scholars. For instance, SDO has emerged as a relevant factor influencing vocational choices, as it shapes individuals' preferences for prestige-based career paths (Hirschfeld & Van Scotter, 2019). Moreover, SDO has been consistently linked to negative attitudes, cognitions, and behaviors towards employees belonging to subordinate social groups. Specifically, individuals with high SDO tend to hold negative performance expectations for members of subordinate groups who have benefited from affirmative action policies (Aquino, Stewart, & Reed, 2005). Additionally, individuals high in SDO exhibit a greater attraction to organizations composed predominantly of dominant individuals (Umphress et al., 2007), display a reduced likelihood of selecting potential team members from subordinate social groups (Umphress et al., 2008), remain more silent in the face of racial slurs (Rosette et al., 2013), and demonstrate lower sensitivity in perceiving unethical behaviors (Alexandra et al., 2017).

While these studies, which have mostly adopted experimental designs, have significantly contributed to our understanding of the effects of SDO, there are still several knowledge gaps that need to be addressed. This doctoral dissertation aims to further investigate and understand the role of SDO in diverse workgroups, shedding more light on its implications for individual, dyadic, and group level outcomes. First, in contrast to the evidence on the negative influence of SDO on interpersonal outcomes (e.g., Umphress et al., 2008), there is still a limited understanding of the underlying mechanisms through which SDO affects these outcomes. The first essay of the thesis focuses on unequal coworker dyads (i.e., diverse dyads in which one co-worker belongs to a dominant group (e.g., Caucasians) and the other belongs to a subordinate group (e.g., people of color)) and investigates the influence of SDO on the self-verification process within these dyads. The self-verification process is a significant mechanism that can shape the outcomes and dynamics of diverse workgroups (Polzer, Milton, and Swann, 2002; Swann et al., 2004). By exploring how SDO affects the self-verification process among dyad members, this essay aims to uncover the underlying mechanisms and dynamics that contribute to the experiences and outcomes of individuals within diverse workplaces.

Secondly, there is a lack of research on the group-level outcomes of SDO. While existing studies have predominantly focused on individual-level outcomes associated with SDO (e.g., Umphress et al., 2008; Zubielevitch, 2022), there has been relatively less exploration of its influence on group-level outcomes. Understanding how SDO, as an important individual difference variable, operates at the group level is crucial for comprehending the dynamics of diverse workgroups (Guillaume et al., 2017; Lee, 2022). In the second essay, I conducted a field study to investigate the influence of supervisors' SDO on workgroup outcomes in nationally diverse teams (i.e., teams with immigrants and native-born employees). Specifically, we propose that supervisors' SDO fosters within-team differentiation of leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships based on team members' national origin. We further theorize that LMX differentiation (LMXD) influences within-team relationship conflict, which in turn affects collective team commitment.

Lastly, although previous studies have explored the interplay SDO and social context in predicting intergroup attitudes and behaviors (Umphress et al., 2008), the specific influence of the interaction between SDO and organizational context on employees' perceptions and behaviors has yet to be examined. Understanding how individuals' SDO interacts with the organizational context in which they operate is essential for gaining insights into the complex dynamics that shape employees' attitudes and actions in diverse work environments. The third essay of this doctoral dissertation aims to investigate the moderating role of employees' SDO in the relationship between perceived racial/ethnic workplace discrimination and the proposed antecedent variable of diversity climate as well as prosocial voice behavior as an outcome. Furthermore, the study explores how SDO moderates the indirect effect of diversity climate on prosocial voice behavior through perceived workplace discrimination.

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Chapter 1

Self-Verification and Social Dominance in Peer Dyads

Abstract

This article investigates the bright and dark sides of self-verification processes among dyads of coworkers from different social groups. We argue that these processes depend on coworkers' social dominance orientation (SDO), which determines whether they hold dominant, subordinate, or egalitarian social identities. The proposed typology identifies four types of dyads. In *stormy* dyads, the member of the dominant social group has high SDO, the member of the subordinate social group has low SDO, and self-verification is associated with overt and covert coworker antagonism. In *conforming* dyads, both members have high SDO and self-verification leads to covert antagonistic behaviors from the dominant member. In *egalitarian* dyads, both members have low SDO and self-verification leads to long-term coworker support. Finally, in *compassionate* dyads, the member of the dominant social group has low SDO, the member of the subordinate social group has high SDO, and coworker support vanishes over time.

1.1 Introduction

Coworkers play a vital role at work, serving as both social and task partners (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Liu, Nauta, Yang, & Spector, 2018). This article investigates the bright and dark sides of self-verification processes among dyads of coworkers belonging to different social groups (e.g., Blacks and Whites). Self-verification theory asserts that individuals want others to see them the same way that they see themselves (Swann, 2012). By verifying their selves, individuals gain a sense of psychological coherence and control over their environment (Swann, Rentfrow, & Guinn, 2003; Swann, Stein-Seroussi, & Giesler, 1992). Scholars have shown that employees who succeed to verify their selves experience fewer emotional conflicts, have higher chances of receiving a job offer, and display higher levels of job satisfaction and performance (Cable & Kay, 2012; Moore, Lee, Kim, & Cable, 2017; Swann, Milton, & Polzer, 2000). The positive consequences of

self-verification at work have also captured the attention of diversity scholars who examine the ways to resolve the problems associated with intergroup relations in diverse workgroups. Polzer, Milton, and Swann (2002) found that the negative effect of diversity on social integration and group identification is reduced when team members achieve self-verification. Swann, Polzer, Seyle, and Ko (2004) argued that self-verification mitigates the disruptive effect of diversity on workgroup performance because members of diverse groups who succeed to verify their selves are more likely to identify to their workgroups and put forth their creative ideas.

However, research on self-verification in diverse workgroups has overlooked the idea that self-verification may be challenging in diverse peer dyads, where one member belongs to a *historically constructed* dominant group (e.g., Whites) and the other belongs to a *historically constructed* subordinate group (e.g., Blacks) (hereafter called "*unequal* peer dyads"). To verify their self, a coworker may use different behavioral strategies (Swann, Rentfrow, & Guinn, 2003), and thus elicit self-confirmatory reactions from their coworker in the dyad (Swann and Ely, 1984; Swann et al., 2000). However, in unequal peer dyads, verification of one's self-defined identity (which may be dominant, subordinate, or egalitarian) may be resisted by the other member of the dyad (Lee, 2022). For instance, self-verification is unlikely to be successful when an unequal peer dyad is composed of a member of a historically constructed dominant group with a dominant self-identity, and a member of a historically constructed subordinate social group who holds an egalitarian self-identity. Such situation would lead to disconfirming the dominant self-identity of the other member.

Furthermore, the potential dark sides of self-verification in diverse dyads are a blind spot of the literature to date. First, successful verification of subordinate self-views may lead to perpetuating negative self-views (Swann, Chang-Schneider, & Angulo, 2008) and result in depression (Joiner, 1995). Second, unsuccessful verification of a member's dominant self-identity (due to the other member holding an egalitarian self-identity) can create resentment (Salmivalli, 2001). These aspects that may particularly affect interpersonal outcomes in unequal peer dyads have not been much discussed by previous studies. To address these gaps, this article draws from social dominance theory (SDT) to introduce the constructs of dominant, subordinate, and egalitarian self-identities. SDT is relevant to

our theorizing because it introduces an individual-level variable (i.e., social dominance orientation; SDO), which influences one's sense of superiority/subordination vs. equality in relation to out-group members. SDO refers to the personal preference for social hierarchy and inequality (Sidanius & Pratto, 2012). While high SDO individuals believe in the legitimacy of dominance-based intergroup relations, low SDO individuals hold egalitarian beliefs (e.g., Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006; Sidanius & Pratto, 2003).

We categorize unequal peer dyads based on members' level of SDO: *stormy* dyads, where the member of the dominant social group has high SDO and the member of the subordinate social group has low SDO; *conforming* dyads, where both members have high SDO; *egalitarian* dyads, where both members have a low SDO; and *compassionate* dyads, where the member of the dominant social group has low SDO, and the member of the subordinate group has high SDO (Figure 1). Next, we theorize the self-verification processes at play in unequal peer dyads. Figure 2 illustrates our theoretical model. We contend that compatible self-verification strivings facilitate self-verification of both dyad members, whereas incompatible self-verification strivings hamper it. We posit that self-verification strivings are compatible in conforming dyads, where one member has a dominant identity and the other member has a subordinate identity, and in egalitarian dyads, where both members have egalitarian identity. In contrast, self-verification strivings will be incompatible in stormy dyads, where one member has a dominant identity and the other member has an egalitarian identity, and in compassionate dyads, where one member has an egalitarian identity, and the other member has a subordinate identity.

In terms of behavioral outcomes, we argue that self-verification strivings in the dyads predict coworker support and antagonism, two important behaviors associated with employee effectiveness (Liu et al., 2018), turnover (Tews, Michel, & Ellingson, 2013), and work attitudes (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). In stormy and conforming dyads, dominant social group members view themselves as relatively dominant over dyadic members of the subordinate social group, and as we describe in detail later, they try to establish their dominance by drawing a hierarchy among themselves and peers of subordinate social groups through covert and overt antagonistic behaviors. While these antagonistic behaviors are likely to not be tolerated by members of subordinate social groups in stormy dyads, they

are likely to be tolerated by members of subordinate social group in conforming dyads. Therefore, self-verification strivings are associated with reciprocal antagonist behaviors in stormy dyads, and unilateral antagonistic behaviors in conforming dyads. In egalitarian dyads, the dominant social group members who have egalitarian identities engage in behaviors such as provision of support to signal the rejection of the existing social hierarchy, and these behaviors are appreciated by the dyadic members of the subordinate social group of egalitarian dyads and are reciprocated in kind. Although coworker support may also occur in compassionate dyads, they will tend to diminish over time as it challenges the non-egalitarian identity of the dyadic members of the subordinate social group.

Our framework contributes to the self-verification and diversity literatures. The contribution to self-verification theory (Polzer et al., 2002; Swann, 1987; Swann et al., 2009) resides in explicating how self-verification by a dyadic member may collide with that exerted by the other member of the dyad in the context of diverse peer dyads. As such, our approach goes beyond previous work on self-verification, which has generally assumed that dyad members' self-verification efforts do not affect one another (Swann, 1987; Swann et al., 2009). Our framework suggests that in the context of unequal peer dyads, members' self-verification efforts may be compatible vs. incompatible. While compatible self-verification motives facilitate the self-verification strivings of both members, incompatible motives impede them. Our framework also questions the prevailing view that self-verification is uniformly beneficial in diverse contexts (Polzer et al., 2002; Swann et al., 2004). We suggest instead that it has a dark side. For example, self-verification may lead to negative outcomes such as coworker antagonism in conforming dyads. As such we contribute to the emerging research on the downside of self-verification (North & Swann, 2009). This paper also makes contributions to the diversity literature. Research on workplace diversity has identified both negative (e.g., selective incivility; Ozturk and Berber, 2020) and positive (e.g., supportive peer relations; Bacharach et al., 2005) interpersonal behaviors in diverse dyads. We describe how self-verification may explain the outcomes associated with our four suggested SDO-based types of unequal peer dyads.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. We first define dominant, subordinate, and egalitarian identities and introduce our SDO-based typology of unequal peer

dyads. We then describe self-verification challenges within these dyads. Lastly, we discuss the behavioral outcomes that occur during self-verification within each type of dyad.

1.2 Dominant, Subordinate, and Egalitarian Identities in Unequal Peer Dyads

A social group one belongs to shapes the social basis of one's self-concept (i.e., social identity) (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Social identity, which is defined as "art of an individual's self-concept which drives from his knowledge of his membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel, 1981, p. 255), provides people with definitions of who they are in terms of their in-group characteristics (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Social identities have an evaluative function: they provide an evaluation of a social group, and therefore of its members, relative to other relevant social groups (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995; Turner, 1975). We draw on SDT to introduce dominant, subordinate, and egalitarian social identities as evaluative aspects of members' social identities.

SDT builds on sociological work on inequalities and social stratification (e.g., Lenski, 2013; Tilly, 1988) and examines systems of group-based hierarchies in human societies. SDT posits that three systems of group-based hierarchies exist in all human societies: the age system, the gender system, and the arbitrary system (Pratto et al., 2006; Sidanius & Pratto, 2012). Adults, in the age system, and men in the gender system, have disproportionate social power over children and women, respectively. In the arbitrary system, which structures groups based on race, religion, social class and other attributes, the dominant group possesses greater power than the subordinate group and benefits from a disproportionate share of positive social value (e.g., wealth, high-status occupation, political power, better health care) while the subordinate group suffers from negative social value (e.g., substandard housing, underemployment, precarious work, stigmatization) (Doane, 1997; Sidanius & Pratto, 2012). Our framework focuses on the social groups that belong to

the arbitrary system[1]. To illustrate, White vs. Black or White vs. Hispanic dyads in the context of US organizations are unequal peer dyads within the arbitrary system of social hierarchies because Whites have been historically constructed as a dominant social group compared to Blacks and Hispanics (Doane, 1997; Feagin, 2002).

Arbitrary-set social hierarchy is affected by *legitimizing myth*s. Legitimatizing myths refer to beliefs, values, attitudes, and ideologies that provide "moral and intellectual justification for the social practices that distribute social value within the social system" (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001, p.47). Two functional types of legitimizing myths are introduced by SDT theory: hierarchy-enhancing legitimizing myths and hierarchy-attenuating legitimizing myths (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). Hierarchy-enhancing myths justify group-based social inequality. There are many examples of hierarchy-enhancing myths such as the thesis of divine rights of kings, the doctrine of meritorious karma, or the negative stereotypes associated with the status of subordinates (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). What these ideas have in common is that members of subordinate groups deserve their subordinate status, and members of dominant groups deserve their dominant status (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). Therefore, from these perspectives, the existing inequalities among members of dominant vs. subordinate social groups are fair and inevitable. On the other hand, hierarchy attenuating myths promote group-based social egalitarianism. For example, *noblesse oblige* ("the obligation of high-ranking individuals to act honorably and beneficently towards subordinates;" Fiddick & Cummins, 2007, p. 16) can be considered as hierarchy-attenuating legitimizing myths (Pratto, Stallworth, & Conway-Lanz, 1998). These myths propose that the inequality of dominant and subordinate groups is unfair and illegitimate (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). In arbitrary-set hierarchy, individuals differ from each other in the type of legitimizing myth they adopt (Pratto et al., 2006; Sidanius & Pratto, 2001).

[1] Although the three systems mentioned above share some similarities (e.g., stereotyping and discrimination against subordinate members), these systems are qualitatively different. Specifically, they differ in terms of flexibility of group membership, level of inter-group violence, and focus of control (Pratto et al., 2006). While the age and gender systems have low degrees of malleability in terms of who is defined as a "child" versus an "adult" and who is "male" versus "female", the arbitrary system is unique by its high degree of arbitrariness and contextual sensitivity in defining what dominant and inferior groups are. The degree of violence and oppression used to maintain arbitrary systems are also by far higher than in the age and gender systems. For the sake of rigor, we focus our theorizing on arbitrary system, but the generalization possibilities are discussed in the discussion section.

Drawing from these ideas, we define dominant, subordinate, and egalitarian social identities as one's sense of superiority/subordination/equality related to one's group status. A dyad member's dominant social identity reflects the member's favorable evaluation of their own social group as a group that deserves its relatively superior position. Members of dominant groups who hold dominant identities adopt hierarchy-enhancing legitimizing myths and seek to maintain the *status quo* (Pratto et al., 1998). They assert their own positive distinctiveness, whenever possible, through discrimination against members of subordinate groups (Umphress, Simmons, Boswell, & Triana, 2008). An extreme example is the national-socialist doctrine in the years 1930 and 1940 that held Aryans as a dominant group and Jews as a subordinate group.

In contrast, a dyad member's subordinate social identity reflects the members' unfavorable evaluation of their own social group as a group that deserves its relatively inferior position. Members of subordinate groups who hold subordinate identities also adopt hierarchy-enhancing legitimizing myths. People with subordinate social identities not only abstain from resisting or challenging the existing hierarchy, but they may also accept and willingly support the hierarchical system that has imposed an inferior position on them (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). For instance, the epithet of "Uncle Tom" used for subservient Black people during Apartheid may reflect the holding of a subordinate identity by members of a subordinate group.

On the other hand, an egalitarian social identity reflects a belief that all individuals, irrespective of their group membership, are equal in terms of human value and should have equal access to social opportunities. Individuals with egalitarian identities adopt hierarchy-attenuating legitimizing myths and promote group-based social egalitarianism. An example of a member of a subordinate social group who held an egalitarian social identity is the figure of Rosa Parks, an African American woman who, in 1955, was arrested for refusing to give up her bus seat to a White man (Theoharis, 2015). Examples of members of a dominant social group who held an egalitarian social identity are the White individuals (e.g., James Joseph Reeb; Howlett, 1993) who joined protests for Black civil rights during the 1960s.

1.3 SDO-Based Typology of Unequal Peer Dyads

We propose that SDO predicts which coworkers hold egalitarian identities and which hold non-egalitarian identities (i.e., dominant and subordinate identities). SDO reflects a general attitudinal orientation toward intergroup relations. It describes the tendency of an individual to believe in the legitimacy of predefined hierarchies among social groups and act to maintain such group-based discrimination (Pratto et al., 2006). High SDO individuals prefer intergroup relations to be ordered along a dominant-subordinate dimension, while low SDO individuals prefer intergroup relations to be equal (Pratto et al., 1994).

Prior research consistently shows that SDO predicts whether one maintains hierarchy-enhancing or attenuating myths. For example, SDO has been shown to be positively related to the endorsement of a broad spectrum of group-based oppression ideologies, including just-world beliefs, nationalism, patriotism, militarism, internal attributions for poverty, rape myths, endorsement of the Protestant work ethic, and other consequential hierarchy-enhancing legitimizing beliefs across a range of cultures, and negatively related to the endorsement of egalitarian social practices such as social welfare programs (Pratto et al., 1998; Sidanius & Pratto, 2001; Thomsen, Green, & Sidanius, 2008). Overbeck et al. (2004) show that high SDO members, even in subordinate social groups, bolster the inequality. Building on these studies we argue that low SDO individuals, irrespective of their group membership, are likely to hold egalitarian social identities, while high SDO members of dominant social groups are likely to hold a dominant social identity and high SDO members of subordinate social groups are likely to hold a subordinate social identity.

Accordingly, as any member of the unequal peer dyad may be high or low on SDO, four types (Doty & Glick, 1994) of peer dyad configurations may emerge (Figure 2.1): *stormy peer dyads* where the member of the dominant social group has high SDO (i.e. dominant identity) and the member of the subordinate social group has low SDO (i.e. egalitarian identity), *conforming peer dyads* where both members have high SDO (i.e. the member of the dominant social group has a dominant social identity and the member of the subordinate social group has a subordinate social identity), *egalitarian peer dyads* where both members have low SDO (i.e. egalitarian social identities), and *compassionate peer dyads* where the member of the dominant social group has low SDO (i.e. egalitarian social identity) and the member of the subordinate social group has high SDO (i.e., subordinate social identity).

1.4 Compatible vs. Incompatible Self-Verification in Unequal Peer Dyads

Self-verification efforts refer to the activities through which individuals (referred to as *targets*) strive to be perceived in a self-congruent manner by their interaction partners (referred to as *perceivers*) (Swann, 1987, 2009). Self-verification theorists propose that people actively strive to self-verify to reinforce their existential security (epistemic concerns) and ensure that their social interactions proceed smoothly (pragmatic concerns) (Swann, Stein-Seroussi, & Giesler, 1992). Self-verification determines how predictably interpersonal relationships unfold (Swann, Johnson, & Bosson, 2009). Research shows that targets are more prone to stay in a relationship and build a high-quality relation with perceivers who provide them with self-confirmatory feedbacks (Swann & Pelham, 2002; Burke & Stets, 1999). To verify their selves, individuals try to build a self-confirmatory opportunity structure, which is a niche in which self-verification needs are satisfied through receiving self-confirmatory feedbacks from interaction partners (Swann, 1987).

People use different behavioral strategies to self-verify. For instance, they may engage in *selective interaction* that is seeking interaction partners who provide them with self-confirmatory feedbacks (Swann, Pelham, & Krull, 1989). Another strategy is displaying identity cues. For example, by their speech style or dressing in a certain way, they inform others of who they are (Stone, 1962). Alternatively, people may use *interpersonal prompts* that is appropriate interaction strategies that result in eliciting self-confirmatory feedbacks from perceivers. Swann and Read (1981), for example, found that people who thought of themselves as likeable succeeded to elicit more favourable reactions than those who viewed themselves as unlikeable. Individuals strive to verify their social self-views (i.e., social identities) as well as their personal self-views (e.g., hardworking, athletic) (Chen, Chen, & Shaw, 2004).

We argue that in unequal peer dyads, verification of dominant /subordinate/egalitarian social identities can be challenging because its success depends not only on one's own self-verification efforts but also on the identity that the other party holds and wants to

verify. For example, the dominant social identity of a dyad member cannot be verified unless the other member holds a subordinate social identity. As such, self-verification in unequal peer dyads depends on whether a member's dominant/subordinate /egalitarian social identity matches the other member's social identity or not. Such match or mismatch between members' self-views therefore determines whether the self-verification efforts of the member of the dominant social group and of the member of the subordinate social group are compatible or incompatible with each other, and whether they will conflict. When self-verification efforts of dyad members are compatible, self-verification is likely to be successful for both members of the dyad. However, when they are incompatible, self-verification is unlikely to be attained.

Returning to our proposed dyad typology, we contend that self-verification strivings are compatible in conforming dyads, where the member of dominant group has a high SDO (i.e., a dominant social identity), and the member of the subordinate social group has a high SDO too (i.e., a subordinate social identity). They are also compatible in egalitarian dyads where both members have low SDO (i.e., egalitarian social identities). Thus, in these dyads, members' self-verification efforts operate in conjunction and dyad members should easily achieve self-verification. In contrast, self-verification strivings are incompatible in stormy dyads, where the member of the dominant social group has a high SDO (i.e., a dominant social identity) and the member of the subordinate social group has a low SDO (i.e., an egalitarian social identity). They are also incompatible in compassionate dyads, where the member of the dominant social group has a low SDO (i.e., an egalitarian social identity) and the member of the subordinate social group has a high SDO (i.e., a subordinate social identity). In these dyads, a member's self-verification efforts will likely be counteracted by the other member's self-verification efforts.

1.5 Behavioral efforts for self-verification in unequal peer dyads

We now turn to the ways in which self-verification processes in unequal peer dyads affect coworker support and antagonism. Coworker support refers to 'the provision of desirable resources to a focal employee' (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008, p. 1084). It consists in instrumental support (e.g., task-directed helping, horizontal communication, and co-

worker mentoring; Ensher, et al., 2001) and affective support (e.g., expressing empathy, displaying friendliness; Colbert et al., 2016; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Coworker antagonism refers to the 'enactment of unwelcome, undesirable, or disdained behaviors toward a focal employee' (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008, p. 1084). Antagonistic behavior can have an overt form such as using offensive symbols, narrating ethnic jokes and slurs, or perpetrating physical abuse (Harrick & Sullivan, 1995; Pettigrew & Meertens, 1995). It can also manifest itself in a covert form such as selective incivility, e.g., avoiding eye contact or smiling less (Cortina, 2008; Ellyson & Dovidio, 1985; Ozturk & Berber, 2020), interrupting a colleague or belittling a coworker's contribution (Cortina, 2008). The attached ambiguity of these behaviors helps the perpetrator to justify it as being unintentional and unbiased (Cortina et al., 2013).

Stormy Dyads. In this type of peer dyad, self-verification theory suggests that the member of the dominant social group will try to build an opportunity structure in which their relative dominance is confirmed. Specifically, they draw a hierarchy among themselves and the member of the subordinate social group by discriminating among the two of them. Even though there is no formal hierarchy between peers, an informal hierarchy often emerges in organizational groups and those who hold higher ranks in these informal hierarchies are conferred more respect (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). Therefore, to push the member of a subordinate social group down the hierarchy of respect, the member of the dominant social group may engage in negative behaviors such as propagating hierarchy-enhancing myths. Hierarchy-enhancing myths ascribe condemnatory or demeaning traits such as unreliability, laziness, dishonesty, stupidity, greediness, deceit, and immorality, to members of a subordinate social group (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). To enforce the inequality between themselves and the subordinate group members, a peer from a dominant social group may also disrespect the peer from a subordinate social group through selective incivility.

On the other hand, the member of the subordinate social group who holds egalitarian beliefs is likely to disconfirm the dominant identity of the peer by not showing the expected deference. Indeed, the member of the subordinate social group will challenge hierarchy-legitimizing myths by propagating hierarchy-attenuating myths. He or she may not initially realize the harmful intentions of the member of the dominant social group and may

continue to approach him or her to build an egalitarian relationship. Yet, the repetition of covert antagonism should make the member of the subordinate social group acknowledge that their egalitarian beliefs are disconfirmed, and that respect is repeatedly lacking on the part of the dyad peer. The member of the subordinate social group may try to stop being the target of disrespect by withdrawing or responding in kind. However, in the context of peer dyads, the members of the subordinate social group may not be in a position to fully distance themselves from the members of the dominant social group, so it is more likely that they will reciprocate in kind to restore balance in the relationship with the fellow peers. This response may also depend on individual characteristics. For instance, if the member of the subordinate social group is high on the impulsivity trait, they are more likely to reciprocate in kind (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), making the situation less controllable.

Because of disconfirming feedback provided by the member of the subordinate social group, the peer may experience a self-verification crisis. Specifically, their cognitive salience of their dominant self-conceptions is likely to increase and they may invest extra efforts to obtain self-confirmatory feedbacks (Swann, 1987). They may engage in more overt forms of antagonistic behaviors, such as using offensive symbols, narrating ethnic jokes and slurs, or perpetrating physical abuse (Harrick & Sullivan, 1995). The member of the subordinate social group in stormy dyads may not tolerate such overt behaviors as they jeopardize their efforts at building an egalitarian opportunity structure. One way to stop such disrespectful behaviors is through complaining to the organization in the hope that the member of the dominant social group stops the overt antagonistic behaviors to avoid sanctions (Brief & Barsky, 2000; Brief et al., 1997). Yet, if the workplace does not support members of subordinate social groups (Brief et al., 2000; Dipboye & Halverson, 2004), the member of the subordinate social may wish to leave the organization where no niche for self-confirmation is available. In both scenarios, the overt antagonistic behavior from the dominant group member cannot sustain over time. Therefore, we argue that the likely outcome in these dyads is reciprocal covert antagonistic behaviors.

Conforming dyads. In these dyads, the member of the dominant social group tries to build an opportunity structure in which they can verify their superiority. To this end, like in stormy dyads, they will show antagonistic behaviors. However, the response of the

member of the subordinate social group is likely to differ from their counterpart in stormy peer dyads. As the member of the subordinate social group views themselves as being socially inferior to their peer, they are likely to show deference towards, and confirm the dominance of, their peer. Due to the compatible nature of the behavior displayed by the member of the subordinate social group, the member of the dominant social group may not need to engage in overt antagonistic behaviors to verify their dominant social identity. Thus, we argue that the outcome of self-verification in conforming peer dyads is unilateral covert antagonistic behaviors that sustain over time.

Egalitarian dyads. In egalitarian dyads where both members have low SDO, being a member of a social group stereotyped as dominant vs. of a discriminated social group does not generate feelings of dominance vs. subordination. To verify their social identities, members of egalitarian dyads try to create an egalitarian opportunity structure. Such an opportunity structure is built through behaviors that signal the rejection of existing social hierarchy between dominant groups and subordinate groups (Ensari & Miller, 2002). We argue that the member of the socially dominant group is likely to provide instrumental support to the peer who belongs to the subordinate social group because doing so helps build an egalitarian opportunity structure. The provision of instrumental support enables the peer member from the dominant social group to differentiate themselves from the members of the same group who have historically discriminated against members of subordinate social groups (Pincus, 1996) and harmed them (Quillian, 1995). By offering instrumental support, the members of the dominant social group signals to the subordinate social group members that they care about them and work at reducing social discrimination, thereby facilitating genuine communication. To reciprocate this support, the peer from the subordinate social group may also engage in supporting the peer from the dominant social group. In doing so, they demonstrate their own inclination towards egalitarianism.

We also argue that in egalitarian dyads, both members' efforts to build an egalitarian opportunity structure may result in the provision of affective support. To signal their egalitarian view of social groups, the members of egalitarian dyads may propagate hierarchy-attenuating myths. Consequently, they may both become aware of the other member's similar egalitarian beliefs. A great deal of research has shown that perception of similarity

generates interpersonal attraction and liking (Hendrick, Bixenstine, & Hawkins, 1971), which in turn yields emotional support (Dunkel-Schetter & Skokan, 1990; Trobst, Collins, & Embree, 1994).

Compassionate dyads. In compassionate dyads, peers engage in competing self-verification efforts. The hierarchy-attenuating myths propagated by the member of the dominant social group run counter to the hierarchy-legitimizing myths promoted by the member of the subordinate social group. The member of the dominant social group may try to reduce the power difference with the dyad peer from the subordinate social group by building a close relationship through offering social support (Edwards, 2008). However, the member of the subordinate social group may not feel comfortable having an intimate relationship with the peer from the dominant social group and may feel particularly uncomfortable disclosing personal information (Phillips et al., 2009). The peer from the subordinate social group, instead, is likely to promote an unequal relationship through behaving in a submissive fashion.

Thus, while building their own self-verifying opportunity structure, members of compassionate peer dyads are likely to provide each other with self-disconfirming feedback. The receipt of self-disconfirming feedbacks leads members of compassionate dyads to experience a self-verification crisis. Their intensified self-verification efforts, however, do not pay off because, as explained above, the disconfirming feedbacks originate from members' own self-views, and to successfully verify their identities, the members of compassionate dyads need to change the other party' self-views. Over time, and upon repeatedly receiving disconfirming feedbacks, the members of compassionate dyads should realize that they cannot establish identity congruence and the other member cannot be part of their self-confirmatory opportunity structure. This would lead them to engage less frequently in interactions with the peer partner (Swann, 1987), and provision of support will become less likely. Supporting this view, empirical studies on couples and roommates have shown that individuals are less prone to stay in a relationship when they fail to verify their selves (Burke & Stets, 1999; Swann & Pelham, 2002). In these studies, the decreased interest in remaining with the partner was even stronger for those who had negative self-concepts and received positive feedbacks. Although positive outcomes such as social support

are not likely to sustain over time, negative outcomes should not necessarily materialize because the identity feedback they give each other has a positive nature and members of compassionate dyads do not pose any denigrating threat to each other's identities. Therefore, we argue that the members of compassionate dyads are likely to develop a formal and respectful relationship with low levels of coworker support or antagonism.

1.6 General Discussion

Theoretical Contributions

Our framework has theoretical implications for the self-verification and diversity literatures. We contribute to self-verification theory by providing an analysis of the reasons why individuals may not achieve self-verification. We do so by elucidating the important role of the interaction partner's own self-verification strivings, which may be compatible or incompatible with the focal individual's self-verification strivings. While compatible self-verification activities result in self-verification, incompatible ones put self-verification achievement at risk. This is an important contribution because the self-verification literature provides us with rich explanation of how and why individuals achieve self-verification (Snyder & Haugen, 1995; Swann & Ely, 1984; Swann et al., 2009), without much attention paid to the reasons why people may not achieve it. Moreover, our framework sheds light on the process and outcomes of self-verification in unequal coworker dyads. Although the self-verification literature acknowledges that minorities may face constraints to verify their identities (Swann et al., 2009), it has scarcely examined which diverse dyads experience challenges in this process. By categorizing diverse peer dyads in terms of their members' level of SDO (Pratto et al., 2006; Sidanius & Pratto, 2012), we argue that SDO plays an important role in self-verification process. Moreover, although scholars have documented the benefits of self-verification including creative performance and social integration (Swann et al., 2000), they have scarcely discussed its potential downside. One exception is the study by North and Swann (2009), in which the authors' focus is mainly on the drawbacks of self-verification for individuals who hold negative self-views (e.g., psychological harm). We contribute to this line of research by pointing out the potentially negative social outcomes (e.g., sustained unequal relations between members of dominant and

subordinate groups) associated with the successful verification of the subordinate social identity of members of subordinate groups in conforming dyads. Our model suggests that the positive or negative consequences of self-verification depend on the nature of the social identity (i.e., dominance vs. subordination vs. egalitarian) that one verifies.

We also account for inconsistent findings in the diversity literature (Harrison & Klein, 2007; Milliken & Martins, 1996) by incorporating the self-verification processes that unfold in four types of unequal peer dyads whose members have different levels of SDO. This theorizing enables us to identify the drivers of coworker support and antagonism in different dyad types, i.e., egalitarian, compassionate, conforming, and stormy dyads. While we theorized the self-verification dynamics at the dyadic level among fellow peers, our framework can also contribute to team level research on diversity. An important team level outcome for which the diversity literature also reports inconsistent results is relationship conflict (Pelled, 1996; Pelled and Eisenhardt, 1999). One reason for this might be that previous research has essentially assumed that the team-level construct of relationship conflict is a *shared*[2] construct within the unit. However, relationship conflict is dyadic (Ren & Gray, 2009) and we argue that it is more appropriate to consider the team-level construct of relationship conflict as a *configural* unit-level construct whose constituting units are dyads. By teasing out dyads as elemental units within the team-level construct of relationship conflict, our typology of peer dyads suggests that relationship conflicts are more likely to occur in diverse teams that have more stormy dyads. As scholars have found that SDO can predict the career paths and organizations that people choose (Haley & Sidanius, 2005; Umphress et al., 2007), it is possible that previous studies reported a positive relationship between team diversity and relationship conflict because they used samples of teams that were primarily composed of stormy dyads. As such, while we theorized self-verification processes at the dyadic level among peers, our framework can also contribute to team level research on diversity.

[2] Shared constructs have their origin at the individual level (e.g., individuals' cognitions and attitudes) and converge among group members due to socialization, leadership, and other factors. Such consensual lower level constructs emerge at higher levels through composition models of emergence. Configural constructs, as shared constructs, have their origin at the individual level but are not assumed to converge among group members. Their emergence at the group level is through compilation processes (Kozlowski and Klein, 2000).

Furthermore, our model highlights the importance of considering deep-level diversity (i.e., the existence of difference in characteristics that take time to be known in a unit) when analyzing the surface-level diversity (i.e., the existence of differences in characteristics that are immediately apparent) (Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998). Our model suggests that unequal peer dyads may be similar with respect to surface-level diversity (e.g., one member is White and the other is Black), but the outcomes of their relational self-verification and their members' experiences can be totally different due to differences in SDO which reflects a deep-level diversity.

Limitations and Future Research

Our model is not without limitations. First, we focused on arbitrary-set systems while our typology may also be relevant to gender-based hierarchy since a social power gap exists between men and women in most countries. We argue that as men can be considered as members of a dominant social group and women as members of a subordinate social group, the typology we proposed may extend to gender-based diverse dyads. However, the interaction of gender and arbitrary-set systems is more complex to analyze because a dominant social identity according to one system may counteract the effect of a subordinate social identity according to another system. In stormy dyads, overt and covert coworker antagonism may be moderated, or even cancelled out, when the member of the dominant social group is a woman (e.g., a White woman) and the member of the subordinate social group is a man (e.g., a Black man), because a high SDO woman is likely to hold a subordinate social identity according to gender-based hierarchy. This other subordinate social identity may attenuate the effect of her dominant social identity and therefore she may not, overall, see herself as dominant when interacting with a man from an otherwise subordinate social group. In conforming dyads, the member of the dominant social group may not engage in covert antagonistic behaviors when she is a woman and the member of the subordinate social group is a man, because the high SDO subordinate man holds a dominant social identity in gender-based hierarchy, and may not, overall, view himself as subordinate to the dominant woman; likewise, the high SDO woman, as explained before, may not see herself as dominant to the subordinate man. In compassionate dyads, coworker sup-

port may in fact sustain over time, instead of disappearing, when the member of the dominant social group is a woman and the member of the subordinate social group is a man, because the high SDO subordinate man who has a dominant social identity according to gender-based hierarchy may not see himself as subordinate to the woman. In egalitarian dyads the outcomes should not differ from what our theorization proposed. Future research may shed light on the outcomes of the unequal peer dyads that also have gender diversity.

While the present paper focuses on self-verification in peer dyads, it would also be interesting to examine the interplay between group-based social hierarchy and formal organizational hierarchy to understand how self-verification processes play out in subordinate-supervisor dyads. Similarly, it would be worth exploring how leaders or supervisors can influence self-verification processes among unequal peer dyads who work in their teams. For instance, a high SDO leader may impede the verification of egalitarian social identities by placing members of dominant social groups in their in-group and members of subordinate social groups in their out-group, thus reducing opportunities for positive intergroup contact (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006).

Moreover, exploring self-verification outcomes in supervisor-subordinate dyads is also interesting. Supervisors from dominant groups have higher organizational status and power, which can impact self-verification processes in supervisor-subordinate dyads (Swann et al., 2009). For instance, supervisors from dominant social groups may have a stronger sense of self-verification, as their dominant social identity aligns with the hierarchical structure of the organization. Moreover, a high SDO supervisor may perpetuate and reinforce social hierarchies by favoring members of the dominant social group and creating barriers for positive intergroup contact. This behavior can hinder subordinates' ability to verify their egalitarian social identities and may contribute to feelings of marginalization and exclusion. Conversely, supervisors who actively promote inclusivity, diversity, and positive intergroup contact can facilitate self-verification of egalitarian identities. By creating an environment that values and supports diverse social identities, leaders can enhance

the opportunities for individuals from both dominant and subordinate social groups to experience positive self-verification outcomes.

Further research in the context of supervisor-subordinate dyads can provide valuable insights into the complex dynamics of self-verification and the role of leadership in shaping these processes. Understanding how power differentials and social identities intersect in hierarchical relationships can contribute to developing strategies for promoting equality, inclusion, and positive social identity verification within organizations.

Another intriguing avenue to consider is that peer dyads may belong to work groups where multiple types of dyads coexist. Further theorizing is needed to delve into the effect of work groups' composition in terms of peer dyads on interpersonal interactions within each particular dyad. For instance, if there are opportunities for interactions across many egalitarian dyads and only a few stormy dyads in a workgroup, it is likely that members of subordinate social groups will interact more frequently with low SDO members from dominant social groups and that few interactions will occur in stormy dyads. In this situation, high SDO members may not engage in any identity violation with their peers due to the low frequency of interactions and absence of an environment that legitimizes hierarchy (Cortina, 2008). Conversely, if the proportion of stormy dyads is high in a team, the inevitable higher number of interactions between individuals with egalitarian identities and individuals with dominant identities can cause more tensions and negative behaviors. Future research may explore team processes and outcomes by probing into the types of dyads in a workgroup and the nature and frequency of interactions between dyads.

Practical Implications

Our study has implications for management, as diversity is increasing in organizations (Jackson & Joshi, 2011; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Consequently, negative interpersonal behaviors may occur in work groups with social status differences. Since these behaviors divert attention from task completion, managers may want to prevent these behaviors from occurring. Our conceptual typology of peer dyads with its implications for self-verification and interpersonal behavior surmises that to promote an inclusive climate

that provides all members with opportunities to verify their identities, managers should be trained through specific programs. Particularly, our model suggests that training managers on SDO is important. Managers can reduce the antagonistic behaviors of individuals high in SDO by creating a work environment that values diversity (Boehm et al., 2014; Umphress et al., 2008) and prohibits discrimination (Cortina, 2008). Organizational practices that discourage intergroup competition may also buffer the negative outcomes that we theorized in stormy and conforming dyads. This is because high SDO members of dominant social groups may engage in negative behavior (e.g., discrimination) when they perceive group threat (Pratto & Shih, 2000): reducing the threat might discourage discrimination. In addition, managers may be able to influence the level of employees' SDO. SDO arises from several factors, including socialization experiences and social context (Sidanius & Pratto, 2003). For instance, group dominance is associated with SDO such that group mean SDO tends to be higher in dominant social groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 2012). Therefore, managers may be able to alter employees' perception of belonging to dominant vs. subordinate social groups by distributing hierarchical positions evenly across groups with various social power.

Our framework also suggests that paying attention to the characteristics of job candidates in a diverse environment is important since the roots of identity incongruence and associated behavioral problems reside at least in part in individual-level characteristics (i.e., SDO). This issue is critical when candidates apply for positions that provide them with formal authority in the organization because being appointed to positions of authority may help high-SDO individuals draw a hierarchy between individuals from dominant social groups and those from subordinate social groups to verify their assumed dominant identities.

1.7 Conclusion

This article integrates the literature on social dominance and self-verification to examine self-verification in unequal peer dyads. Our framework provides a basis for understanding that verification of dominant/subordinate /egalitarian social identities in unequal peer dyads can be challenging and may lead to negative outcomes. Our model may also

facilitate a dialogue that addresses the diversity literature's contradictory findings on interpersonal behaviors. We hope that this work will encourage future researchers to empirically test our theoretical propositions

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Figure 1. *A Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) Typology of unequal peer dyads*

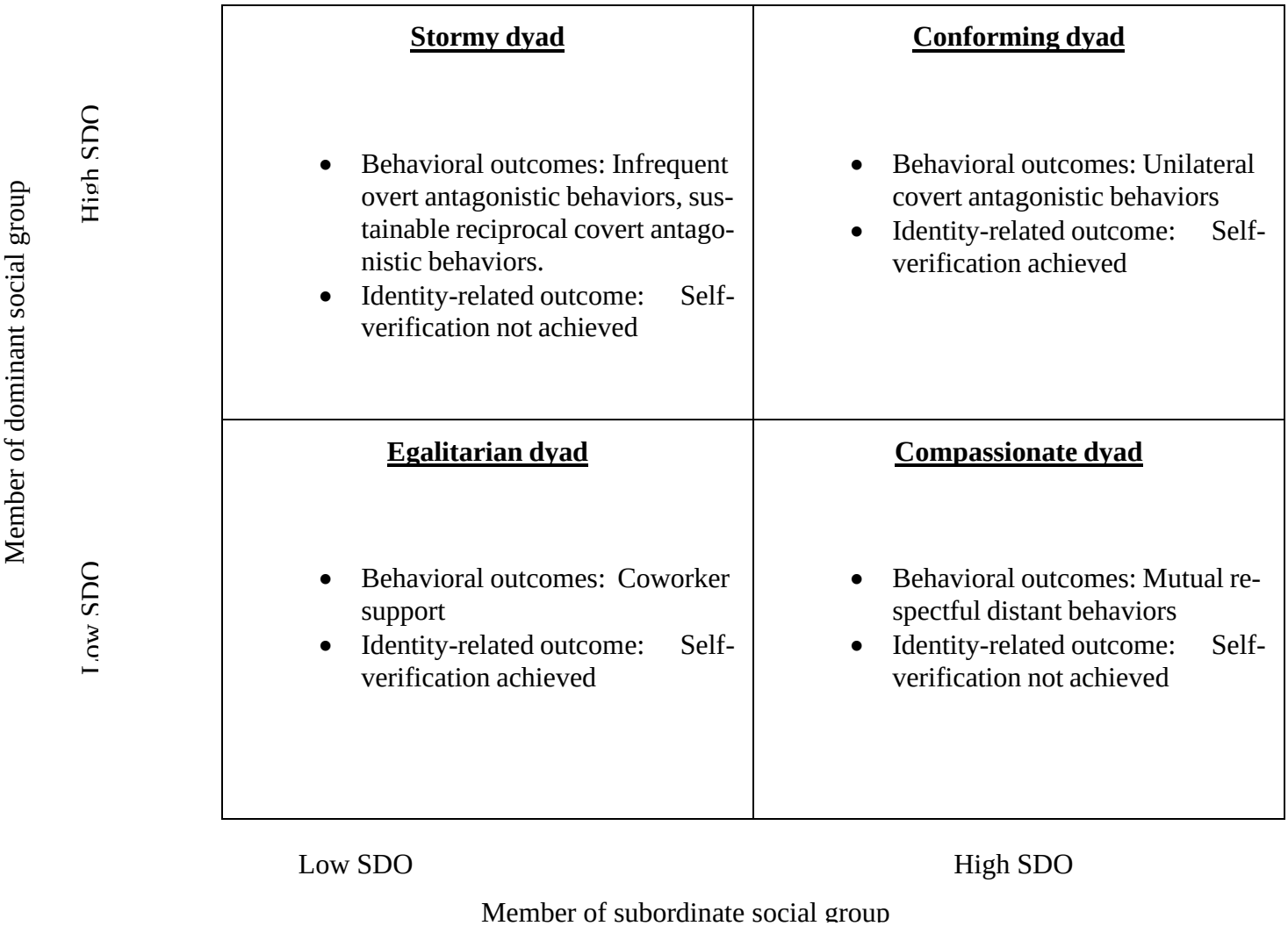
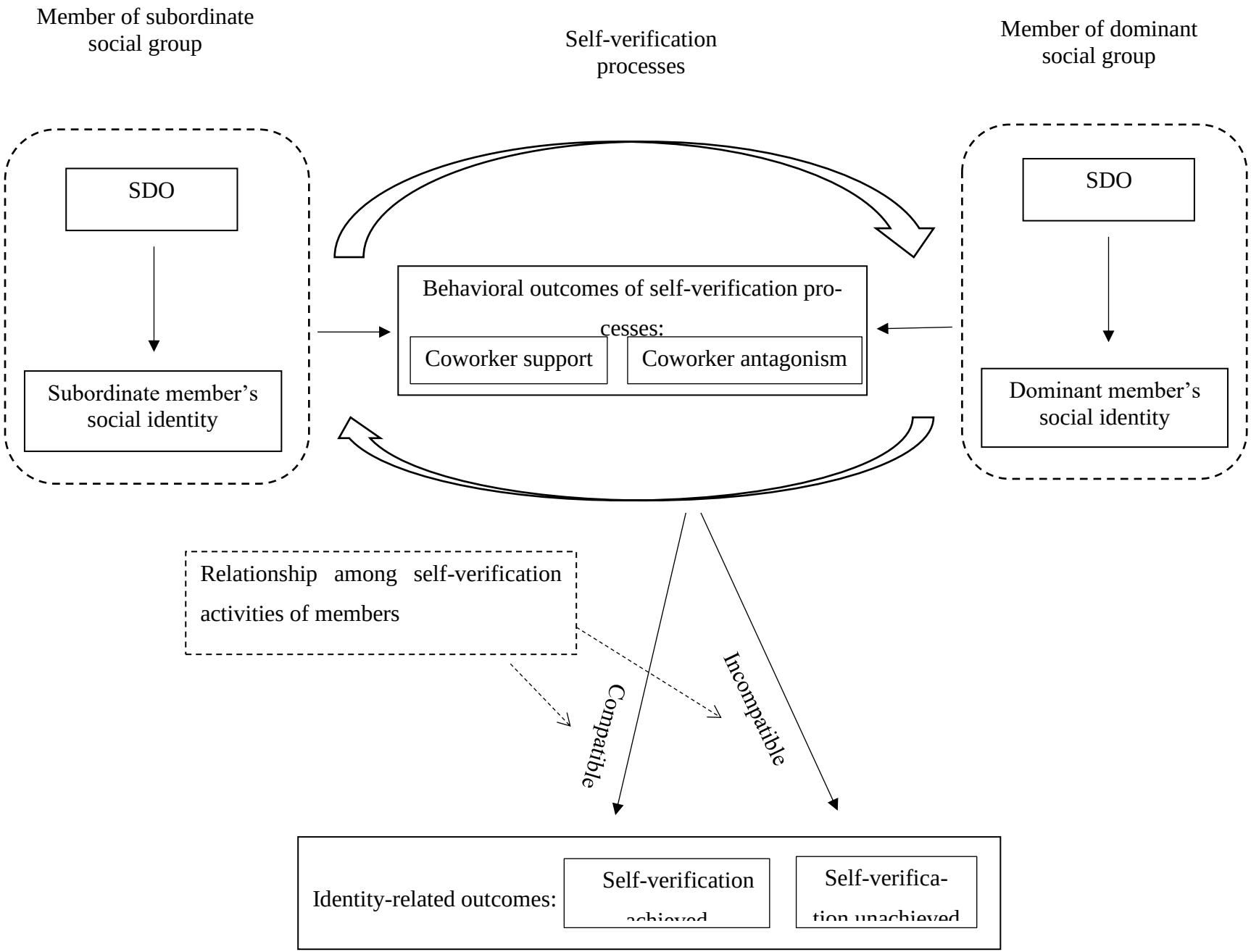


Figure 2. *Self-verification in unequal peer dyads*



Chapter 2

Supervisors' Social Dominance Orientation, Nation Based Exchange Relationships, and Team Level Outcomes

Abstract

The prevalence of teams in contemporary organizations and the trend towards diversity in a workforce composed of members from multiple countries have drawn the attention of researchers on the consequences of diversity in workplaces. While there are potential benefits to diversity, relationship conflicts among team members may also result and affect team functioning. The present study explores the role of supervisors in influencing the relative quality of exchange relationships with team members from diverse nations and how this impacts relationship conflicts and team commitment. Specifically, we hypothesized that supervisor social dominance orientation, a tendency to support the arbitrary dominance of specific social groups over others, fosters within-team differentiation of leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships based on team members' national origin. We further hypothesized that such LMX differentiation (LMXD) would increase within-team relationship conflict and in turn lead to reduced collective team commitment. A two-wave study among a sample of 931 individuals from 108 workgroups found support for these predictions. We discuss the implications of these findings for research on supervisor social dominance orientation, within-team nation based diversity, and team functioning.

2.1 Introduction

The increasing trend of workforce diversity, coupled with the prevalence of teams in contemporary organizations, has directed scholars' attention to studying the role of diversity in teams (Nkomo et al., 2019; O'Reilly et al., 1989; Smith et al., 1994). While initially scholars have optimistically theorized about the potential benefits of diversity such as increased team creativity (Cox & Blake, 1991), accrued studies have suggested that relationship conflict—the interpersonal incompatibilities among group members

which are often accompanied by tension and animosity among parties (Jehn et al., 1999)—is one of the deleterious consequences of diversity (Pelled, 1996), particularly among teams with members pertaining to diverse countries (Ayub, & Jehn, 2006). Researchers have extensively shown that relationship conflict is dysfunctional in teams (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Jehn, 1995). For instance, the meta-analytic study by De Dreu and Weingart (2003) reports a strong negative association between relationship conflict and team performance and member satisfaction. Also, Jehn (1995) has found a negative association between group members' perceived relationship conflict and group members' job satisfaction, liking of other group members, and their intent to remain in the group. Given these negative consequences, one would expect team leaders to use practices that discourage relationship conflict in their teams. Yet, a close inspection of leaders' behavior in organizations reveals that leaders themselves are sometimes responsible for creating relationship conflict in their workgroups (Zhao et al., 2019).

The present research seeks to understand *which* leaders (i.e., supervisors) promote relationship conflict in nationally diverse teams (i.e., teams with immigrants and native-born employees, which represents an important form of diversity) and through *which mechanisms* they do so. We first draw from social dominance theory (Sidanius & Pratto, 2012) to suggest that supervisors' social dominance orientation (SDO), i.e., the extent to which individuals desire and support the dominance of arbitrarily set dominant groups over subordinate groups (Pratto et al., 1994), leads them to differentiate among subordinates based on their national status (native-born vs. immigrant), a construct that we call nation based leader-member exchange (LMX) differentiation (i.e., nation based LMXD). According to LMX theory (Liden et al., 2006), supervisors build differential quality exchange relationships (ranging from low to high) with their subordinates. These exchange relationships have been shown to be differentiated within teams (Henderson et al., 2009). Such phenomenon, or LMXD, can be based on different factors (Chen et al., 2018). Following this view, we define nation based LMXD as the tendency of supervisors to build higher quality LMX relationships with native-born subordinates compared to immigrant subordinates.

Second, drawing from faultline theory (Lau & Murnighan, 1998), we further suggest that teams with higher levels of nation based LMXD experience more relationship conflict. Faultlines are defined as "hypothetical dividing lines that may split a group into subgroups based on one or more attributes" (Lau & Murnighan, 1998, p. 328). Theory on faultlines posits that in diverse teams, strong faultlines would lead to higher levels of relationship conflicts. Building on these core ideas, we argue that nation based LMXD would promote relationship conflict by aligning LMX-based faultlines with nation based faultlines. We finally hypothesize a negative association between relationship conflict and collective team commitment, a focal determinant of team performance (Mahembe & Engelbrecht, 2013; Mathieu & Gilson, 2012).

This study contributes to the extant literature in at least three ways. First, this study contributes to the workforce diversity literature by examining a specific form of diversity, which is based on national origin. Although researchers have shown that diverse teams suffer from relationship conflicts (Ayub & Jehn, 2006; Pelled, 1996), to our knowledge no study has explored the role of supervisors in creating relationship conflict. We show that supervisors' SDO, a specific individual difference variable related to how much supervisors endorse status differences among social groups, plays a critical role in developing nation based LMXD, which ultimately promotes relationship conflict. Second, this study contributes to the LMX literature, which has invested considerable effort in understanding the consequences of LMX differentiation. We introduce nation based LMXD as a novel and specific type of LMX differentiation that can emerge in diverse teams, and we document its power to predict relationship conflict. Finally, our study contributes to enhance our understanding of the role of supervisor SDO and nation based LMXD in affecting collective team commitment, thereby contributing to enlarge the array of determinants of team functioning in the modern workplace.

2.2 Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

Nation Based LMXD

LMX theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden et al., 1997), which has emerged as an important framework in the leadership literature, proposes that leaders build different

types of exchange relationships with their subordinates (i.e., in-group and out-group exchanges; Dansereau et al., 1975) by treating some followers more favorably than others (Gerstner & Day, 1997). LMX differentiation (LMXD) is a concept that captures this differentiated treatment of subordinates by leaders within teams (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2005). As a result of LMXD, high LMX subordinates, compared to low LMX subordinates, would benefit from more advantages such as career progress (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Wakabayashi & Graen, 1984; Wakabayashi et al., 1990), assignment of challenging jobs (Graen & Cashman, 1975), greater influence within the organization (Sparrowe & Liden, 2005), and receipt of more resources such as information and time (Dansereau et al., 1975).

Scholars have identified many factors that may explain why LMX differentiation occurs. These factors fall into individual (e.g., leadership style), team (e.g., aggressive culture), and organization (e.g., organizational structure) level categories (Henderson et al., 2009). Due to one or more of these reasons, empirical studies indicate that LMX differentiation is very common in work groups; indeed, over 90 percent of work groups experience it (Dansereau et al., 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980), and it influences individual and group level outcomes. Such ubiquitous differentiation among subordinates can be based on different factors.

The basis of LMX differentiation—those factors that determine the formation of differential LMX relationships between supervisors and their subordinates within a group (Chen et al., 2018)—has important individual and group level effects. For instance, Chen et al. (2018) introduced two bases for LMXD: members' task performance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and empirically showed how performance-based LMXD and OCB-based LMXD can alleviate the negative effects of LMX differentiation on group outcomes. Although LMX theorists have long theorized that for the sake of effectiveness and fairness, non-performance factors should not determine the quality of exchange relationships between a supervisor and his or her subordinates (Dansereau et al., 1975; Scandura, 1999), in reality many non-performance factors may also influence LMX development such as liking, or demographic characteristics (Green et al., 1996; Liden et al., 1993; Randolph-Seng et al., 2016). Following this perspective, we rely on the diversity

literature and introduce national origin as a potential basis of LMXD in teams that are composed of native-born subordinates and foreign-born (i.e., immigrant) subordinates.

Immigrants, who are defined as people who are foreign-born but have the right to reside in their host country regardless of whether they have or do not have host country citizenship, are making a considerable share of the labor market and have attracted the attention of management scholars (Wrench, 2016). In 2020, immigrants accounted for more than 15 percent of the labor force of countries such as Germany and about 25 percent of the workforce in Australia, Canada, and New Zealand (Wrench, 2016). Much evidence indicates that immigrants experience unequal treatment in organizations (Bell et al., 2010; Enoksen, 2016; Foley et al., 2002; Villadsen & Wulff, 2018). This unequal treatment may be manifested in several ways. For example, immigrants may experience barriers to career advancement, and be subject to jokes, negative comments, and stereotypes that demean their capabilities (Foley et al., 2002; Ozturk & Berber, 2020; Van Laer & Janssens, 2011).

We draw from the above studies and extend our reasoning to suggest that immigrants may suffer from unequal treatment in terms of exchange relationships with their supervisors. We propose the team-level construct of nation-based LMXD as defining the extent to which team members perceive that the social exchange relationships between employees and supervisors are of a higher quality when employees are native-born (vs. immigrants). Thus, LMXD reflects whether LMX relationships are biased by the national origin of subordinates. In other words, the more the nation based LMXD within a team, the more the distribution of LMX relationships would be based on national origin such that native-born subordinates would be favored over immigrants. In this paper, we focus on perceived nation based LMXD rather than on actual LMX configurations as LMX scholars have called for more subjective measures of LMX differentiation (Choi et al., 2020; Martin et al., 2018). This is because perceptions of the environment have typically more influence on job attitudes and behaviors compared to the objective reality (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Acknowledging that the existence of diversity in a work team may not necessarily induce differential treatment (Lewis & Sherman, 2003; Sacco et al., 2003), our purpose in

this study is to take a glimpse into the factors that may affect the emergence of nation based LMXD in work teams composed of native-born and foreign-born employees. We specifically focus on supervisor SDO as a potential driver of nation based LMXD as is discussed in the next section.

Supervisor's Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) and Nation Based LMXD

Social dominance theory (Pratto et al., 2006; Sidanius & Pratto, 2012) builds on sociological work on inequalities and social stratification (e.g., Lenski, 1984; Tilly, 1988) to examine systems of group-based hierarchies in human societies. Within these hierarchies, those groups at the top (i.e., dominant groups) possess more social power and benefit from a disproportionate share of positive social value (e.g., wealth, high-status occupations, political power, better health care) while those at the bottom (i.e., subordinate groups) suffer from negative social value (e.g., substandard housing, underemployment, precarious work, stigmatization) (Doane, 1997; Sidanius & Pratto, 2012). Beyond explaining how such hierarchies sustain over time, social dominance theory introduces an individual difference variable, namely SDO, which plays an important role in preserving these group-based hierarchies.

SDO is a psychological component of social dominance theory that describes the tendency of an individual to believe in the legitimacy of predefined social structures and act in favor of sustaining inequality among social groups (Pratto et al., 1994). High SDO individuals prefer intergroup relations to be ordered along a dominant-subordinate continuum while low SDO individuals prefer intergroup relations to be equal (Pratto et al., 1994). To preserve the social hierarchy in favor of members of dominant groups, high SDO individuals are prone to discriminate against members of subordinate groups (Umphress et al., 2008). Therefore, if these individuals have the authority to draw a hierarchy, they would be motivated to translate into reality the hierarchy they find legitimate, namely a hierarchy that provides privileges to members of dominant groups.

We argue that the differentiation of LMX relationships within teams is a hierarchy building process because, compared to low LMX subordinates, high LMX subordinates enjoy more advantages such as being more influential (Sparrowe & Liden, 2005), having

more power to influence the group's decisions (Scandura et al., 1986), and accessing more promotion opportunities (Wakabayashi & Graen, 1984). High LMX subordinates would thus benefit from more advantages than their low LMX counterparts, and supervisors may have a primary role in drawing this hierarchy. Supervisors may initiate high quality exchange relationships with selected subordinates (Graen & Cashman, 1975) by offering their limited resources such as time and energy (Dansereau et al., 1975), and physical resources, interesting tasks, and valuable information (Graen & Cashman, 1975).

Extending the above argument to the context of teams composed of members from multiple nations, one may suspect that high SDO leaders, because they believe in the superiority of dominant social groups over subordinate social groups, will be likely to initiate higher quality exchange relationships with subordinates belonging to dominant groups and create a hierarchy of LMX relationships that brings benefits to members of these groups. As in the hierarchy of social groups within host countries, immigrant groups are perceived to hold an inferior position compared to the dominant group of native-born citizens (Bauder, 2003; Reitz & Banerjee, 2007), immigrants may experience lower quality exchange relationships with supervisors who are high on SDO, reflecting some mistreatment based on national origin by high SDO supervisors. In support of this view, an empirical study by Costello and Hodson (2011) indicated that high SDO individuals tend to engage in prejudice against immigrants and resist to help them. Based on the above discussion, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1. Supervisor SDO is positively associated with team level nation based LMXD.

Nation Based LMXD and Relationship Conflict within Teams

Workgroup diversity refers to differences in workgroup members' demographic attributes (e.g., ethnicity, gender, and age) or other characteristics (e.g., tenure, education, and professional background). These differences are associated with group members having different values, norms, beliefs, and worldviews that influence the way they define situations, see issues, and interact with others (see Alderfer, 1987, Ely & Thomas, 2001). As a result of such differences, diverse workgroups may be more creative (Cox & Blake,

1991). However, these groups may also experience more conflict depending on the nature of the differences across group members and the ability to manage these differences, and on the potential influence of factors from the larger environment in which they are embedded (Alderfer, 1987; Jehn, 1995; Pelled et al., 1999).

The difficulty to deal with the consequences of team composition diversity may also be amplified by faultlines. Faultlines are hypothetical lines of division that breakup a workgroup into relatively homogeneous subgroups based on the diversity attributes of group members (Lau & Murnighan, 1998). For instance, the national origin faultline may divide groups into immigrant and native-born subgroups. According to Lau and Murnighan (1998), the presence of strong faultlines in diverse groups exacerbates the impact of diversity and augments the likelihood that members perceive subgroups to exist and to experience subgroup conflict. Faultlines can divide workgroups into conflicting subgroups in which members define themselves as part of these subgroups rather than as part of the larger group. The stronger the faultlines in a workgroup, the more likely that conflict arises in the group. The strength of a faultline increases when more attributes are aligned with each other (Lau & Murnighan, 1998). For example, considering the two diversity dimensions of race and professional role, a team with three black technicians and three white engineers has a stronger faultline than a team with three black engineers and three white engineers since race and professional role faultlines combine in the former case.

Following the above logic, we argue that nation based LMXD contributes to create a nationality faultline and national subgroup salience within work teams composed of native-born and foreign-born employees. Our argument is that supervisors, through LMX differentiation, implicitly contribute to create a *LMX faultline* among subordinates. When LMX differentiation is based on subordinates' national origin, the LMX faultline would divide the work team into high LMX subordinates pertaining to the subgroup of native-born subordinates (i.e., the supervisor's in-group) and low LMX subordinates representing the foreign-born subordinates (i.e., the supervisor's out-group). Thus, through nation based LMXD, the supervisors of nationally diverse teams would align the LMX faultline with the national origin faultline. Therefore, nation based LMXD would increase the likelihood of emergence of within-team relationship conflict. Moreover, as we previously argued that

nation based LMXD is namely driven by supervisor SDO, we posit that supervisor SDO will indirectly relate to more within-team relationship conflict through increased nation based LMXD. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed.

> *Hypothesis 2*: Team-level nation based LMXD is positively associated with within-team relationship conflict.
>
> *Hypothesis 3*: Team-level nation based LMXD mediates a positive relationship between supervisor SDO and within-team relationship conflict.

Within-Team Relationship Conflict and Collective Team Commitment

We expect that the occurrence of more within-team relationship conflicts as induced by higher nation based LMXD will then result in reduced collective team commitment. Following Klein and colleagues' (2012, 2014) reconceptualization of employee commitment, commitment can be defined as "a volitional psychological bond reflecting dedication to and responsibility for a particular target" (Klein et al., 2012, p. 137). This proposed definition makes commitment amenable to application to any target of relevance in the workplace, with this approach having received consistent empirical support (Klein et al., 2014). From an empirical perspective, Klein et al.'s (2014) Unidimensional, Target-free measure (KUT) of commitment has been found to be strongly positively related to the measure of affective commitment developed by Meyer et al. (1993). From a conceptual perspective, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p. 301) have defined commitment as "a force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets" and have suggested that in the case of affective commitment, the mindset that accompanies this force is the desire to pursue a course of action in favor of the target. Given the empirical closeness between the KUT and affective commitment, the previous commitment literature, which has largely examined the role of affective commitment in the workplace, remains a relevant source of reference, even when commitment is measured through the KUT as is done in the present study (Vandenberghe, 2021).

Given our focus on supervisor SDO and within-team nation based LMXD and relationship conflict, we concentrated on the effects of these constructs on team commitment

or team members' attachment to their team (Gardner et al., 2011), which is a major outcome and indicator of team functioning (Mathieu et al., 2008). At the team level, when members consistently perceive that relationship conflict exits among team members, they are unlikely to share a sense of membership in and attachment to the team as a whole. This is because teams with relationship conflicts suffer from destructive team processes including the lack of trust (Langfred, 2007) and cohesion (Jehn & Mannix, 2001). Indeed, relationship conflict surfaces as an increase in expression of negative emotions (Thiel et al., 2019). These negative emergent states accompanying the emergence of within-team relationship conflict are likely to jeopardize team members' collective commitment to their team. Although, to our knowledge, the team-level association between relationship conflict and team commitment has not been examined, researchers have consistently reported a negative association between relationship conflict and affective commitment at the individual level (Lee et al., 2018; Thomas et al., 2005). By extension, we argue that within-team relationship conflict will be related to lower collective team commitment. Moreover, as we previously argued that nation based LMXD would relate to more within-team relationship conflict, we may expect the former to be indirectly related to reduced collective team commitment through increased within-team nation based LMXD. Thus, we propose the following, remaining hypotheses.

Hypothesis 4: Within-team relationship conflict negatively relates to team-level commitment to the team.

Hypothesis 5: Within-team relationship conflict mediates a negative relationship between team-level nation based LMXD and team-level commitment to the team.

2.3 Method

Sample and Procedure

We collected data at two time points separated by eight months from employees in eight governmental organizations located in Canada. Upon agreement of the organizations' human resource management directors, prospective participants were contacted by email to participate in a multi-wave study of job attitudes. An introductory message advised respondents that participation was voluntary, and responses would remain confidential. The criteria for participation were having (a) salaried employment and (b) an identifiable supervisor. The questionnaires were completed in French or English. To match responses across measurement times, a unique code was assigned to each participant. At Time 1, employees completed demographic questions while at Time 2 they were surveyed about LMX (see control variables section). At Time 1 and Time 2, employees were surveyed about nation based LMXD, relationship conflict, and team commitment, while supervisor SDO was self-reported by supervisors at Time 2. Data on the control variables of supervisor place of birth (Time 1) and team size (Time 1) were obtained from supervisors (see control variables section). Employee data were then aggregated at the team level and combined with supervisor SDO to conduct the analyses related to our research model (Figure 3.1). Time 1 employee data on nation based LMXD, relationship conflict, and team commitment served as baseline controls when testing our hypotheses at the team level, which involved Time 2 data. This approach is an efficient way by which common method variance can be mitigated in data analyses (Maxwell & Cole, 2007).

Dropping those participants who failed the attention check item (Huang et al., 2015), we received 1104 usable responses at Time 1 and 1356 usable responses at Time 2. The difference in sample size between Time 1 and Time 2 is due to new employees being recruited and added in the participating organizations between the two survey times. Matched data across time were available for 931 employees affiliated with 108 work teams. The average age of these employees was 48 years (*SD* = 11.06), their average organizational tenure was 9 years (*SD* = 9.22), 36% were male, while 25% were born outside of Canada. As 173 of the 1104 Time 1 participants did not complete the Time 2 survey, we conducted an attrition analysis through logistic regression to determine whether there was a systematic attrition bias between Time 1 and Time 2. Specifically, we regressed a dichotomous variable (i.e., those Time 1 respondents who completed the Time 2 survey [0] vs. those who didn't [1]) reflecting the likelihood of attrition on nation based LMXD (b = -.07,

SE = .11, *ns*), relationship conflict (b = .11, *SE* = .11, *ns*), and team commitment (b = -.03, *SE* = .06, *ns*) from Time 1. These non-significant results indicate there was no attrition bias among respondents between Time 1 and Time 2.

Measures

Social dominance orientation. SDO was measured using Sidanius et al.'s (1996) 16-item scale. Based on an exploratory factor analysis of the items, which identified a single factor, the 9 items with the highest loadings (> .40) were retained. Sample items from the 9-item reduced scale are "To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups" and "No one group should dominate in society" (reverse coded). Responses were rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). This scale had an internal consistency of .92.

Nation based LMXD. We measured the perception of nation based LMXD with six items adapted from Choi et al. (2020). We adapted these items that measured perception of LMXD and incorporated national origin as the basis for LMXD in these items. The six items are "Native-born members have a better relationship with my manager than immigrants"; "My manager treats native-born members better than immigrants"; "My manager is more loyal to native-born members compared with immigrants"; "Relative to the immigrants in my workgroup, native-born members receive more support from my manager"; "My manager seems to like native-born members more than immigrants"; and "My manager respects native-born members more than immigrants". Responses were rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). This scale demonstrated high internal consistency at Time 1 (α = .96) and Time 2 (α = .98).

Relationship conflict. We measured the perception of relationship conflict among team members using a three-item measure developed by Jehn and Mannix (2001). A sample item is "How much relationship tension is there in your work group?" Responses were rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). This scale had high reliability at Time 1 (α = .92) and Time 2 (α = .92).

Team commitment. The four-item KUT scale developed by Klein et al. (2014) was used to measure team commitment. The four items referred to the work team as the target of commitment. A typical item was "To what extent do you care about your work team?" Responses were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*extremely*). The alpha reliability was .93 at both Time 1 and Time 2.

Control variables. Following Spector and Brannick's (2011) recommendations to include control variables that may influence hypothesized relationships, we controlled for several relevant variables in testing hypotheses. First, we controlled for the baseline (i.e., Time 1) levels of nation based LMXD, relationship conflict, and team commitment. Second, we controlled for within-team differentiation on LMX relationships as a potential predictor of relationship conflict and team commitment. LMX was rated by employees at Time 2 using the 12-item LMX-MDM scale from Liden and Maslyn (1998). A typical item is "I like my supervisor very much as a person" ($\alpha = .94$). Consistent with previous studies conducted at the group level (e.g., Nishii & Mayer, 2009), we assessed the amount of LMX differentiation by calculating the within-team variance (measured by *SD*) on LMX scores. Furthermore, we also controlled for supervisor place of birth (1 = Canada; 2 = outside of Canada; Time 1) as research suggests that it may influence LMX distribution in diverse teams (Pichler et al., 2019). Finally, we controlled for team size (Time 1) as a potential predictor of relationship conflict and team commitment.

2.4 Results

Data Aggregation at the Team Level

As our model (Figure 3.1) represented a team level model of supervisor SDO, nation based LMXD, relationship conflict, and team commitment, we examined the appropriateness of aggregating individual responses to scale items to the team level by calculating within-team agreement with the interrater agreement index ($r_{wg(j)}$; James et al., 1984) and computing ICC(1) and ICC(2) intraclass correlations (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). The median values for $r_{wg(j)}$ were sizeable for nation based LMXD (.99), relationship conflict (.76), and team commitment (.82), indicating strong within-team agreement on these variables. Similarly, the ICC(1) values for nation based LMXD (.14), relationship conflict

(.24), and team commitment (.08) indicated meaningful variance on scale scores across teams (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). Finally, the ICC(2) values for nation based LMXD (.57), relationship conflict (.72), and team commitment (.45) provided evidence of acceptable reliability of team-level scores on the variables of interest (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). These results suggest that individual data could be aggregated at the team level.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Before testing our hypothesized model, we conducted a series of multilevel confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) in Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012) to examine whether our constructs were distinguishable. First, we tested a CFA model in which nation based LMXD, relationship conflict, and team commitment were treated as both within-team and between-team factors while supervisor SDO was treated as a between-team factor. CFA results showed a good model fit for this theorized model, $\chi^2(818) = 1351.84$, $p < .001$, comparative fit index (CFI) = .98, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .98, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .02, standardized root mean square residual (within; $SRMR_{within}$) = .02, standardized root mean square residual (between; $SRMR_{between}$) = .17. This model yielded a better fit than three alternative, more parsimonious models: (a) a model in which nation-based LMXD and relationship conflict items loaded on a single factor at Time 1 and Time 2, $\Delta\chi^2(20) = 4333.35$, $p < .001$; (b) a model specifying all three parallel variables from Time 1 and Time 2 to merge into a single set of three factors, $\Delta\chi^2(27) = 5851.30$, $p < .001$; and (c) a one-factor model where all items loaded on a single factor, $\Delta\chi^2(35) = 14906.45$, $p < .001$. These results indicate that our study variables were discriminant.

Measurement Invariance

As our theoretical model controlled for Time 1 nation based LMXD, relationship conflict, and team commitment, we needed to establish that their measurement was invariant across time to ensure that the construct's meaning remained stable (Cole & Maxwell, 2003; Millsap, 2011). To examine this issue, a sequential approach was adopted where increasingly stringent constraints were added to the CFA model (e.g., Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). The baseline model was a configural model (i.e., equality of factor structure), and

the next models were weak, strong, and strict invariance models, reflecting a sequence of increasingly stringent equality constraints on factor loadings, thresholds, and uniquenesses, respectively. Robust maximum likelihood (MLR) was used to examine measurement invariance. The results are reported in Table 3.1. As can be seen, the $\Delta\chi^2$ values remained non-significant along the sequence of models with increasing constraints of equality (from configural invariance to strict invariance). These results support strict invariance among our constructs and stable psychometric properties across time (Byrne et al., 1989; Cheung & Lau, 2012).

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliability coefficients are reported in Table 3.2. Supervisor SDO was positively related to Time 2 nation based LMXD (r = .29, p < .10). Time 2 nation based LMXD was positively related to Time 2 relationship conflict (r = .30, p < .05) while the latter was negatively related to Time 2 team commitment (r = -.66, p < .01).

Hypothesis Testing

We tested our hypotheses through two-stage multilevel structural equation modeling (MSEM; Heck & Thomas, 2020) using full information maximum likelihood (FIML) estimation via MPlus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012). The hypothesized model yielded a good fit to the data: $\chi^2(755) = 1483.14$, p < .01, CFI = .97, TLI = .97, RMSEA = .03, $SRMR_{within}$ = .06, $SRMR_{between}$ = .22. Hypothesis 1 predicted that the higher the supervisor's SDO, the higher the team's level of nation based LMXD. As shown in Table 3.3, controlling for Time 1 nation based LMXD, supervisor SDO was significantly positively related to Time 2 nation based LMXD (β = .34, SE = .18, p < .05). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is supported. Hypothesis 2 posited that teams higher on nation based LMXD would experience more relationship conflict. As shown in Table 3.3, controlling for Time 1 relationship conflict, nation based LMXD had a significant and positive association with Time 2 relationship conflict (β = .29, SE = .14, p < .05), thereby providing support to Hypothesis 2. Finally, Hypothesis 4 predicted that teams with more relationship conflict would display lower team commitment. As shown in Table 3.3, controlling for Time 1 team commitment,

relationship conflict was significantly negatively related to Time 2 team commitment (β = -.54, *SE* = .14, $p < .01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 is supported.

We examined the mediation effects using a bootstrapping approach (Preacher & Hayes, 2008) on the team-level model[3] and estimated bias-corrected confidence intervals (CIs) for the indirect effects using 10,000 bootstrapped samples. Table 3.4 presents the CIs for the hypothesized indirect effects, as well as the total effects. As we can see from this table, the relationship between supervisor SDO and relationship conflict through nation based LMXD was positive but non-significant (indirect effect = .02, 95% CI [-.03, .09]) as the bootstrap CI contained zero. Thus, Hypothesis 3 is not supported. Lastly, Hypothesis 5 stated that within-team relationship conflict would mediate the relationship between nation based LMXD and team commitment. As shown in Table 3.4, the relationship between nation based LMXD and team commitment through relationship conflict was significantly negative (indirect effect = -.05, 95% CI [-.12, -.01]) as the CI did not include zero. Thus, Hypothesis 5 is supported.

2.5 Discussion

Implications for Theory Development

The findings of this study provide a number of new insights into the role of supervisors in shaping team functioning and outcomes among teams composed of members from multiple nations. Diversity scholars have called for examining the role of supervisors (DiTomaso & Hooijberg, 1996), particularly the role of LMX relationships (Bauer & Erdogan, 2015) in explaining work outcomes in diverse work teams. However, to date, few studies have investigated how leaders can influence processes and outcomes in diverse work teams. One exception is Nishii and Mayer's (2009) study which examined the positive role that supervisors can play in diverse work teams by establishing high LMX relationships with team members. However, the potentially negative role of supervisors in diverse teams has been neglected in research so far.

[3] The team level model is based on group-level averages of individual scores on the variables.

Our study provides empirical evidence that within work teams including members from diverse nations, high SDO supervisors tend to engage in LMX relationships of a higher quality with native-born subordinates and LMX relationships of lower quality with foreign-born subordinates. This in turn was found to engender high levels of within-team relationship conflict, ultimately leading to lower collective team commitment. Note however that the indirect relationship between supervisor SDO and within-team relationship conflict through nation based LMXD was non-significant, which may be due to a lack of power or to the fact that we controlled for baseline levels of the mediator and outcome variable in this analysis, hence making this test more stringent. Although the effect of supervisor SDO was significant in our sample, our sample provided a likely conservative test of the importance of supervisor SDO because of the low mean of SDO in our sample (i.e., 1.64/5). According to the research commissioned by Forbes Insights and conducted by Oxford Economics, which provides a unique ranking of employee diversity across fifty global economies, Canada is among the most diverse countries in the world. The Migration Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) also indicates that Canada has conceived of itself as one of the best immigrant-friendly countries. The low mean on supervisor SDO in our sample may reflect the fact that Canada has a diversified workforce where immigrants are relatively well perceived and integrated. Future research should examine the consequences of supervisors' SDO in contexts and countries where systemic inequality, competition, and resource-based threat are higher as these factors heighten the level of SDO among individuals (Cohrs & Stelzl, 2010).

Future research is also warranted to explore the potential moderators that can buffer the negative effects of supervisor SDO on team processes and outcomes. For example, it might be that policies and practices that discourage discriminatory behaviors among managers and facilitate the emergence of work climates that foster inclusion of immigrants may reduce the negative effect of supervisor SDO on LMX faultlines and curb the salience of subgroups of employees based on their national origin. Following this view, high SDO supervisors would be more likely to engage in differential LMX relationships with subordinates based on their national origin when they are affiliated with organizations displaying less inclusive climates.

Furthermore, to our knowledge the present study is the first to examine the effects of a non-performance basis for LMXD perceptions in work teams. We developed a new approach to LMXD, labelled nation based LMXD that captures the extent to which LMX relationships with subordinates as induced by the supervisor are driven by a national origin faultline. Our six-item scale, which was adapted from Choi et al (2020), was found to be a reliable measure of nation based LMXD that was independent from the dispersion of LMX relationships within teams (i.e., LMXD). It is also worth noting that the effect of nation based LMXD on within-team relationship conflict was incremental to the effect of LMXD per se. This denotes the power of this variable in predicting important team outcomes. For further exploration in future research, it would be interesting to explore what other team-level outcomes might be affected by nation based LMXD. Valuable outcomes for this work might be team cohesion and team performance. One may also speculate that nation based LMXD may differentially influence subordinates from immigrant groups compared to native-born subordinates because native-born subordinates, who tend to receive better treatment owing to their status as members of a dominant social group, should feel more comfortable with nation based LMXD. Future research may also consider subordinates' own level of SDO as this may also play an important role in reactions to nation based LMXD. Low SDO subordinates, because they do not believe in the legitimacy of a hierarchy among social groups, may be more negatively influenced by exposure to nation based LMXD than high SDO subordinates. Future research can thus explore the differential consequences of nation based LMXD among subordinates with different levels of SDO.

Our work also contributes to the diversity literature by adding to the growing body of research that examines the downside of diversity (e.g., relationship conflict) in work teams. Scholars have often used insights from research on social categorization and intergroup relations to predict that differences between people elicit social categorization processes which in turn disrupt group functioning and promote competition and conflict among employees. However, as van Knippenberg and Haslam (2003) argue, it is intergroup prejudice and bias that may disrupt group processes, not categorization per se. Our

study supports this view as, in post-hoc analyses, we found no significant effect of the magnitude of diversity indicators on group outcomes.[4] Yet, our findings indicated that one individual difference variable, namely supervisor SDO, which is known to foster intergroup prejudice, was detrimental to team-level outcomes.

Practical Implications

Our framework also has practical implications for work teams with members with diverse backgrounds. It underscores that paying attention to the characteristics of candidates for leadership positions in a diverse environment is important since the roots of relationship conflict may partly reside in supervisors' characteristics (i.e., SDO). An effective strategy to reduce interpersonal tensions in diverse groups would be to ensure that individuals in leadership positions do preferably display low levels of SDO. Indeed, top managers may more easily promote inclusive climates if they hold low levels of SDO, and this would pave the way to influencing employees' SDO itself. SDO develops from several factors, including socialization experiences, social context, and individual temperament (e.g., empathy, aggression) (Sidanius et al., 2004). For instance, SDO tends to be higher in dominant social groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 2012). As research suggests that transformational leadership promotes inclusive climates (Kearney & Gebert, 2009), organizations with diverse workgroups may be well advised to appoint leaders with a transformational leadership style or to train them to develop transformational skills, so that employees' own SDO levels could decrease over time in such inclusive climate.

Strengths and Limitations

As any study, this research has limitations. First, all measures were self-reported, making the findings susceptible to be affected by common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2012). However, some features of our research design and data analyses provide some confidence in the robustness of the results. On one hand, while within-team LMXD and relationship conflict and collective team commitment were assessed by subordinates, supervisor SDO was reported by supervisors themselves, so that the study was basically

[4] We checked the effects of ethnicity diversity, nation-based diversity, and religion diversity on the team's outcomes. Because these effects were non-significant, we have not reported them.

multi-source. Moreover, while examining the effect of supervisor SDO on nation based LMXD, we controlled for the dispersion of LMX relationships within teams. Thus, supervisor SDO can be said to exert a unique effect on nation based LMXD, independently from LMX relationships. On the other hand, our analyses controlled for the baseline (i.e., Time 1) levels of all endogenous variables (i.e., nation based LMXD, within-team relationship conflict, and collective team commitment), thus considerably reducing any endogeneity related to our findings (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and lending confidence in their robustness. Second, despite the strengths of our design and analyses, we cannot conclude to causal relationships among our constructs. For example, it might be that team members with higher levels of team commitment perceive fewer relationships conflicts and ultimately less differentiation of LMX relationships based on the national origin as the members. Further research using fully cross-lagged designs is warranted to clarify temporal relationships among the constructs. Finally, our study was based on a large sample of 931 employees pertaining to 108 teams and the analyses were conducted at the team level as justified by appropriate aggregation statistics. Therefore, the limitations regarding causal connections among the variables are counterbalanced by the fact that our study captured phenomena that reliably reflected team level processes.

2.6 Conclusion

The present study examined a model of the antecedent and outcome variables of differential LMX relationships among work teams composed of members from diverse national origins. Based on a sample of 108 work teams from eight Canadian organizations, this study indicates that supervisors' SDO engenders increased nation based LMXD, which in turn contributes to more within-team relationship conflict. In turn, relationship conflict relates to lower collective team commitment. As such, this study highlights how the social dominance beliefs of leaders can have detrimental effects within teams where subordinates from diverse national origins work together in the pursuit of team goals. We hope that the present study will encourage further attempts at exploring other leadership and work-related factors as antecedents of nation based LMXD and how these factors may ultimately affect team functioning.

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Table 1. *Tests of Measurement Invariance across Time*

Model	χ^2	*df*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
Configural invariant model	387.82*	268	.99	.98	.02	-	-
Weak invariant model (loadings)	406.01***	278	.99	.98	.02	18.19	10
Strong invariant model (loadings, thresholds)	423.26***	288	.99	.98	.02	17.25	10
Strict invariant model (loadings, thresholds, uniquenesses)	449.67***	291	.98	.98	.02	26.41	3

Note. Full information maximum likelihood estimation was used. df = degrees of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.
*$p < .05$; ***$p < .001$.

Table 2. *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study Variables*

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Individual level											
1. Nation based LMXD (T1)	1.25	0.95	(.96)								
2. Nation based LMXD (T2)	1.28	0.84	.69**	(.98)							
3. Team commitment (T1)	4.04	0.65	-.17**	-.12**	(.93)						
4. Team commitment (T2)	4.05	0.62	-.12**	-.14**	.63**	(.93)					
5. Relationship conflict (T1)	2.32	1.17	.26**	.26**	-.24**	-.19**	(.92)				
6. Relationship conflict (T2)	2.11	1.11	.16**	.28**	-.16**	-.24**	.61**	(.92)			
Team level											
1. Supervisor SDO (T2)	1.64	0.12	(.92)								
2. Nation based LMXD (T1)	1.22	0.12	-.06								
3. Nation based LMXD (T2)	1.30	0.19	.29+	.89**							
4. Team commitment (T1)	4.09	0.10	-.04	-.07	-.07						
5. Team commitment (T2)	4.45	0.20	-.03	-.18	-.19	.56+					
6. Relationship conflict (T1)	2.33	0.72	.00	.00	.00	.00	-.35				
7. Relationship conflict (T2)	2.10	0.67	-.05	.31*	.30*	-.02	-.66**	.59**			
8. LMXD (T2)	0.64	0.29	.00	.00	.00	.00	-.59**	.07*	.40**		
9. Team size (T1)	9.11	4.77	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.11	.08	.26**	
10. Supervisor place of birth (T1)	1.11	0.31	.00	.00	.01	.00	-.01	.05	.03	-.01	.03

Note. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; LMXD = leader-member exchange differentiation; SDO = social dominance orientation; for supervisor place of birth: 1 = Canada, 2 = outside of Canada. Alpha reliabilities at the individual level (including for supervisor SDO) are listed within parentheses along the diagonal.
+$p < .10$; *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$.

Table 3. *Structural Equation Model Analysis for Hypothesized Model: Structural Parameter Estimates*

	Nation based LMXD (T2)		Relationship conflict (T2)		Team commitment (T2)	
Variable	β	*SE*	β	*SE*	β	*SE*
Team size (T1)			-.05	.08	.11	.11
Supervisor place of birth (T1)	.01	.15	.01	.08	.07	.11
LMXD (T2)			.32**	.07	-.40**	.13
Supervisor SDO (T2)	.34*	.18	-.14	.09	-.14	.12
Nation based LMXD (T1)	.94**	.20				
Nation based LMXD (T2)			.29*	.14	.29	.18
Relationship Conflict (T1)			.53**	.06		
Relationship Conflict (T2)					-.54**	.14
Team commitment (T1)					.62**	.19
Team commitment (T2)						
R2	.96*	.39	.51**	.08	.91**	.18

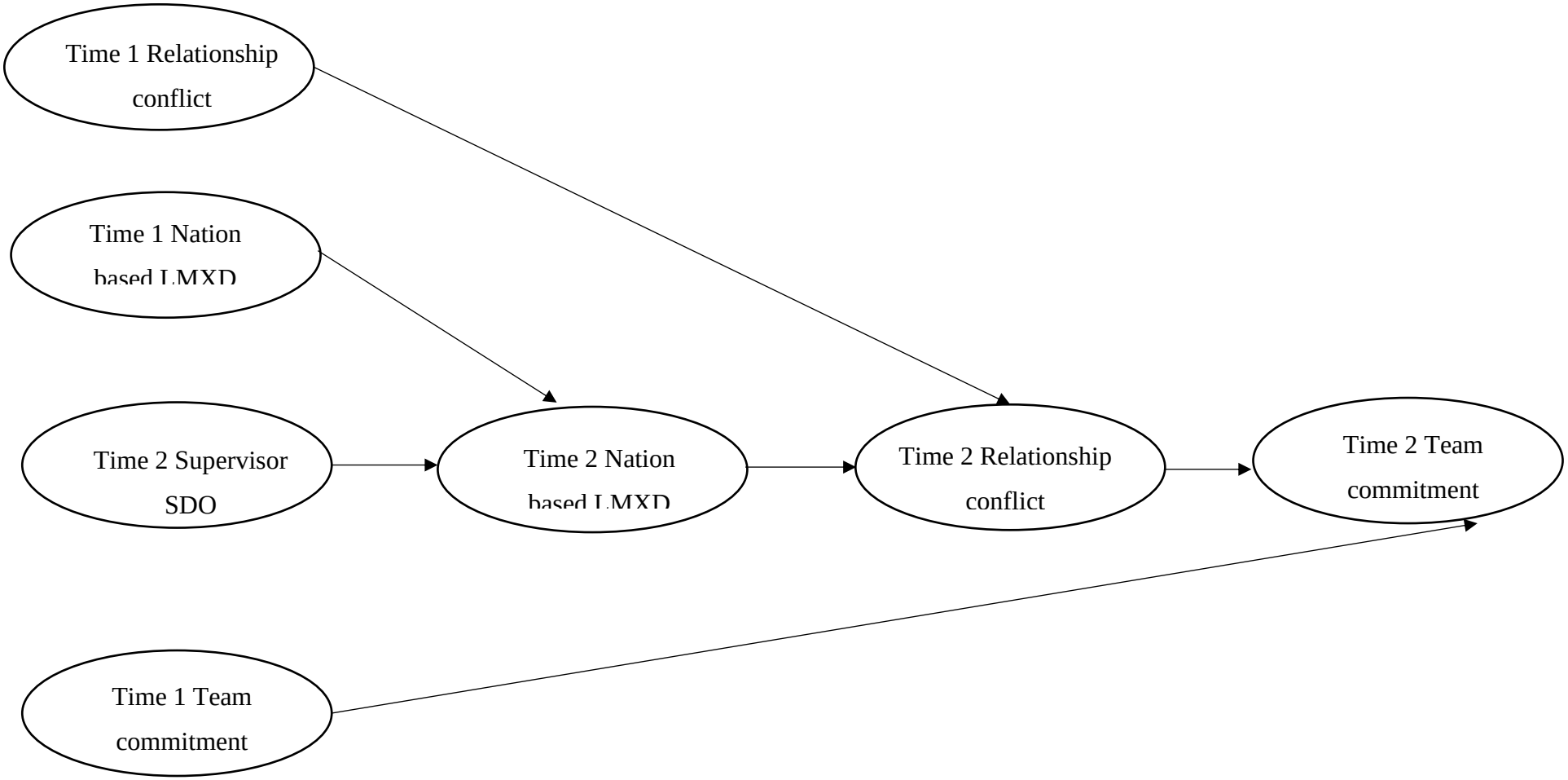
Note. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; LMXD = leader-member exchange differentiation. SDO = social dominance orientation; for supervisor place of birth: 1 = Canada, 2 = outside of Canada.
+$p < .10$; *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$.

Table 4. *Summary of Mediation Analyses Using 10000 Bootstrap Samples*

		95% CI	
	Estimate	LB	UB
Total effects			
SDO → Relationship conflict (Time 2)	-.05	-.16	.08
Nation based LMXD → Team commitment (Time 2)	.06	-.09	.20
Specific indirect effects			
SDO → Nation based LMXD → Relationship conflict (Time 2)	.02	-.03	.09
Nation based LMXD → Relationship conflict → Team commitment (Time 2)	-.05*	-.12	-.01

Note: CI = confidence interval; LB = lower bound; UB = upper bound. Estimates of total and indirect effects are based on the final structural equation model displayed in Figure 3.1.
*$p < .05$.

Figure 1. *Structural Equation Modeling Results for the Hypothesized Model. Note: For the sake of clarity, control variables (team size, supervisor place of birth, and LMXD) are omitted. +p < .10; *p < .05; **p < .01.*



Chapter 3

Psyhological Climate for Diversity, Racial/Ethnic Workplace Discrimination, and Prosocial Voice Behavior: The Moderating Role of Social Dominance

Abstract

The present study aims at expanding research on the antecedents, consequences, and boundary conditions associated with perceived racial/ethnic discrimination in workplaces. We suggest that psychological climate for diversity relates to reduced perceptions of racial/ethnic discrimination, which in turn would relate to increased employee prosocial voice behavior. However, we theorize that these relationships would be moderated by employee social dominance orientation (SDO), an individual difference variable reflecting the degree to which individuals accept unequal distribution of power among social groups. Drawing upon two-wave survey data collected among 826 employees in Canada, psychological climate for diversity was found to negatively relate to the perception of racial/ethnic workplace discrimination. This relation was stronger among low-SDO employees. Moreover, the relation between perceived racial/ethnic workplace discrimination and prosocial voice behavior was moderated by employee SDO such that this relation was significantly positive among low-SDO employees but significantly negative among high-SDO employees. Further, the indirect effect of climate for diversity on prosocial voice was positive for high-SDO employees but negative for low-SDO employees. We discuss these findings in the context of a contingent view of the effects of diversity and discrimination perceptions in organizations, where employee SDO is a crucial boundary condition.

3.1 Introduction

Statistics suggest that workplace discrimination is commonplace. For example, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) has received 61,331 charges of

workplace discrimination in 2021. Among these, cases of racial/ethnic workplace discrimination (REWD) were one of the most prevalent, representing 34.09% (i.e., 20,908) of the claims made during the year (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2022). A 2020 survey by Gallup revealed that one in four black workers as well as one in four Hispanic workers in the U.S. perceived work discrimination (Lloyd, 2021). Such pervasiveness of REWD is detrimental to organizations for several reasons. Perceptions of REWD can detract from organizationally valued outcomes including employee commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, morale, job performance, and can result in lawsuits and reputational costs to firms (Dhanani et al., 2018; Goldman et al., 2006; James & Wooten, 2006; Walker et al., 2022). Moreover, well-being is also negatively related to perceived REWD (Jones et al., 2016; Schmitt et al., 2014; Triana et al., 2015; Xu & Chopik, 2020).

This study aims to shed new light on the antecedents and consequences of perceived REWD. Scholars have identified several macro- and micro-factors that contribute to perceptions of REWD (Avery et al., 2008; Triana et al., 2021), among which diversity climate is an important one (Brief & Barsky, 2000; Cheung et al., 2016; Dipboye & Colella, 2013). Diversity climate refers to employees' perceptions of the extent to which the organization values diversity (Holmes et al., 2021). Among organizations where employees perceive a positive climate for diversity, less discrimination should be perceived due to organizations' heightened commitment to prevention of discrimination (Brief & Barsky, 2000; Dipboye & Colella, 2013). Although a negative relationship between diversity climate and workplace discrimination can be expected, limited research has explored this issue. One exception is Boehm et al.'s (2014) study where a negative relationship was reported between the two constructs at the workgroup level. However, exploring this relationship at the individual level is also important. The first goal of this study is to examine the relationship between employees' perception of diversity climate and perceived REWD over time and how it may affect individual outcomes. Our second goal is to find out for whom the effects of diversity climate are stronger. We draw upon social dominance theory to suggest that social dominance orientation (SDO; Pratto et al., 1994), reflecting the individual tendency to support the dominance of arbitrarily set social groups over subordinate social groups (Pratto et al.,

1994), moderates the relationship between perceived diversity climate and perceived REWD.

Another understudied topic relates to the nature of the relationship between perceived REWD and employee prosocial voice behavior, which refers to the expression of work-related ideas, information, or opinions based on cooperative motives (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Morrison, 2023). Through prosocial voice behavior, employees provide organizational decision makers with the opportunity to identify work-related issues and implement appropriate interventions (Morrison, 2011; Pfrombeck et al., 2023). The third goal of this study is to examine the relationship between perceived REWD and prosocial voice behavior. While perceived discrimination may prompt employees to voice their concerns regarding how things can be proactively changed at work, we would expect employee SDO to serve as a critical boundary condition. Specifically, compared to low-SDO employees, high-SDO employees may be less likely to exhibit prosocial voice when perceiving workplace discrimination as they would see the arbitrary social hierarchy among social groups as being more legitimate (Sidanius & Pratto, 2012). By extension, this study will examine whether employee SDO moderates an indirect, negative relationship between perceived diversity climate and prosocial voice behavior through perceived REWD.

This study contributes to advance research in several ways. First, this study contributes to the limited research (for an exception, see Boehm et al., 2014) devoted to identifying the antecedents and boundary conditions related to perceived REWD. Heeding the call for more research on the effects of organizational context on workplace discrimination (Hebl et al., 2020), we empirically investigate the impact of psychological climate for diversity from a time-lagged perspective. Second, to further sharpen our understanding of the relationship between psychological climate for diversity and perceived REWD, this study examines the extent to which an employee's SDO moderates this relationship. As such, we explore the role of individual beliefs in explaining the strength of employees' reaction to climate for diversity and perceived discrimination. As people high in SDO would be less supportive of policies and practices that maintain the equality of treatment among social groups (Pratto et al., 2006), they should be less likely to interpret a lack of diversity climate

as engendering discrimination and to ultimately voice their concerns about work-related issues.

Third, we expand the literature on the consequences and boundary conditions related to perceived REWD. We specifically examined prosocial voice behavior as a supervisor-rated outcome, thereby addressing the need to examine the behavioral implications of workplace discrimination (Dhanani et al., 2018). Indeed, previous research has essentially examined job attitudes and employee health rather than job behaviors as outcomes of workplace discrimination (Newman et al., 2018; Xu & Chopik, 2020). Moreover, employee SDO was included as a boundary condition related to perceived REWD, which provides a nuanced perspective on how workplace discrimination predicts voice behavior. Fourth, this study contributes to the diversity literature. Scholars have mainly examined the impact of diversity climate perceptions on positive outcomes (e.g., Holmes et al., 2021) but have called for extending this research by exploring their effects on negative outcomes, particularly racial-ethnic discrimination (McKay & Avery, 2015). The present study aims at filling that research void. Finally, this study also contributes to the SDO literature. Diversity scholars have mainly used SDO to predict interpersonal behaviors (e.g., discriminatory behavior) that may occur in diverse groups (Lee, 2022; Umphress et al., 2008). This study adopts a novel perspective by exploring the role of SDO as a moderator of psychological climate for diversity and perceived REWD. In the next few sections, we present our hypotheses and research model (see Figure 1).

3.2 Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

Perceived Racial/Ethnic Workplace Discrimination

REWD refers to the unequal treatment of employees based on their race/ethnic group membership (Dhanani et al., 2018). Subjective measures of REWD assess the extent to which the target of an act perceives it to be discriminatory. Such perception is influenced by individual differences and situational factors (Avery et al., 2008; Yao et al., 2022). Objective measures (i.e., legal, behavioral) of discrimination assess the occurrence of specific discriminatory behaviors rather than an individual's perception of these behaviors (Gold-

man et al., 2006). This study focuses on perceived workplace discrimination because discrimination becomes central for predicting employee outcomes only when the employee is cognizant of the discriminatory behavior or event (Dhanani et al., 2018; Ragins & Cornwell, 2001).

Scholars have highlighted the importance of situational factors in predicting REWD. At a macro level, environments in which organizations operate can exert legal, social, economic, and cultural forces that influence REWD (Dipboye & Colella, 2013; Nkomo et al., 2019). For instance, employment discrimination laws that prohibit discrimination based on race, religion, sex, national origin, age, and disability (Paetzold, 2005) serve as a constraining force that limits the occurrence of discrimination (Dipboye & Colella, 2013). The power structure of a society may also influence the odds of racial/ethnic discrimination acts in workplaces. Among societies where a power differential does exist among diverse social groups, one way that the dominant groups legitimize their privileged positions is through perpetuating stereotypes with negative connotations against lower status racial/ethnic groups (Konrad, 2003; Operario & Fiske, 1998). These negative stereotypes that employees may hold can trigger workplace discrimination against members of lower status groups (Dipboye & Colella, 2013).

Factors related to the organization may also play a role in permitting vs. inhibiting REWD (Boehm et al., 2014; Dipboye & Colella, 2013; Triana et al., 2021). For instance, employees' workgroup composition may influence the extent to which they perceive REWD. Avery et al. (2008) reported ethnicity-based discrimination to be less prevalent among employees with racially similar supervisors. Likewise, Adams et al. (2020) found that employees who perceived their supervisors as being positive leaders (i.e., authentic, respectful, and inclusive leaders) experienced less workplace discrimination. Finally, a climate for diversity (Hebl et al., 2020) may also reduce the likelihood of REWD. As little research has been conducted on this issue, the present study will examine the relationship between climate for diversity and REWD and will further delve into this relationship by identifying employee SDO as a boundary condition.

Psychological Climate for Diversity and Perceived Racial/Ethnic Workplace Discrimination

As diversity refers to differences among team members on various attributes such as age, gender, race, or ethnicity (Harrison & Klein, 2007; van Knippenberg et al., 2004), researchers have conceptualized climate for diversity from different perspectives (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Holmes et al., 2021). First, the *fairness and discrimination* perspective, which is the most common approach to climate for diversity, focuses on ". . . equal employment opportunity practices, fair treatment and the absence of discrimination in the employment process, and the elimination of social exclusion" (Dwertmann et al., 2016, p. 1137). This perspective views diversity climate as a mechanism that ensures equal treatment of social groups. Second, the *synergy* perspective focuses on the idea that diversity climate brings performance benefits by integrating information from employees with diverse backgrounds.

This study adopts the fairness and discrimination perspective because it is concerned with potential ethnic/racial discrimination that may occur in diverse workgroups. As such, a psychological climate for diversity reflects an employee's perception of "the extent to which the organization and/or workgroup successfully promotes fairness and the elimination of discrimination through the fair implementation of personnel practices, the adoption of diversity-specific practices aimed at improving employment outcomes for underrepresented employees, and/or strong norms for fair interpersonal treatment" (Dwertmann et al., 2016, p. 1151). This view suggests that psychological climate for diversity is an individual level medium through which the work environment affects employee attitudes and behaviors (e.g., McKay et al., 2007; Newman et al., 2018). While diversity climate perceptions may be shared among team members to predict unit-level outcomes (e.g., Boehm et al., 2014; Holmes et al., 2021; McKay et al., 2009), we focus on psychological climate for diversity as it is more relevant to explain employee outcomes (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Holmes et al., 2021).

We contend that psychological climate for diversity negatively relates to perceived REWD. Organizations with positive climates for diversity integrate all employees into the

fabric of the organization, promote fairness for all employees, impede social stratification based on ethnic/race belonging, and support stratification based on fair criteria (e.g., competence-based promotions) (Cheung et al., 2016; Dipboye & Colella, 2013; Holmes et al., 2021; McKay & Avery, 2015). Therefore, employees who perceive a positive climate for diversity should be less likely to perceive discriminatory events to occur in their workplace due to expectations of fair treatment of all members whatever their social group (Darley & Gross, 1983; Higgins & Bargh, 1987). In contrast, organizations with negative diversity climates tend to perpetuate ethnic/racial prejudices (Brief & Barsky, 2000; Ziegert & Hanges, 2005). Therefore, employees who perceive a negative climate for diversity should expect more frequent REWD events.

Research on the relationship between psychological climate for diversity and perceived discrimination is scarce (Nelson & Probst, 2010). To our knowledge, only Boehm et al. (2014) have investigated the diversity climate-workplace discrimination relationship, albeit at the unit level. They have reported a negative association between unit-level diversity climate and workgroup discrimination. At the individual level, Hofhuis et al. (2012) have demonstrated that psychological climate for diversity is negatively related to perceptions of diversity-related conflicts, a construct akin to perceived discrimination. In another study, Bergman et al. (2012) found a negative association between employees' perception of organizational policies aimed at reducing racial/ethnic harassment and discrimination (i.e., a construct closely related to diversity climate) and perceptions of racial/ethnic harassment and discrimination. The above discussion leads to the following hypothesis.

> *Hypothesis 1:* Psychological climate for diversity is negatively related to perceived REWD.

Perceived Racial/Ethnic Workplace Discrimination and Prosocial Voice Behavior

Van Dyne et al. (2003) proposed three types of voice behavior associated with distinct underlying motives: acquiescent, defensive, and prosocial voice. Acquiescent voice refers to disengaged expression of ideas, information, and opinions, based on resignation and feeling of an inability to make a difference. Defensive voice is based on a self-protec-

tion motive and happens when employees want to protect themselves from feared and undesired consequences. Finally, prosocial voice, which is the behavioral outcome used in this study, is a constructive type of voice which is based on cooperative and altruistic feelings towards others. Through prosocial voice, employees point out the need for improvement in a program or policy to others with the perspective of gaining the organization's attention or resources to the issue raised (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). Voice behavior has been found to be related to stronger team innovation (Guzman & Espejo, 2019) and productivity (Li et al., 2017) and lower employee turnover intention (Lam et al., 2016).

We argue that prosocial voice is the type of voice behavior most likely to be elicited when employees perceive REWD. This is because prosocial voice is driven by positive feelings toward others while ethnic/racial discrimination manifests itself through unfair treatment of people from low-status groups. However, engaging in such voice behavior may incur costs because raising dysfunctions in how the workplace is managed may connote the failure of important stakeholders (Pfrombeck et al., 2023; Takeuchi et al., 2012). Scholars have suggested that employees undergo a cognitive process to assess whether enacting voice is potentially effective (i.e., the voice target will support the voice and the intended change will likely occur) and safe (i.e., engaging in voice will not bring negative consequences for the voicer) (Ellmer & Reichel, 2021; Morrison, 2011; Sherf et al, 2021). Nonetheless, we argue that the perception of REWD provides a strong incentive for employees to engage in prosocial voice, despite the cost associated with such behavior. Indeed, perceiving that the organization engages in discrimination violates prevailing moral or ethical-based belief systems (Goldman et al., 2008). Thus, employees who perceive that people are differentially treated depending on their belonging to minority ethnic/racial groups are likely to consider that the organization has not met its moral obligations. Therefore, they should be motivated to voice their concerns for improving how things operate in the workplace. We thus expect a positive association between perceived REWD and prosocial voice behavior.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived REWD is positively related to prosocial voice behavior.

The Mediating Role of Perceived Racial/Ethnic Workplace Discrimination

Taken together, Hypotheses 1 and 2 suggest that perceived REWD mediates a negative relationship between psychological climate for diversity and prosocial voice behavior. We predict partial mediation however, as psychological climate for diversity can also directly impact prosocial voice behavior or do it through other mediating mechanisms that are not addressed in this study. For example, although there is scarce research examining the relationship between diversity climate and prosocial voice, related research has reported diversity climate to be positively related to organizational citizenship behavior, a construct closely related to voice behavior (Holmes et al., 2021; McKay & Avery, 2015). As a mediator, reduced REWD would reflect the notion that a climate for diversity reduces the need for voicing one's opinions about work-related issues because it makes discrimination among social groups less likely to happen. Stated differently, the reduced unfair treatment of social groups would be the reason why diversity climate reduces prosocial voice. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed.

> *Hypothesis 3*: Perceived REWD will partially mediate a negative relationship between psychological climate for diversity and prosocial voice behavior.

The Moderating Role of Employee SDO

We expect that employee SDO plays a moderating role in the relationship between psychological climate for diversity and perceived REWD. SDO is a component of social dominance theory. Social dominance theory suggests that all societies form group-based hierarchical systems based on salient characteristics such as race, ethnicity, religion, or other social attributes (Sidanius & Pratto, 2012). Within this arbitrary-set hierarchy, the dominant group earns more social standing, including various advantages, while the subordinate group experiences a disproportionate burden of low social standing (e.g., substandard housing, underemployment, precarious work) (Doane, 1997; Sidanius & Pratto, 2012). Social dominance theory has explored why such stratifications persist over time. Alongside with ideological and institutional factors at the societal level, individuals contribute to the sustainability of arbitrary-set hierarchies, for instance by discriminating against members of inferior groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). The individuals' level of efforts to attenuate vs. enhance group-based hierarchies depends on their level of SDO.

SDO is an individual difference construct that indexes the preference for group-based hierarchies and inequality. It accounts for the acceptance (vs. rejection) of ideologies that promote (vs. attenuate) group domination and inequality (e.g., Pratto et al., 1994). High-SDO individuals prefer hierarchical relations between social groups and are more likely to support policies that perpetuate social hierarchies while low-SDO people prefer egalitarian relations and support equality-based policies (Pratto et al. 1994). We argue that the negative association between climate for diversity and perceived REWD will be stronger for low-SDO employees. By promoting equal treatment of all employees, a positive diversity climate signals commitment to egalitarian values and therefore should resonate more positively among low-SDO employees than among their high-SDO counterparts. That is, such diversity climate may be consistent with low-SDO employees' expectations (Fulmer & Gelfand, 2012). When diversity climate is perceived to be positive, low-SDO employees may see their expectations of fair treatment being fulfilled, which should more strongly reduce their perceptions of REWD. This may not be the case among high-SDO employees as these employees do not hold egalitarian beliefs. Thus, they may not judge the practices of fair treatment underlying diversity climate as confirming their expectations, hence should not perceive diversity to reduce discrimination. To summarize, we expect high SDO to buffer the relationship between psychological climate for diversity and perceived REWD. Similarly, the indirect (negative) relationship between climate for diversity and prosocial voice should be weaker at high levels of SDO. This leads to the following hypotheses.

> *Hypothesis 4:* Employee SDO moderates the relationship between psychological climate for diversity and perceived REWD such that this negative relationship is stronger (vs. weaker) when SDO is low (vs. high).

> *Hypothesis 5*: Employee SDO moderates the first stage of the indirect relationship between psychological climate for diversity and prosocial voice behavior through perceived REWD such that this indirect relationship is weaker among high-SDO employees.

We further argue that whether employees respond to workplace discrimination by engaging in prosocial voice behavior also depends on their level of SDO. Thus far, we posited that on average the motivation to react to perceived discrimination through prosocial voice, which is rooted in the idea that discrimination violates ethical norms (Goldman et al., 2008), outweighs the cost of engaging in such behavior. However, the very motivation of employees to share their ideas regarding the issue (Morrison, 2023; Shepherd et al., 2019) may vary across levels of SDO. Compared to individuals who endorse unequal treatment of social groups (i.e., high SDO), people who hold egalitarian values and believe societies should become more egalitarian should be more likely to consider REWD as a societal issue and be more motivated to initiate change to improve the situation. Low-SDO people are more supportive of institutions, policies, and practices that decrease inequality between social groups (Pratto et al., 2006). Such support is rooted in the hierarchy-attenuating legitimizing myths they believe in. Thus, when perceiving heightened levels of workplace discrimination, their motivation to engage in prosocial voice may increase as high discrimination would be inconsistent with their expectations. In contrast, as they tend to perpetuate unequal social hierarchies (Lee, 2022; Sidanius & Pratto, 2012), high-SDO employees should not be motivated to bring change in an environment that entertains discrimination against racial/ethnic groups. As perceived discrimination is not inconsistent with their expectations, high-SDO employees may not be motivated to engage in prosocial voice when perceiving discrimination. We thus expect employee SDO to weaken the relationship between perceived REWD and prosocial voice and the indirect relationship between climate for diversity and prosocial voice through perceived REWD.

> *Hypothesis 6*: Employee SDO will moderate the relationship between perceived REWD and prosocial voice behavior such that this relationship is weaker (less positive) when SDO is high.

> *Hypothesis 7*: Employee SDO moderates the second stage of the indirect relationship between psychological climate for diversity and prosocial voice behavior through perceived REWD such that this indirect relationship is weaker among high-SDO employees.

3.3 Method

Sample and Procedure

We collected data from employees affiliated with eight governmental organizations located in Canada, at two occasions with a time separation of seven months. Upon agreement of the organizations' HRM directors, employees were contacted by email to participate in a study on diversity and job attitudes. An introductory message informed them that participation was voluntary and that responses would remain confidential. At Time 1, employees completed demographic questions, and were surveyed about SDO and psychological climate for diversity. At Time 2, they reported their perception of REWD. Data on employee prosocial voice behavior were obtained at Time 1 and Time 2 from supervisors. Time 1 prosocial voice served as a baseline control when testing our hypotheses, which involved Time 2 voice behavior as the dependent variable.

Dropping those participants who failed the attention check item (Huang et al., 2015), we received 1075 usable responses at Time 1 and 1441 at Time 2. The difference in sample size between Time 1 and Time 2 is due to new employees being recruited in the organizations between the two survey times. Matched data across time were available for 826 employees. Average age was 49 years (*SD* = 11.18), average organizational tenure was 11 years (*SD* = 10.70), 39% were male, and 18% were people of color. Most of the participants worked full-time (97%) and had at least a bachelor's degree (67%). As 255 of the 1075 Time 1 participants did not complete the Time 2 survey, we conducted an attrition analysis through logistic regression to examine the distribution of attrition across time. We regressed a binary outcome (0 = stayed in the sample; 1 = dropped out) reflecting the likelihood of attrition at Time 2 on SDO (b = .01, *ns*), climate for diversity (b = .01, *ns*), and prosocial voice (b = -.03, *ns*) from Time 1. These non-significant results indicate no attrition bias across time.

Measures

The study was conducted in French. Responses were obtained on 7-point scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Social Dominance Orientation. SDO was measured using Sidanius et al.'s (1996) 16-item scale (e.g., "To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups;" α = .86).

Psychological Climate for Diversity. Psychological climate for diversity was measured using a 9-item scale from Mor Barak et al. (1998) (e.g., "The company spends money and time on diversity awareness and related training;" α = .80).

Perceived Racial/Ethnic Workplace Discrimination. We measured perceived racial/ethnic workplace discrimination using an 8-item scale developed by James et al. (1994) (e.g., "At work I feel socially isolated because of my racial/ethnic group;" α = .80).

Prosocial Voice Behavior. We measured prosocial voice behavior through supervisor ratings using a five-item measure developed by Van Dyne et al. (2003) (e.g., "This employee communicated his/her opinions about work issues even if others disagreed;" αs = .94 [Time 1] and .96 [Time 2]).

Control Variables. Following Spector and Brannick's (2011) recommendations to include control variables that may influence hypothesized relationships, we controlled for several relevant variables in testing hypotheses. First, we controlled for the baseline (i.e., Time 1) level of prosocial voice behavior so that our model variables predicted change in voice behavior from Time 1 to Time 2. Second, as previous research suggests that demographic characteristics (e.g., race/ethnicity and gender) may influence the perception of workplace discrimination (Avery et al., 2008), we controlled for gender, ethnicity, age, and organizational tenure.

3.4 Results

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

We first conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) in Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012) to examine the distinctiveness of our constructs. The theoretical model included SDO, climate for diversity, perceived REWD, and Time 1 and Time 2 prosocial voice behavior. This model did not fit the data well: χ^2 (850) = 4452.10, $p < .001$,

comparative fit index (CFI) = .88, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .87, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .05, standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .06. Following recommended practice (Hurley et al., 1997), we looked at modification indices to examine ways to improve model fit. These indices revealed that a correlation should be added between the error terms of two REWD items: item 5 ("Where I work, members of some racial/ethnic groups are less well treated than members of other groups") and item 6 ("In my organization, some people are less well treated because of their racial/ethnic group"). As these items display wording similarity, allowing their errors to freely correlate is justifiable (Marsh et al., 2010). Moreover, one REWD item[5] (i.e., item 7), two SDO items[6] (i.e., items 2 and 8), and two climate for diversity items[7] (i.e., items 7 and 9) had a factor loading below the conventional cut-off value of .40, hence were dropped.[8] The revised CFA model fitted the data well: χ^2 (655) = 3040.96, $p < .001$, CFI = .91, TLI = .91, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .06, and improved over more parsimonious models, such as (a) a model where climate for diversity and perceived REWD were combined, $\Delta\chi^2(4) = 1277.58$, $p < .001$; (b) a model combining Time 1 and Time 2 prosocial voice behavior, $\Delta\chi^2(4) = 3715{,}49$, $p < .001$; and (c) a one-factor model, $\Delta\chi^2(10) = 13306{,}48$, $p < .001$. These results suggest our study constructs were discriminant.

Measurement Invariance

As our study controlled for Time 1 prosocial voice, we needed to establish that its measurement was invariant across time (Millsap, 2011). To examine this issue, a sequential approach was adopted where increasingly stringent constraints were added to the CFA model (e.g., Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). The baseline was a configural model (i.e., equality of factor structure), and the next models were metric and scalar invariance models, reflecting a sequence of increasingly stringent equality constraints on factor loadings and

[5] Item 7 is "Where I work, information is easily shared among members of different racial and ethnic groups."
[6] Item 2 is "In getting what you want, it is sometimes necessary to use force against other groups;" Item 8 is "Sometimes other groups must be kept in their place."
[7] Item 7 is "There is a mentoring program here that identifies and prepares all minority and female employees for promotion." Item 9 is "The company spends money and time on diversity awareness and related training."
[8] Note that the correlations between these shortened scales and their full versions were very high (i.e., SDO: .98; perceived REWD: .97; psychological climate for diversity: .95), indicating that content validity was not affected by the items being dropped from the scales.

thresholds, respectively. This sequence of models was tested using robust maximum likelihood (MLR). Differences in model fit were evaluated using the Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square. A non-significant $\Delta\chi^2$ indicates that the more constrained model should be retained. In case of a significant $\Delta\chi^2$, modification indices help identify the source of non-invariance.

The configural invariance model (Model 1) fitted the data well (χ^2 (26) = 99.21, p < .001, CFI = .99, TLI = .98, RMSEA = .04). The metric invariance model (Model 2a) exhibited a worse fit than Model 1 ($\Delta\chi^2$ (4) = 12.09, p < .05). However, a model specifying non-invariance of the factor loading for item 5 (i.e., "This employee spoke up with ideas for new projects that might benefit the organization") (Model 2b) was not significantly worse than Model 1 ($\Delta\chi^2$ (3) = 7.23, *ns*). Based on Model 2b, we derived a full scalar model (Model 3a). This model was found to be significantly worse than Model 2b ($\Delta\chi^2$ (4) = 28.04, p < .001). However, a model with partial scalar invariance where the intercepts of item 3 ("This employee communicated his/her opinions about work issues even if others disagreed") and item 5 ("this employee spoke up with ideas for new projects that might benefit the organization") were freely estimated across time (i.e., Model 3b) did not significantly differ from Model 2b ($\Delta\chi^2$ (2) = 5.64, *ns*). The specifications associated with Model 3b were thus incorporated in the analyses testing our hypotheses.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliability coefficients are reported in Table 1. Interestingly, climate for diversity was negatively related to perceived REWD (r = -.46, p < .01) and positively related to Time 2 prosocial voice behavior (r = .17, p < .01). Perceived REWD was negatively related to Time 2 prosocial voice behavior (r = -.10, p < .01).

Hypothesis Testing

We used structural equation modeling (SEM) and full information maximum likelihood (i.e., FIML) estimation to test our hypotheses through Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012). The interaction term was created in Mplus using the XWITH command. This command employs the latent moderated structural equations (LMS) approach, which offers unbiased, efficient estimates of interaction effects, and is robust against departures

from normality (Maslowsky et al., 2015; Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017). As LMS does not assume multivariate normality, conventional fit indices (e.g., RMSEA, CFI, TLI) are not provided. Thus, we followed the recommended two-step approach (Dimitruk et al., 2007) to evaluate the fit of the LMS model. First, we assessed the fit of a baseline model where the interaction was constrained to zero. We then compared this model to a model including the latent interaction. To compare the two models, we used a log-likelihood difference test (D-2LL) and the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and Bayesian information criterion (BIC) indices. A significant D-2LL value indicates that the moderated model represents a significant improvement over the baseline model, while smaller values for the AIC and BIC suggest no substantive loss of information relative to the baseline model (Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017). We used 95% confidence intervals (CIs) from 1000 bootstrap samples in Mplus and the ML estimator for testing the significance of the mediation effect predicted in Hypothesis 3.

Hypotheses 1-3. Hypothesis 1 predicted that climate for diversity would be negatively associated with perceived REWD and Hypothesis 2 stated that the latter would be positively related to Time 2 voice behavior. Hypothesis 3 suggested that perceived REWD would mediate the relationship between climate for diversity and voice behavior. As shown in Table 2, the baseline model (M1) displays a negatively significant relationship between psychological climate for diversity and perceived REWD (β = -.56, *SE* = .050, $p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 1. However, as can be seen from Table 3 (baseline model, M1), perceived REWD was unrelated to Time 2 prosocial voice (β = .01, *SE* = .039, *ns*), controlling for Time 1 prosocial voice (β = .50, *SE* = .032, $p < .01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is not supported. Similarly, using bootstrapping and its associated bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for indirect effects within the mediation model (χ^2 (330) = 863.696, $p < .001$, CFI = .98, TLI = .96, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .05), we found the indirect relationship between climate for diversity and prosocial voice behavior through perceived REWD to be non-significant (-.004, 95% CI [-.045, .036]). Hypothesis 3 is rejected.

Hypotheses 4-5. Hypothesis 4 stated that the relationship between climate for diversity and perceived REWD would be weaker at high levels of employee SDO, which would also re-

sult in a weaker indirect relationship between climate for diversity and prosocial voice behavior (Hypothesis 5). We first estimated a baseline model including the main effect of SDO and climate for diversity on Time 2 perceived REWD (Table 2, M1). This model yielded a good fit (χ^2 (451) = 1367.291, p < .001, CFI = .91, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .06). However, the moderated model outperformed the baseline model (D-2LL(1) = 32.648, p < .01). Moreover, this model displayed smaller values for the AIC (73829.222 vs. 73858.871) and BIC (74301.701 vs. 74321.429). Thus, the moderated model was retained. As shown in Table 2 (M2), the interaction between climate for diversity and SDO was significant (β = .31, *SE* = .057, p < .01). The interaction is graphed in Figure 2. Climate for diversity was negatively related to perceived REWD when SDO was low (1 *SD* below the mean) (β = -.88, *SE* = .080, p < .01) or high (1 *SD* above the mean) (β = -.26, *SE* = .074, p < .01). However, the difference between these two relationships was significant (β = .62, *SE* = .114, p < .01). Hypothesis 4 is thus supported.

Hypothesis 5 was tested following Sardeshmukh and Vandenberg's (2017) recommendations. We first specified a baseline model including (a) the main effects of climate for diversity and SDO on Time 2 perceived REWD and Time 2 prosocial voice behavior, controlling for Time 1 prosocial voice behavior, and (b) the effect of Time 2 perceived REWD on Time 2 prosocial voice behavior. The baseline model provided a good fit (χ^2 (795) = 1443.172, p < .001, CFI = .93, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .06). We then compared this model (Table 2, M3) to a moderated mediation model (Table 2, M4) where SDO moderated the first stage of the indirect relationship between climate for diversity and Time 2 prosocial voice behavior through Time 2 perceived discrimination. The latter model outperformed the baseline model (D-2LL(1) = 6.984, p < .01) and displayed smaller values for the AIC (48435.722 vs. 48440.705) and BIC (49019.285 vs. 49020.008). Thus, this model was used to examine the conditional indirect effects of interest. Using bootstrapping, the indirect relationship between climate for diversity and Time 2 prosocial voice behavior was nonsignificant when SDO was high (1 *SD* above the mean) (β = -.01, *SE* = .009, 95% CI [-.022, .012]) and low (1 *SD* below the mean) (β = -.03, *SE* = .041, 95% CI [-.111, .050]). The difference between these two relationships was non-significant (β = .03, *SE* = .036, 95% CI [-.044, .095]). Hypothesis 5 is not supported.

Hypotheses 6-7. Hypothesis 6 predicted that the relationship between perceived REWD and prosocial voice behavior would be weaker at high levels of employee SDO, which would also be associated with a weaker indirect relationship between climate for diversity and prosocial voice behavior (Hypothesis 7). We first estimated a baseline model (Table 3, M1) including the main effects of Time 1 prosocial voice behavior, SDO, climate for diversity, and perceived REWD on Time 2 prosocial voice behavior. This model yielded a good fit (χ^2 (798) = 2168.790, $p < .001$, CFI = .93, TLI = .92, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .05). However, the moderated model outperformed the baseline model (D-2LL(1) = 11.80, $p < .01$). Moreover, this model displayed smaller values for the AIC (95775.019 vs. 95784.819) and BIC (96438.941 vs. 96443.786). Thus, the moderated model was retained. As shown in Table 3 (M2), the interaction between perceived REWD and SDO predicting Time 2 prosocial voice behavior was significant ($\beta = -.14$, $SE = .041$, $p < .01$). The interaction is graphed in Figure 3. Perceived REWD was negatively related to prosocial voice behavior ($\beta = -.18$, $SE = .055$, $p < .05$) when SDO was high (1 *SD* above the mean) but positively related to it ($\beta = .16$, $SE = .060$, $p < .01$) when SDO was low (1 *SD* below the mean). Moreover, the difference between these two relationships was significant ($\beta = -.29$, $SE = .082$, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 6 is thus supported.

Finally, we compared the baseline model already used for testing Hypothesis 5 to the moderated mediation model (Table 3, M4) where SDO moderated the second stage of the indirect relationship between climate for diversity and Time 2 prosocial voice behavior through perceived REWD. The latter model improved over the baseline model (D-2LL(1) = 16.980, $p < .01$) and displayed smaller values for the AIC (48425.767 vs. 48440.705) and BIC (49009.329 vs. 49020.008). Using bootstrapping, the indirect relationship between climate for diversity and Time 2 prosocial voice behavior through perceived REWD was positively significant ($\beta = .17$, $SE = .061$, 95% CI [.052, .289]) when SDO was high (1 *SD* above the mean) but negatively significant ($\beta = -.24$, $SE = .069$, 95% CI [-.371, -.101]) when SDO was low (1 *SD* below the mean). The difference between these two relationships was also significant ($\beta = .41$, $SE = .119$, 95% CI [.174, .639]). Although the pattern of these findings is not entirely consistent with Hypothesis 7, it suggests that climate for diversity

indirectly fosters voice behavior among high-SDO employees while it reduces it among low-SDO people. We further elaborate on these findings in the discussion[9].

3.5 Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine a model linking psychological climate for diversity to prosocial voice behavior through perceived REWD. Psychological climate for diversity negatively related to the perception of REWD. However, controlling for the baseline level of prosocial voice, perceived REWD did not relate to Time 2 prosocial voice behavior. Of utmost importance, employee SDO acted as an important moderator. First, the negative relationship between climate for diversity and perceived REWD was stronger among low-SDO individuals. Second, perceived REWD related to *stronger* prosocial voice behavior among low-SDO individuals but to *weaker* prosocial voice behavior among high-SDO individuals. Third, the indirect effect of climate for diversity on prosocial voice was contingent on the level of employee SDO: a climate for diversity indirectly related to more prosocial voice among high-SDO employees but to less prosocial voice among low-SDO employees. These findings indicate that the individual's inclination to support arbitrary hierarchies among social groups (Pratto et al., 1994) is a central boundary condition for the effects of climate for diversity in workplaces. The implications of the present findings are outlined below.

Theoretical Implications and Future Directions

First, this study contributes to research on the antecedents and consequences of REWD, a concept that has surprisingly received little attention in the diversity literature (Smith et al., 2010). Among the studies on REWD, the majority has focused on the outcomes of discrimination (Dhanani et al., 2018; Jones et al., 2016; Triana et al., 2015;

[9] For exploratory purposes, we also tested our hypotheses separately for White and non-White participants. The results were roughly similar across groups. There was a significant association between diversity climate and perceived REWD in both groups (White: β = -.50, *SE* = .50, $p < .01$; non-White: β = -.74, *SE* = .13, $p < .01$). SDO moderated the first stage of the mediation in the White group (β = .36, *SE* = .07, $p < .01$) and marginally in the non-White group (β = .18, *SE* = .11, $p = .15$). SDO moderated the second stage of the mediation in both groups (White: β = -.10, *SE* = .05, $p < .05$; non-White: β = -.29, *SE* = .10, $p < .01$).

Walker et al., 2022). One exception is the study by Avery et al. (2008) which revealed that individuals' demographic background may influence the perception of discrimination. For example, perceived race-based discrimination at work was more prevalent among Black and Hispanic than among White employees, and less prevalent among employees with same race/ethnicity supervisors. Controlling for employees' race/ethnicity, the present study shows that psychological climate for diversity is a contextual factor that relates to a reduced perception of REWD.

The finding of a negative relationship between psychological climate for diversity and perceived REWD also contributes to a growing diversity climate literature (e.g., Newman et al., 2018; Ward et al., 2022) that underscores the benefits for organizations of introducing strategies aimed at fostering diversity. Diversity scholars have mainly used Cox's (1993) Interactional Model for Cultural Diversity (IMCD) as a theoretical foundation for understanding how diversity climate relates to employees' outcomes. They have consistently found that perceptions of diversity climate are positively related to employees' outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and to lower turnover (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Holmes et al., 2021). More recently, scholars have begun to explore the mediators that explain the mechanisms linking diversity climate to job attitudes and behaviors. For instance, Newman et al. (2018) introduced psychological capital as a mediator between psychological climate for diversity and affective commitment. Ward et al. (2022) showed that trust partially mediated the relationship between diversity climate perceptions and turnover intention. Given the well-known contribution of perceived REWD to job attitudes and behaviors (Dhanani et al., 2018; Jones et al., 2016), our finding of a significant relationship between climate for diversity and perceived REWD suggests that perceived discrimination could be a new mediating mechanism worth exploring.

We also extend research on the outcomes of workplace discrimination by identifying prosocial voice behavior as a potentially novel outcome. The negative effects of discrimination on job attitudes and employee health have been established in the literature (Dhanani et al., 2018; Jones et al., 2016). However, we know relatively little about how discrimination affects job behaviors (Dhanani et al., 2018), particularly prosocial voice behavior. Our study responds to calls to investigate the behavioral outcomes of perceived

workplace discrimination (Dhanani et al., 2018). However, like Dhanani et al. (2018) who found no relationship between workplace discrimination and prosocial behaviors (i.e., organizational citizenship behavior), this study found no main effect of perceived REWD on prosocial voice behavior. Nonetheless, the present study provides a glimpse into the boundary conditions of perceived REWD. Specifically, the strength and direction of the relationship between perceived REWD and prosocial voice behavior were found to be influenced by the level of employee SDO. The relationship was positive when SDO was low but it was negative when SDO was high. Moreover, the pattern of the moderating effect of SDO extended to the indirect relationship between climate for diversity and employee prosocial voice behavior through perceived REWD. Climate for diversity resulted in more voice behavior among high-SDO people but to lower voice behavior among low-SDO people.

This may suggest that the *reason for* voice behavior differs across levels of SDO. Low-SDO employees may voice about inequality-related issues. Many problems in racial/ethnic diverse groups including workplace discrimination have their roots in inequality of treatment among racial/ethnic groups (Konrad, 2003) and this, as discussed before, particularly motivates low-SDO employees (vs. high-SDO employees) to react through prosocial voice behavior. Consequently, when due to a positive diversity climate low-SDO employees perceive less discrimination, they also perceive fewer inequality-related social problems to deal with. Thus, as diversity climate improves, the reduced perception of workplace discrimination decreases low-SDO employees' willingness to engage in prosocial voice behavior. In contrast, at higher levels of SDO, the motivation of promoting equality may play less of a role and factors such as the perceived risk associated with engaging in voice behavior may become more salient, thereby discouraging high-SDO to engage in prosocial voice. Alternatively, more perceived discrimination would remain consistent with high-SDO people's belief in inequality among social groups. Thus, more perceived discrimination may reduce the motivation to engage in voice behavior among high-SDO employees. By extension, as a stronger climate for diversity results in lower perceptions of workplace discrimination, such process ultimately leads high-SDO employees to engage in *more* prosocial voice behavior. This could be explained by the fact that a diversity climate and low perceived discrimination are at odds with these employees' expectations of unequal distribution of power across social groups. They may thus speak out to voice their

fear of living in a workplace where power differentials across social groups are undermined. Future research may want to further explore the reasons that drive the willingness to engage in voice behavior in the context of diversity climate and workplace discrimination.

Finally, as discussed above, by unveiling the moderating role of SDO, we also contribute to the literature on SDO. Based on social dominance theory, previous studies have mainly examined the interplay between SDO and social context in predicting intergroup attitudes and behaviors (Duckitt & Sibley, 2010; Umphress et al., 2008). This study extends that research by indicating that the interplay between SDO and social context can also influence individual-level outcomes such as the perception REWD and prosocial voice behavior.

Practical Implications

The above findings have implications for organizations that employ staff members with diverse racial/ethnic backgrounds. For organizations, perceptions of REWD continue to be both practically relevant and serious as they often lead to costly lawsuits, ruined public reputation, and severe drops in morale (James & Wooten, 2006). By revealing the strong effects of climate for diversity on perceptions of REWD, this study highlights the need for organizations to develop organizational policies that fully integrate employees from diverse racial/ethnic groups into the workplace to reduce perceptions of REWD. Previous research has outlined several steps organizations can take to foster pro-diversity work climates. These include forbidding all types of discrimination, training managers and employees to appreciate diversity, and applying transparent HR policies, practices, and procedures regarding recruitment, career development, pay, or dismissal (Kravitz, 2008; McKay & Avery, 2005). As research suggests that transformational leadership promotes inclusive climates (Kearney & Gebert, 2009), organizations with diverse teams may be well advised to appoint leaders with a transformational leadership style or to train them to develop transformational skills, so that the work group benefits from diversity. Alongside with promoting a strong diversity climate, organizations should monitor perceptions of employees regarding diversity to ensure that they interpret the workplace as a pro-diversity place. This

can be achieved through assessment tools such as employee opinion surveys, exit interviews, and analyses of patterns of employees' grievances (Ensher et al., 2001).

Second, our finding that engagement in prosocial voice behavior is contingent on employees' level of SDO highlights the need for organizations to understand that employees may respond differently to perceptions of workplace discrimination. It also underlines the importance of employees' internal motivation for engaging in prosocial voice. Organizations should take each employee's voice seriously and consider that the concerns of voicers may also be common concerns among other employees who have decided not to speak up. By paying attention to each employee's voice and using them as a source of continuous improvement, organizations would prevent employees from taking other steps such as filing complaints against organizations.

Limitations

Although this study has various strengths as it relied on a large, multi-organization sample, involved multiple sources of data, and adopted a multi-wave design, several limitations should be acknowledged. First, common method bias is a potential concern. We worked at minimizing this bias by following design remedies suggested by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003). For example, we gathered data from multiple sources (subordinates and supervisors) and used a time-lagged design. Moreover, we controlled for the autoregressive effect of prosocial voice behavior (which was rated by supervisors) when testing our hypotheses, thereby providing a more rigorous test of the predicted effects (Gabriel et al., 2019). Nonetheless, while self-reports remain appropriate given our focus on perceptions of diversity climate and discrimination (Conway & Lance, 2010), these constructs were self-reported. Second, data on the mediator and dependent variable were collected simultaneously, suggesting that reverse causality remains possible, although our model was consistent with theory. Note however that as the baseline level of prosocial voice was controlled for, what is predicted from perceived REWD is change in prosocial voice behavior from Time 1 to Time 2. Nevertheless, further research may want to use fully cross-lagged designs to clarify the temporal relationships among the constructs. Finally, it would be interesting to extend our model to address the effects of climate for

diversity at the team level and examine whether the average level of members' SDO moderates the effects of diversity climate on team outcomes.

3.6 Conclusion

This study sheds new light on the relationships among climate for diversity, perceived REWD, and prosocial voice. A major finding is that employee SDO is a key boundary condition. High-SDO employees are more likely to speak up when a positive diversity climate comes to decrease the perception of REWD while the reverse happens among low-SDO employees. We hope that this study's findings provide a useful basis on which future studies can build to further explore the effects of workplace discrimination and the benefits of climate for diversity.

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Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study Variables*

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender	1.50	0.51	-								
2. Ethnicity	0.04	0.19	-.01	-							
3. Age	46.75	12.32	.00	.01	-						
4. Organizational tenure	10.95	10.70	-.07**	-.04**	.47**	-					
5. Employee SDO (T1)	1.84	1.40	-.08*	-.04^{+}	-.05	.03	(.86)				
6. Perceived racial/ethnic discrimination (T2)	1.49	1.24	-.08**	.18**	.08**	.03	.11**	(.80)			
7. Prosocial voice behavior (T1)	5.26	1.68	-.02	-.04**	.03	.03	.01	-.11**	(.94)		
8. Prosocial voice behavior (T2)	5.49	1.52	.07*	.00	-.04	-.01	-.06	-.10**	.54**	(.96)	
9. Psychological climate for diversity (T1)	5.41	1.69	.06^{+}	-.04*	-.10**	-.15**	-.12**	-.46**	.18**	.17**	(.80)

Note. N = 826. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; SDO = social dominance orientation; Gender: 1 = male, 2 = female; Ethnicity: 0 = White, 1 = non-White. Alpha reliabilities are listed within parentheses along the diagonal.
$+p < .10$; $*p < .05$; $**p < .01$.

Table 2. *Structural Equations Model Analyses for First Stage Moderation and Moderated Mediation Models: Structural Parameter Estimates*

	First stage moderation				First stage moderated mediation				
	Baseline model (M1)		Moderated Model (M2)		Baseline model (M3)		Moderated mediation model (M4)		
Variable	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	95% CI
Gender → PRED	-.17*	.077	-.20**	.079	-.12	.109	-.13	.110	[-.347, .083]
Ethnicity → PRED	.52**	.068	.54**	.069	.04**	.075	.37**	.076	[.222, .520]
Age → PRED	.01*	.004	.01*	.004	.01*	.006	.01*	.006	[.000, .023]
Tenure → PRED	-.01*	.005	-.01*	.005	-.01	.008	-.01	.008	[-.025, .005]
SDO (T1) → PRED	-.02	.044	-.07	.045	-.02	.119	-.03	.121	[.267, .208]
PCD (T1) → PRED	-.56**	.050	-.57**	.052	-.51**	.068	-.50**	.069	[-.634, -.365]
PCD (T1) × SDO → PRED			.31**	.057			.36**	.141	[.084, .637]
Age → PVB (T2)					-.01*	.005	-.01*	.005	[-.020, -.002]
PVB (T1) → PVB (T2)					.51**	.047	.52**	.047	[.425, .608]
PRED (T2) → PVB (T2)					.04	.048	.04	.047	[-.058, .128]
PCD (T1) → PVB (T2)					.09	.058	.09	.058	[-.021, .208]
SDO (T1) → PVB (T2)					-.23*	.104	-.23*	.107	[-.441, -.022]
First stage moderation:									
High SDO (+ 1 SD)			-.26**	.074			-.14	.156	[-.445, .167]
Mean (0)			-.57**	.051			-.50**	.069	[-.634, .365]
Low SDO (- 1 SD)			-.88**	.080			-.86**	.158	[-1.169, -.551]
Difference (± 1 SD)			.62**	.114			.72**	.282	[.169, 1.274]
Indirect effect:									
High SDO (+ 1 SD)							-.01	.009	[-.022, .012]
Mean (0)							-.02	.029	[-.064, .029]
Low SDO (- 1 SD)							-.03	.041	[-.111, .050]
Difference (± 1 SD)							.03	.036	[-.044, .095]

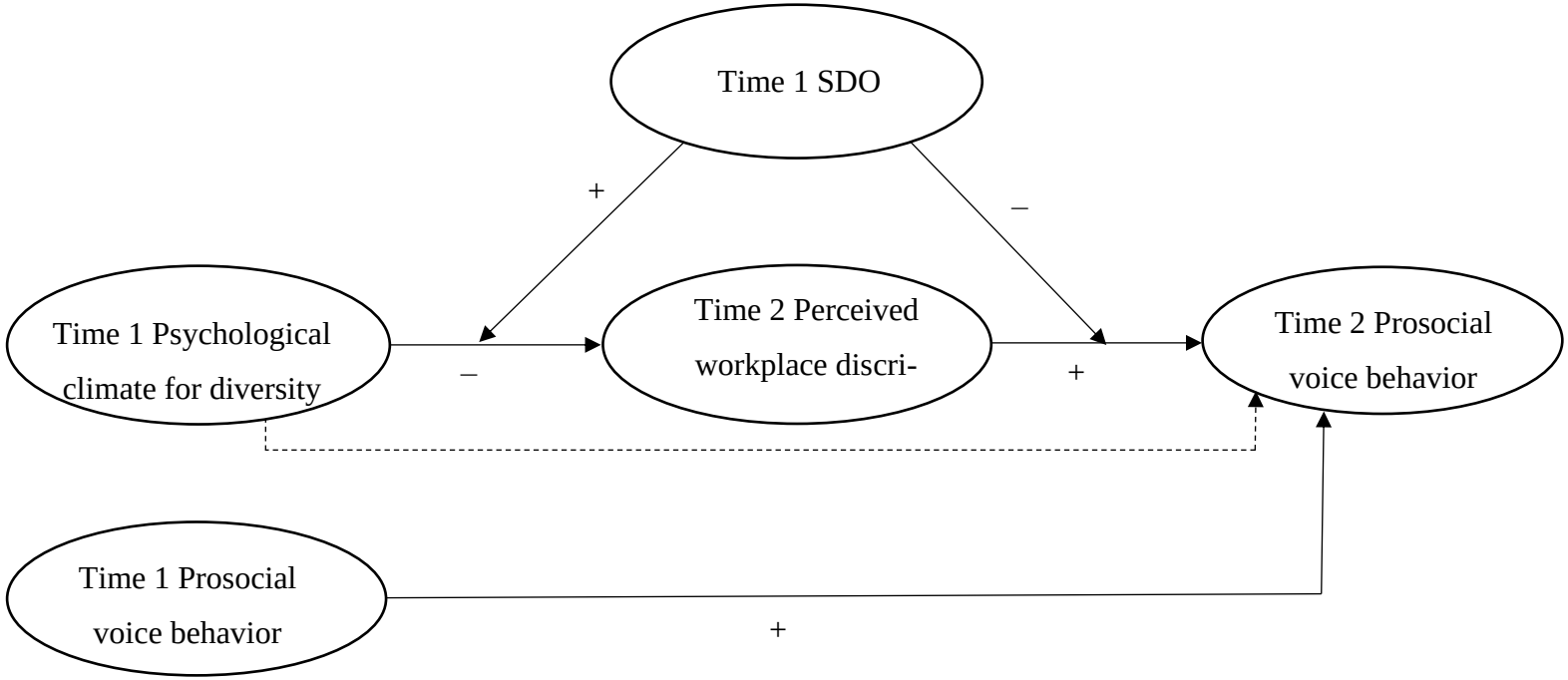
Note. M = model; T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; PCD = psychological climate for diversity; PRED = perceived racial/ethnic discrimination; PVB = prosocial voice behavior; SDO = social dominance orientation; CI = confidence interval; Gender: 1 = male, 2 = female; Ethnicity: 0 = White, 1 = non-White. Among the controls (i.e., gender, ethnicity, age, and tenure) only those effects that are significant are reported.
+$p < .10$; *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$.

Table 3. *Structural Equations Model Analyses for Second Stage Moderation and Moderated Mediation Models: Structural Parameter Estimates*

	Second stage moderation				Second stage moderated mediation				
	Baseline model (M1)		Moderated Model (M2)		Baseline model (M3)		Moderated mediation model (M4)		
Variable	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	95% CI
Ethnicity → PRED					.04**	.075	.35**	.075	[.200, .496]
Age → PRED					.01*	.006	.01*	.006	[.000, .022]
SDO (T1) → PRED					-.02	.119	.01	.116	[-.223, .230]
PCD (T1) → PRED					-.51**	.068	-.50**	.068	[-.636, -.372]
Age → PVB (T2)	-.01**	.003	-.01**	.003	-.01*	.005	-.01**	.004	[-.021, -.004]
PVB (T1) → PVB (T2)	.50**	.032	.50**	.032	.51**	.047	.51**	.046	[.418, .596]
PRED (T2) → PVB (T2)	.01	.039	.02	.041	.04	.048	.07	.051	[-.035, .165]
PCD (T1) → PVB (T2)	.07	.058	.07+	.041	.09	.058	.14*	.059	[.027, .257]
SDO (T1) → PVB (T2)	-.05	.036	-.05	.036	-.23*	.104	-.11	.173	[-.452, .227]
PRED × SDO → PVB (T2)			-.14**	.041			-.40**	.109	[-.616, -.190]
Second stage moderation:									
High SDO (+ 1 SD)			-.13*	.055			-.34**	.114	[-.562, -.114]
Mean (0)			.02	.041			.07	.051	[-.035, .165]
Low SDO (- 1 SD)			.16**	.060			.47**	.126	[.222, .714]
Difference (± 1 SD)			-.29**	.082			-.81**	.217	[-1.231, -.381]
Indirect effect:									
High SDO (+ 1 SD)							.17**	.061	[.052, .289]
Mean (0)							-.03	.026	[-.084, .018]
Low SDO (- 1 SD)							-.24**	.069	[-.371, -.101]
Difference (± 1 SD)							.41**	.119	[.174, .639]

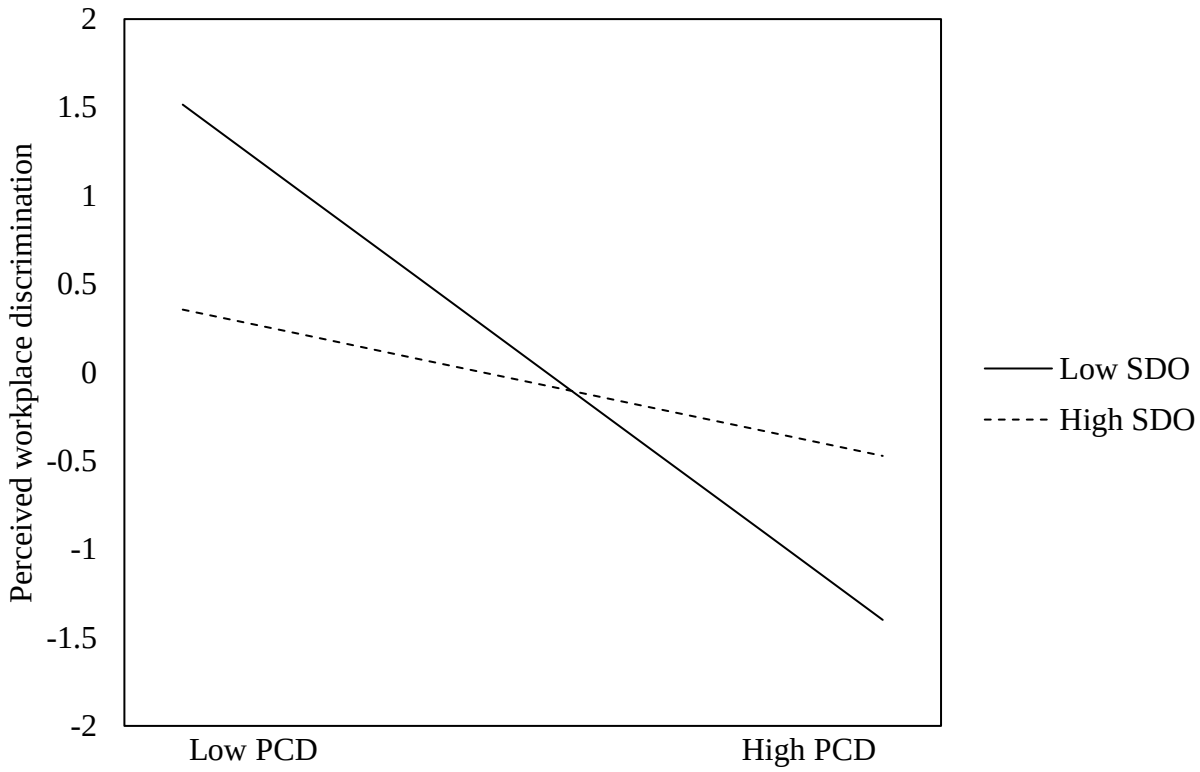
Note. M = model; T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; PCD = psychological climate for diversity; PRED = perceived racial/ethnic discrimination; PVB = prosocial voice behavior; SDO = social dominance orientation; CI = confidence interval; Gender: 1 = male, 2 = female; Ethnicity: 0 = White, 1 = non-White. Among the controls (i.e., gender, ethnicity, age, and tenure) only those effects that are significant are reported.
+$p < .10$; *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$

Figure 1. *Hypothesized Moderated Mediation Model*



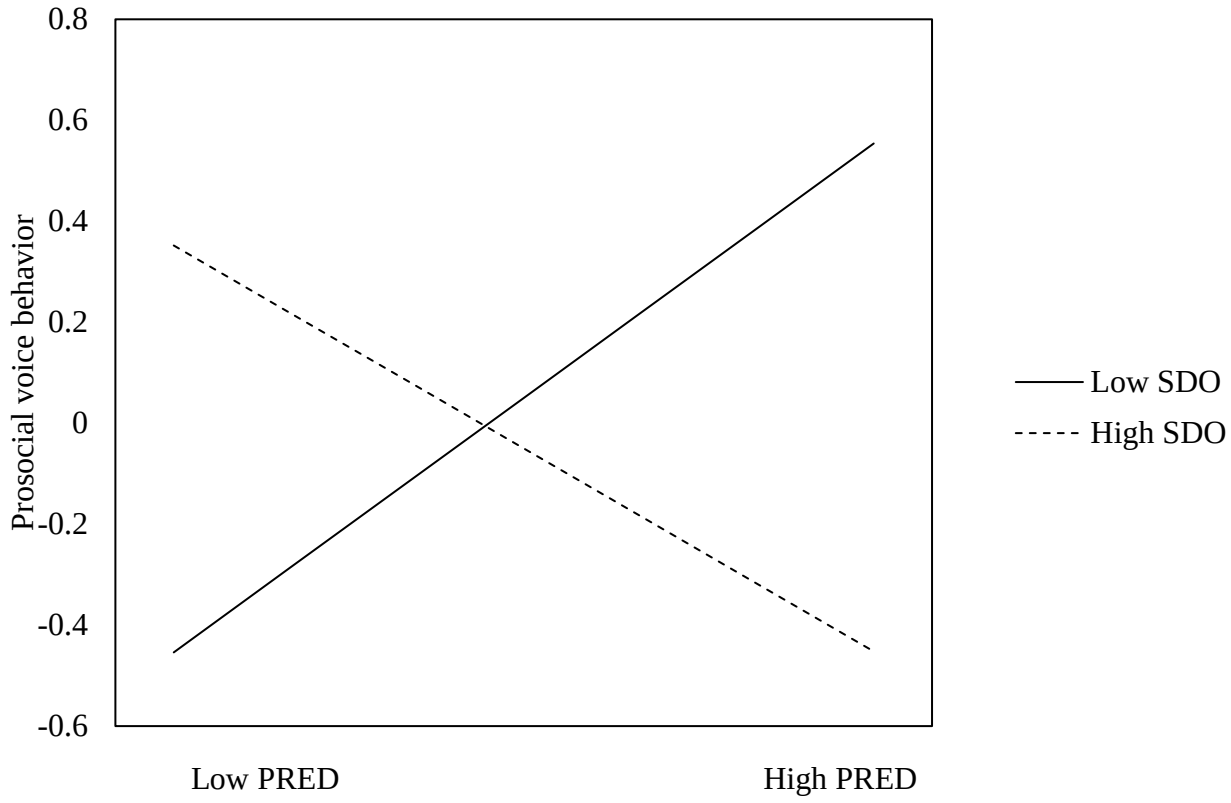
Note. SDO = social dominance orientation. For the sake of clarity, control variables (employee gender, ethnicity, age, and tenure) are omitted.

Figure 2. *Interaction Between Psychological Climate for Diversity (PCD) and Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) Predicting Perceived Racial/Ethnic Workplace Discrimination*



Note. Relationships are shown at one 1 *SD* below and above the mean of SDO.

Figure 3. *Interaction Between Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) and Perceived Racial/Ethnic Workplace Discrimination (PRED) Predicting Prosocial Voice Behavior*



Note. Relationships are shown at one 1 *SD* below and above the mean of SDO.

Conclusion

In the current era of increasing diversity in the labor force across North America and other industrialized countries, characterized by variations in race/ethnicity, nationality, gender, age, and other dimensions (Hajro, Žilinskaitė, & Baldassari, 2022; Roberson, 2013), this dissertation represented an effort to enhance our understanding of the implications of SDO for employees, coworker interactions, and group outcomes. Specifically, this work aimed to provide insights into key research questions that address the following: (1) How does SDO impact self-verification processes and outcomes among coworkers belonging to different social status groups? (2) What is the influence of supervisors' SDO on diverse workgroup outcomes? (3) How does the interplay between employees' SDO and workplace context influence employees' outcomes?

Regarding the first question, our first article sheds light on the role of SDO in shaping the self-verification process within diverse dyads of coworkers. Using the framework of social dominance theory (Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006; Sidanius & Pratto, 2001), we proposed that SDO plays a crucial role in determining the dominant, subordinate, or egalitarian social identities held by members of these dyads. To investigate the interaction and verification of dominant, subordinate, or egalitarian identities within coworker dyads, we introduced a typology of unequal peer dyads based on members' SDO levels. Specifically, we identified four types of dyads: stormy dyads, conforming dyads, egalitarian dyads, and compassionate dyads. By categorizing dyads based on SDO levels, we gain insight into the varying dynamics and outcomes of self-verification processes within coworker relationships. These findings highlighted the importance of considering SDO and its impact on compatibility or incompatibility of coworkers' self-verification efforts, ultimately influencing the level of support or antagonism within coworker dyads.

While scholars have mainly highlighted the positive consequences of self-verification at work (Polzer, Milton, and Swann, 2002; Swann et al., 2004), our theorizing in the first article pointed out the potentially negative social outcomes (e.g., sustained unequal

relations between members of dominant and subordinate groups) associated with the successful verification of the subordinate social identity of high SDO members of subordinate groups in conforming dyads. Accordingly, the first article suggests that the positive or negative consequences of self-verification depend on the nature of the social identity (i.e., dominance vs. subordination vs. egalitarian) that one verifies. Our analysis in the first essay also offers a potential explanation for the inconsistent findings that exist in the diversity literature (Guillaume et al., 2017; Harrison & Klein, 2007). We proposed that the inconsistent findings in the diversity literature could be attributed to the complex interplay between individuals' SDO, their social identities, and the compatibility or incompatibility of self-verification efforts. The presence of different SDO profiles within diverse workgroups may lead to varied outcomes, as individuals with different dominance orientations may approach self-verification and interpersonal dynamics differently.

In sum, the first article introduced self-verification as a mechanism underlying the relationship between SDO and coworker outcomes in unequal coworker dyads. We explained how verification of dominant/subordinate /egalitarian social identities in unequal peer dyads can be challenging and may lead to negative outcomes. In practice, this conceptual essay suggests that training managers through specific programs can be instrumental in promoting an inclusive climate that allows all employees to verify their egalitarian identities. In particular, our model highlights the importance of training managers on SDO. By providing managers with training on SDO, organizations can equip them with the knowledge and skills to reduce antagonistic behaviors exhibited by individuals high in SDO. Managers can play a crucial role in creating a work environment that values diversity (Boehm et al., 2014; Umphress et al., 2008) and prohibits discrimination (Cortina, 2008). This can be achieved through positive diversity climate and implementing appropriate diversity training (Chan-Serafin et al., 2022; Triana et al., 2021). Furthermore, organizational practices that discourage intergroup competition can act as a buffer against the negative outcomes associated with stormy and conforming dyads. High SDO individuals from dominant social groups may engage in discriminatory behavior when they perceive a threat to their group (Pratto & Shih, 2000). Therefore, reducing intergroup threat through measures such as fostering cooperation, promoting a sense of shared goals, and emphasizing the value of teamwork can help discourage discrimination and negative behaviors.

In the second article of our dissertation (Chapter 2), we examined the role of supervisors' SDO in diverse workgroups. To investigate this, we conducted an analysis using two-wave longitudinal data collected from team members and leaders in 108 teams across eight governmental organizations in Canada. Our findings from the second essay revealed the significant impact of supervisors' SDO on shaping the basis of leader-member exchange (LMX) differentiation. Notably, our research introduced the concept of nation-based LMX differentiation, which served as a novel variable in our study. We established that supervisors' SDO significantly contributed to the emergence of nation-based LMX differentiation. Consequently, nation-based LMX differentiation led to heightened levels of relationship conflict within the team, ultimately resulted in decreased collective team commitment. Additionally, our results from the second article highlighted that the effects of nation-based LMX differentiation on team commitment were mediated through relationship conflict. These findings provide valuable insights into the mechanisms through which supervisor SDO influences team dynamics and outcomes in diverse workgroups. By shedding light on the often-overlooked role of supervisors in diversity studies (Bauer & Erdogan, 2015; DiTomaso & Hooijberg, 1996; Guillaume et al., 2017), our research makes a valuable contribution to the literature. We provide insights into why and how supervisors can have a detrimental impact on diverse workgroups.

However, it is important to note that the indirect relationship between supervisor SDO and within-team relationship conflict through nation-based LMXD did not reach statistical significance in our analysis. This outcome could be attributed to factors such as a lack of statistical power or the stringent nature of the analysis, where we controlled for baseline levels of the mediator and outcome variables. Additional research may help to better understand the nuanced dynamics and potential mediating pathways in this context.

To summarize the key findings of the second article, we discovered that supervisor SDO played a significant role in fostering increased nation-based LMXD within teams. This, in turn, led to higher levels of relationship conflict within the team. Furthermore, the presence of relationship conflict was associated with lower levels of collective team commitment. From a practical standpoint, these findings have important implications for or-

ganizations. Firstly, organizations should consider not only the performance data of employees but also their social dominance beliefs when selecting and promoting individuals to leadership positions in diverse teams. Being aware of supervisor SDO can help organizations identify potential challenges in team dynamics and take appropriate measures. Secondly, organizations may benefit from implementing training programs that promote inclusion and equality. These programs can help supervisors develop egalitarian beliefs and behaviors, fostering a more harmonious work environment (Ciuk, Śliwa, & Harzing, 2022).

Taken together, the first and second articles provide valuable insights into the role of SDO in understanding the challenges and problems that diverse workgroups may face. To explain the disruptive processes observed in diverse workgroups, research in diversity has often drawn insights from social categorization and intergroup relations (e.g., Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999). It has been theorized that differences among individuals can trigger social categorization processes, which, in turn, can have negative implications for diverse workgroups. However, as van Knippenberg et al. (2007) argue, it is not categorization itself (the perception of subgroups) that disrupts group processes, but rather intergroup bias (i.e., favoring one's own subgroup). Individual characteristics can determine the extent to which individuals hold intergroup biases, which can lead to disruptions in group processes. By examining individual-level characteristics, such as SDO, as discussed in the first and second articles, this dissertation tried to give new insights into how individual-level factors may negatively impact diverse organizations. Practically, organizations have the potential to influence employees' SDO level. SDO is influenced by various factors, including socialization experiences and social context (Sidanius & Pratto, 2003). For instance, group dominance is associated with SDO such that group mean SDO tends to be higher in dominant social groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 2012). Therefore, organizations may be able to alter employees' perception of belonging to dominant vs. subordinate social groups by ensuring that hierarchical positions are distributed evenly across groups with varying social power. This can help create a more inclusive and egalitarian work environment, reducing the level of employees' SDO.

In the third article (Chapter 3), we shifted our focus from exploring the outcomes of employees and leaders' SDO to exploring how SDO moderates the effects of employees' perception of workplace. In the third article, we utilized a two-wave longitudinal design and leveraged the data collected from employees from the same dataset as in the second article. We have shown that the negative association between psychological climate for diversity and perception of racial/ethnic workplace discrimination was moderated by employees' SDO such that the relation was stronger among low-SDO employees. Moreover, the relation between perceived racial/ethnic workplace discrimination and prosocial voice behavior was moderated by employee SDO such that this relation was significantly positive among low-SDO employees but significantly negative among high-SDO employees. Further, the results of the third article showed that the indirect effect of climate for diversity on prosocial voice was positive for high-SDO employees but negative for low-SDO employees. This study is one of the first studies to evaluate the moderating effects of SDO on employees' perception of diversity climate and workplace discrimination. The results emphasize the importance of considering individual-level factors, such as SDO, when examining the impact of diversity climate and workplace discrimination on employees' experiences.

Put together, the three articles testify that SDO is an important concept for both diversity researchers and practitioners, and that integrating SDO with workplace diversity literature is a promising approach to exploring the challenges and dynamics of diversity in the workplace. In addition to the specific avenues for future research discussed within each article, there are higher-level issues that deserve further attention and exploration. These broader considerations can guide future research and contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the role of SDO in diverse workgroups.

Firstly, while we have discussed the impact of SDO at the dyadic level, it is also important to explore how the composition of employees' SDO within a diverse workgroup influences group-level outcomes. In the diversity literature, empirical findings regarding the consequences of diversity in organizations have been inconsistent (Guillaume et al., 2017; van Knippenberg et al., 2007), prompting scholars to emphasize the exploration of moderators that can shed light on the diversity-outcomes relationship (Guillaume et al.,

2017). Specifically, researchers have highlighted the need to examine individual difference moderators that can elucidate the effects of diversity (Guillaume et al., 2017). The results of this dissertation suggest that group-level SDO may serve as one such moderators.

For instance, workgroups characterized by a higher proportion of members with high SDO may exhibit distinct dynamics and outcomes compared to groups with a lower proportion of high SDO members. By considering the SDO composition of workgroups, researchers can delve into how the presence of individuals with high SDO interacts with diversity to shape group processes and outcomes. For instance, compared to work groups with a lower proportion of high SDO dominant members, work groups with a significant proportion of high SDO dominant members may experience power imbalances, intergroup conflicts, or reduced cooperation, all of which can have an impact on team performance, creativity, and overall organizational outcomes. Therefore, we propose the following research question:

> Research Question 1: How does the composition of team members' SDO influence the relationship between workgroup diversity and workgroup outcomes?

Secondly, although we have extensively discussed the negative effects of SDO in diverse workgroups, we have not yet explored the factors that may serve as buffers or mitigating mechanisms for these negative consequences. It is crucial to identify potential factors that can counteract or minimize these effects. Future research should focus on investigating potential moderators that can attenuate the negative impact of high SDO in diverse workgroups. For example, organizational practices that promote inclusivity and equality, and enhance visibility of counter-stereotypical individuals (i.e., high-potential members of low status groups) may have the potential to mitigate the negative consequences associated with high SDO (Lee, 2022; Umphress et al., 2008). Therefore, future research should address the following question:

> Research Question 2: What are the potential buffering factors that can mitigate the negative consequences of SDO in diverse workgroups?

Third, while we have examined the negative effects of SDO in diverse workgroups, we have yet to explore the organizational factors that have the potential to influence and change employees' SDO. Understanding the mechanisms through which SDO can be modified is essential for promoting positive intergroup relations and fostering inclusive work environments (Lee, 2022). Future research should focus on identifying organizational factors that can impact employees' SDO and potentially lead to its reduction. For instance, organizational practices such as diversity training programs, inclusive leadership development, and intergroup contact initiatives may contribute to the modification of SDO.

> Research Question 3: What organizational factors can contribute to the reduction of employees' SDO over time?

In the final point, it is important to note that the two essays included in this thesis employed quantitative research methods to investigate the relationship between SDO and work-related outcomes. Both studies utilized a two-wave longitudinal design, allowing to control baseline (Time 1) levels of variables and reducing potential endogeneity concerns in our findings (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Although our research design provided valuable insights into the temporal dynamics of the variables under investigation, it is worth mentioning that we were unable to implement a fully cross-lagged design. A fully cross-lagged design would have allowed for a more comprehensive examination of the reciprocal relationships between SDO and work consequences over time. This limitation should be taken into consideration when interpreting the findings.

To enhance and broaden our findings more precisely and to rule out the possibility of reverse causality, future research may use both fully cross-lagged designs and quasi-experimental designs to reach more robust exploration of the causal relationships and to determine how the exact processes of relationships among the focal variables change across time (Grant & Wall, 2008).

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