

PERCEPTION OF DIVERSITY

by

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ABSTRACT

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Two studies were conducted to examine effects of diversity on perception. The primary purpose of the first study was to see how people perceive diverse groups, how comfortable they are working in such groups, and how attracted they are to diverse groups. Results indicated that people prefer working with groups that represented their ethnicity (race-inclusion) and perceived such groups to be more attractive than groups that did not represent their ethnicity (race-exclusion). Also, White participants were more attracted to diverse groups and more willing to work in diverse groups than Black participants. Most importantly, the preference of race-inclusion pictures to race-exclusion pictures was significantly greater in Blacks than in Whites along the dimensions of attractiveness and willingness to work in diverse groups. The second

study focused on perception of diversity in work and social contexts. Results indicated that participants perceived high diverse groups to be more capable, more beneficial and less enjoyable than low diverse groups. Participants enjoyed interacting with diverse groups in a work context rather than a social context.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Perception of Diversity

In the recent years, there has been increased globalization and greater diversity in the United States. Multinational corporations throughout the United States increasingly involve work teams made up of people from diverse cultures. For states such as Hawaii, California, New Mexico, and Texas, minority groups are expected to account for more than 50% of the population over the next 25 years (Population Reference Bureau, 2002). According to the U.S census, in the year 2000, 1 in 4 persons was a minority as compared to 1 in 5 a decade ago.

There are two general categories of diversity namely surface-level diversity and deep-level diversity. Surface-level diversity refers to demographic and physical characteristics and deep-level diversity refers to attitudes, beliefs, and values (Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998).

There are many types of diversity that group members bring into their work groups. Demographic diversity or social categorization diversity refers to differences in group members in terms of characteristics such as age, gender or ethnicity. Group members may differ from each other on the basis of their personality and background. This is called personal diversity. When group members differ in skills and abilities they possess, it is known as ability and skill diversity (Jackson, Stone, & Alvarez, 1992).

Informational diversity refers to differences in knowledge bases (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999). Value diversity refers to differences in values, beliefs, and attitudes. Two main lines of research are prominent in the area of diversity. They are the impact of diversity on a team's performance and the impact of diversity on perception.

1.1.1 Diversity and Performance

Many studies have examined the impact of diversity in work groups on performance. Diversity research has shown that dissimilarity among work group members tends to be associated with less positive affect and evaluative responses (Riordan & Shore, 1997). These negative effects of diversity are associated more with surface-level diversity such as demographic dimensions and positive effects are usually associated with informational diversity (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Van Knippenberg (1999) found that diversity in demographic characteristics is commonly associated with separatism leading to negative outcomes. However, diversity on more negotiable dimensions such as information, opinion, and expertise improves task performance. Heterogeneous groups outperform homogenous groups when informational diversity is involved. On the other hand, value diversity, in terms of differences in the group members' goals or mission reduces performance (Jehn et. al., 1999). From previous research, we know that heterogeneity in groups increases communication errors and therefore decreases communication (Barnlund & Harland, 1963; Triandis, 1960). Heterogeneity also leads to more conflict, less social integration, more departure from heterogeneous groups (Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992; Williams, & O'Reilly, 1998), and decline in work effectiveness (Pelled, 1996; Williams, & O'Reilly, 1998). A study done

by Tsui et al, (1992) demonstrated that ethnic minorities in a group might be less committed to the group, more likely to be absent, and more likely to leave. Tenure diversity (the time of entry into the group) is associated with less effective group process, (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Racial or national diversity appears to interfere more with group process than gender or personality diversity (Watson et al., 1993). A study by Kochan et al (2003) examined the relationships between business performance and race and gender diversity in four large firms. They found that racial diversity hindered performance but gender diversity was related to an increase in group bonus and positive group processes.

Heterogeneity among group members does not always have negative effects on groups. There can also be “value-in-diversity” which contributes to distinct benefits in groups (Cox, Lobel, & McLeod, 1991). The benefit of “value-in-diversity” is two-fold. First, when deep-level diversity such as informational diversity exists where group members possess different values, background and unique information, it improves the group’s performance (Jehn et al., 1999; McGrath, Berdahl, & Arrow, 1995). Secondly, many studies indicate that diversity in terms of surface-level characteristics such as gender, ethnicity, and nationality can increase the number of perspectives and alternatives in group decision-making (Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1992; Watson et al., 1993; Thomas & Ely, 1996). Cox, Lobel, and McLeod (1991) found that a group composed of Asian, Black, White and Hispanic outperformed the all Caucasian group on the “Prisoner’s Dilemma” task. Diversity also enhances the group’s creativity and innovativeness. The presence of diverse perspectives and viewpoints about the task

leads to insightful discoveries in the group (Jackson, 1992; Jehn et al., 1999). When people from varying knowledge, gender, and ethnic backgrounds bring insights to the group, it increases flexibility and promotes high quality innovations (Cady & Valentine, 1999; Milliken & Martins, 1996; Rogelberg & Rumery, 1996). Groups need to appreciate diversity and take advantage of diversity to resolve group process issues (Cady & Valentine, 1999; Watson et al., 1993). “Value-in-diversity” may exist even when different people do not bring different information to the table. One study found that when Caucasian participants were paired with an African American collaborator there was more integrative complexity than when paired with a fellow Caucasian (Antonio, Chang, Hakuta, Kenny, Levin, & Milem, 2004).

The amount of time diverse group members have spent working with each other also has an impact on their performance. In a study done by Watson, Kumar, and Michaelson (1993), during the initial stages of group development ethnically homogenous groups performed better than the ethnically heterogeneous groups. However, over time heterogeneous groups outperformed the homogeneous groups on some measures.

The type of task the group members are involved in also determines the impact of diversity on the group. On tasks high in difficulty, heterogeneous groups perform significantly better than homogeneous groups (Bowers, Pharmer, & Salas, 2000). On cognitive tasks such as generating ideas, a group comprised of diverse members have an edge over homogeneous groups (Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999). On creativity tasks requiring knowledge of different cultures, diverse groups appear to have more

advantages (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Ethnically diverse groups play an important role in consumer behavior since they perform better in planning strategies that appeal to diverse groups (Tse, Lee, Vertinsky, & Wehrung, 1988).

Pelled et al (1999) found that when groups work on a non-routine task that require interacting and depending on team members, diversity appears to have a greater impact. Conflicts are more likely between members working on a non-routine task compared to members working on routine tasks. Timmerman (2000) examined the effects of racial and age diversity on the performance of professional baseball and basketball players. Baseball requires less dependence on team members compared to basketball. He found that greater diversity was related to lower winning percentages for basketball teams. However, neither age nor racial diversity was related to team performance for baseball teams.

From previous research it is evident that diversity can be helpful or a hindrance based on the type of task and the type of diversity encountered in the group. From the above studies it is evident that the type of diversity in the group affects the group's performance.

1.1.2. Diversity and Perception

Although a sizeable literature exists in the areas of prejudice, stereotypes, intergroup relations, and diversity and performance, not many studies have been done in the area of the impact of diversity on people's perception. Very few studies have examined how perception of diversity affects people's behavior, performance, affect and attitude towards diverse groups.

There are four socio cultural models of diversity that are prevalent in the United States (Plaut, 2002). They are the sameness model, the common identity model, the value-added model, and the mutual accommodation model. The sameness model embraces the colorblind ideology which emphasizes on harmony and equality among diverse group members. The sameness model emphasizes that the differences among people are superficial and mostly irrelevant. According to this model people are all the same. The mutual accommodation model embraces the multicultural ideology which emphasizes on recognizing and celebrating differences among various ethnic groups. This model focuses on the belief that differences among people and groups are substantial and must be accommodated whether or not they are perceived to add value. People from different cultures embrace different models based on their perception of diversity.

Plaut interviewed employees of a multicultural bank composed of people from twenty-five countries. According to a White male manager she interviewed, diversity is superficial and contact to people from different cultures is sufficient for effective intergroup relations. She found that people belonging to the majority embrace the colorblind ideology. They tend to ignore the differences and assume that people are all one and the same. However, when Plaut interviewed his Taiwanese subordinate Ann, she said that managers should employ different management styles with different employees. According to her, all employees are not the same and these differences cannot be ignored. The minorities usually tend to embrace the multicultural ideology where differences are significant and needs to be accommodated.

In a study by Judd et al. (1995), it was found that White youth are taught to believe that the White population is no different from the ethnic minorities and also it unacceptable to make distinctions based on skin color. According to McIntosh (1989) and Swim & Miller (1999) Whites mostly embrace colorblind ideology because they are not very aware of their racial identity and its impact on their everyday lives. However, Blacks identify more strongly with people from their race than do Whites (Phinney, 2002).

The racial composition of the group also affects people's perception of the group. In a study done by Avery et. al., (2002) the attractiveness of an organization increased when racial similarity between the applicant and the employees was depicted in the advertisement. The perception of similarity led to the perception of procedural fairness as well as interpersonal attraction even when no interaction occurred between the employees and the applicant (Young, Place, Rinehart, Jury, Baits, 1997). Avery (2003) found that when Blacks viewed advertisements of organizations, they were more attracted to organizations in which other Blacks were represented at both the entry level as well as the supervisory level than those in which Blacks were represented only at the entry level or only White employees were represented.

Phillips, Northcraft, Neale (in press) examined the perception of surface-level diversity and deep-level similarity on a three-person groups' performance on a hidden-profile task. They found that surface-level homogenous groups spent less time on the task. These groups perceived similarity in the group which in turn caused them to assume that their information was less unique than it actually was. However, surface-

level diverse groups spent more time discussing about the task and therefore, perceived their information as being unique and outperformed the surface-level homogenous groups. In their study, they also found that when both surface-level similar and surface-level diverse groups learned about their deep-level similarities, only the surface-level homogenous groups experienced greater levels of attraction among group members. In essence, the way in which people perceive groups not only affects their performance but also their attraction toward the group. Some findings suggest that when people perceive similarity among group members on the basis of salient surface-level characteristics they also assume that they share deep-level similarities in terms of attitudes and values with their group members (e.g, Phillips, 2003; Phillips & Loyd, 2004).

Although in the past social psychologists have studied about intergroup relations, they have focused mainly on the perceptions of Whites. There is a failure to examine the perceptions of groups from the standpoint of Blacks (Shelton, 2000). In fact there is surprisingly small number of studies that have examined the perceptions of both Blacks and Whites while perceiving diverse groups. The purpose of the current research is to examine the differences in the perception of diversity in both Blacks and Whites and its impact on their comfort level to work with diverse groups and their attraction toward diverse groups.

CHAPTER 2

STUDY 1

In the United States, Blacks have had a history of segregation. In the year 1945, education was segregated along racial lines. Black college students attended Black institutions that were taught by Black professors. Segregation between Blacks and Whites are also found in various levels of the society such as personal preferences, housing markets, and so on. According to Harrison, Wilson, Pine, Chan and Buriel (1990), the history of discrimination and oppression that the Blacks have experienced in the past influences the value they place on their ethnicity and also their survival strategies.

The values of the dominant culture are usually different from the values held by Black college students. In certain cases, students feel the pressure to adapt to the dominant culture (Anderson, 1991). This process of adapting to the dominant culture is called acculturation. The need to adapt to a different culture as well as hold one's own cultural value causes stress and tension (Greene, 1990). This stress is referred to as acculturation stress, which may lead to anxiety, lower self-concept, feelings of alienation, and identity confusion (Berry et al., 1987; Anderson, 1991). Therefore, Black students need special coping skills that are not needed by the students of the dominant culture (Henderson, 1988). Such findings lead us to predict that Black participants would prefer working with people like themselves to a diverse group

because it provides a way for them to avoid stress and tension. Many studies have indicated that racial cues are more salient to Black applicants than White applicants (Davis & Burnstein, 1981; Mehra, Kilduff, & Brass, 1998; Perkins et. al., 2000; Thomas & Wise, 1999). Other findings indicate that beyond any doubts, the presence of Black employees was important to Black job seekers (Leonard, 2001).

In a meta-analysis of fourteen studies in face recognition, the magnitude of same-race bias for both Black and White participants was found to be similar (Bothwell, Brigham, Malpass, 1989). There was a tendency for people to remember own-race faces better than other race faces. In 79% of the samples reviewed, both White and Black participants exhibited own-race bias. Feingold (1914) asserted that it is “...to the uninitiated American, all Asians look alike, while to the Asians all White men look alike.” People tend to perceive outgroup members as being more homogenous than ingroup members according to the outgroup homogeneity hypothesis.

According to Van Knippenberg and Haslam (2003), attitude towards diverse workgroups influences the affect and the performance of the group members. People with a positive attitude toward diverse workgroups may enjoy working with and interacting with diverse group members than those with a negative attitude. In a study done in United States and Japan, participants completed a scale called Diversity Workgroup Scale (DWS) (Nakui & Paulus, unpublished), used to measure attitude toward diversity. Americans had a more positive attitude toward diverse workgroups compared to Japanese. This could be because Japan is a homogenous country, whereas in United States people are more exposed to diversity due to the rapid increase of

diversity. This in turn causes them to have a favorable attitude toward diverse work groups. It was also found that people who have positive attitude toward diversity perceived less diversity in diverse group after initial interaction and later on they perceived diversity similar to that of those with a negative attitude. Further, they enjoyed interacting with diverse members in the group and had positive expectations of task sessions with the diverse group members when compared to those with negative attitude. According to the contact hypothesis, in certain conditions, contact with people who are members of conflicting groups not only reduces prejudice but also leads to harmonious relationships between groups (Allport, 1954; Amir, 1969; Cook, 1978). The increasing diversity in the United States provides an opportunity for people to come in contact with others from different cultures.

According to the similarity-attraction paradigm, people tend to be attracted to similar others. When there is high degree of observable diversity, people tend to gravitate toward similar others and withdraw from those perceived as different (Byrne, 1971). In a study done by Allen and Wilder, (1979) when surface-level similarity existed between self and others students assumed deep-level similarity between self and similar others as opposed to self and dissimilar others. People assumed that surface-level dissimilarity indicates deep-level dissimilarity on perspectives that are relevant and irrelevant to surface-level distinctions. People with similar sexual orientation (surface-level) assumed similarity of political views (deep-level) (Chen & Kenrick, 2002). Therefore, surface-level diversity in the group may undermine the performance

of the group through conflict, poor communication, and delayed decision-making (Jehn et al., 1999; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999).

Not only are we attracted to those who are similar to us, we are downright repulsed by those who are dissimilar (Rosenbaum, 1986). There are two main reasons why we like people similar to us and dislike those who are not. First, similar others are easy to interact with. This reduces the cost of interaction and increases the rewards. Intergroup anxiety is reduced. Second, interaction with similar others provides consensual validation. In other words, similar others boost our confidence that our attitudes and behaviors are right. Self-categorization theory suggests that similarities and differences are used as a basis for categorizing oneself and others into groups forming distinctions between one's own in-group and one or more outgroup (Turner, 1985).

According to self-categorization theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, 1987) and social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), when work group members meet for the first time, they tend to categorize themselves and others on the basis of social categories such as race, gender, or ethnicity that leads to the perception of similarities and differences in the workgroup. People isolate themselves from those different from themselves and are attracted to similar others. The perceptions of differences among group members may lead to distrust of outgroup members, negative stereotypes, and intragroup rivalries (Brewer, 1979, 1995; Hogg & Abrams, 1988). This may lead to low identification with the group. In addition, the social identity theory states that members tend to favor ideas and opinions of similar others over dissimilar others which in turn

leads to potential conflict in groups. Further, similarity to in-group members increased in-group cooperation, trust, and social attraction (Brewer & Kramer, 1986; Kramer, 1991, 1993).

This study will examine how people perceive diverse groups, how comfortable they are working in such groups, and how attracted they are to diverse groups. In this study, participants viewed group pictures of people from various ethnicities such as Whites, Blacks, Hispanics, and Asians of varying gender and ethnic combinations. The pictures were composed of group size 4. We refer to race-inclusion pictures as pictures in which the ethnicity of the rater is included. For example, for a Black participant, a group picture that includes another Black person is a race-inclusion picture. In race-exclusion pictures, the race of the rater is not represented in the group picture. For example, for a White participant, a group picture consisting of all Asians is a race-exclusion picture. The independent variables in this study are the pictures that are viewed by the participants (race-inclusion and race-exclusion) and the ethnicity of the raters (Blacks and Whites). The dependent variables are their ratings along the dimensions of perception, attraction, and comfort level.

Hypothesis 1: People tend to rate race- inclusion pictures as more comfortable to work with, more diverse, and more attractive than race-exclusion pictures.

Hypothesis 2: White participants will be more attracted to diverse groups and more willing to work in diverse groups than Black participants.

Hypothesis 3: We predict that the difference between the preferences of race-inclusion pictures to race-exclusion pictures will be greater in Blacks than in Whites along the dimensions of attraction and comfort level.

CHAPTER 3

3.1 Method

3.1.1. Participants

One hundred and seventeen undergraduate students at the University of Texas at Arlington (UTA) participated in this study in exchange for partial course credit in their introductory psychology course. The participants were diverse in terms of age, ethnicity, and gender. There were 65 male and 52 female participants. Of these 62 participants were Whites (52.9%) of which 36 were male and 26 were female. Fifteen were African American (12.8%), 6 males and 9 females. Fifteen were Hispanic (12.8%), of which 9 were male and 6 were female. Twelve were Asians (10.2%) of which 9 were male and 3 were female. Thirteen of the participants were “mixed” or “other ethnicity” (11.1%), 5 males and 8 females. The average age of the participants was 20.

3.1.2. Materials

Participants filled in consent forms and a background questionnaire that required them to fill in details regarding their age, ethnicity, major, and so on. Additionally, they completed the Diversity Workgroup Scale (DWS), a Likert-type scale used measure attitude towards diversity, as part of the pre-test. It consists of twenty-one items with 5 alternatives. Sample items include statements such as “I find interacting with people from different backgrounds as stimulating,” “For complicated

problems, diverse groups will be able to solve problems more easily,” etc. The entire study used the same set of forty faces. Microsoft PowerPoint 2000 was used to present the faces and participants’ responses were recorded.

3.1.3. Procedure

Participants were asked to sign consent forms and complete a background questionnaire. Participants were then presented with a PowerPoint slide show consisting of forty faces representing different ethnicities. The experiment consisted of two parts. In the first part, participants saw a PowerPoint slide show of forty faces of people from different ethnicities such as Whites, Blacks, Hispanics, and Asians. Each slide was presented for fifteen seconds. There were ten faces from each ethnicity in the slide show, with pictures of 5 men and 5 women representing each ethnicity. In order to control for any effects of attractiveness, participants were asked to rate the attractiveness of the faces on a 9 point scale with 9 being the most attractive and 1 being the least attractive. Response sheets were used to record these ratings.

In the second part of the experiment, participants viewed group pictures of varying sizes for forty-five seconds. These group slides were derived by making composites of the individual photographs described above. The group pictures were of varied ethnic and gender combinations.

Participants were asked to imagine themselves as one of the members in the group. They were told that together as a team they would be working in brainstorming and decision-making situations. After observing each group carefully, they were asked to rate on a 9-point scale the following 3 dimensions - (a) how comfortable they would

be working with the group (b) how diverse the team is in overall characteristics such as ethnicity, gender, and age, and (c) how attractive the group is. All their responses were recorded. There were eighteen pictures of group size 4. After making their ratings, participants were debriefed and thanked for their participation.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

A 2 X 2 within subjects multivariate analysis of variance of type of pictures (race-inclusion and race-exclusion) and ethnicity of the raters (Blacks and Whites) was used to examine how people perceive diverse groups, how comfortable they are working in such groups, and how attracted they are to diverse groups. There were 117 participants. 62 of them were White participants and 15 of them were Black. The remaining 40 were a combination of Asians, Hispanics, and other ethnicities.

MANOVA revealed a significant main effect of type of pictures for perceived level of comfort at work, $F(1,75) = 8.74, p < .001$. Black participants reported that they would be more comfortable working in a group in which other Black coworkers are present (race -inclusion) ($M = 5.93$ $SD = .405$) than in a diverse group in which no one from their ethnicity was represented (race -exclusion) ($M = 3.90$ $SD = .410$). Although the White participants expressed a slight preference to work in race-inclusion groups ($M = 5.45$ $SD = .202$), no significant difference was observed in their preference to work in a race-inclusion group versus a diverse group ($M = 5.12$ $SD = .199$). (See figure 4.1).

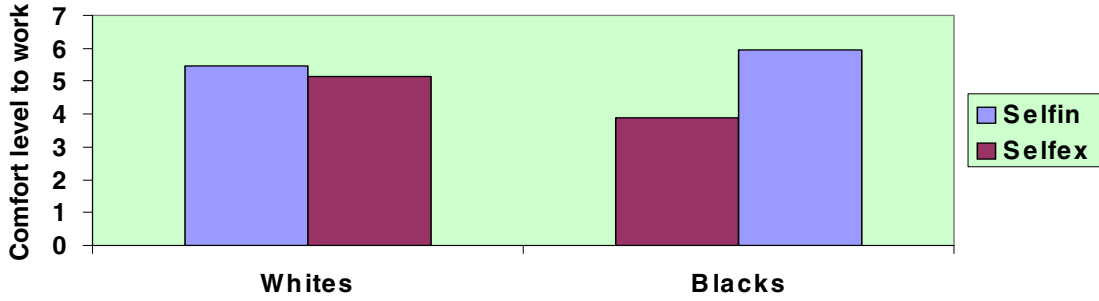


Figure 4.1. Mean ratings of comfort level to work as a function of type of pictures viewed.

Further we found a main effect of pictures for perceived level of attraction, $F(1,75) = 27.85, p < .001$, a same race bias was found among both White ($M = 5.20$ $SD = .197$) and Black participants ($M = 5.50$ $SD = .418$). Both Whites ($M = 4.30$ $SD = .206$) and Blacks ($M = 3.70$ $SD = .400$) perceived race- exclusion groups as less attractive than race-inclusion groups when the attractiveness of the faces was controlled (attractiveness score was used a covariate). (See figure 4.2). There was a main effect of picture for perceived diversity as well, $F(1,75) = 7.40, p < .05$, the Black participants perceived more diversity in race -inclusion ($M = 6.53$ $SD = .374$) groups than race -exclusion ($M = 5.40$ $SD = .398$). However, White participants reported no difference in the perception of diversity ($M = 5.46$ $SD = .184$ and $M = 5.46$ $SD = .196$) (See figure 4.3).

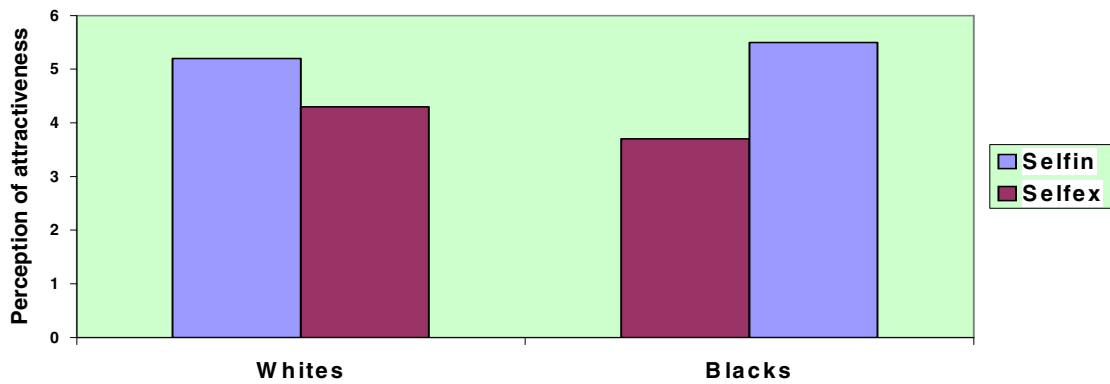


Figure 4.2. Mean ratings of attractiveness as a function of type of pictures viewed.

A significant interaction effect between type of picture and ethnicity was found for comfort level, $F(1,75) = 8.74, p < .01$. The findings indicated that mean difference between the preference for race-inclusion versus race-exclusion pictures for Black participants was greater than that of White participants ($M = 2.03$ and $M = 0.33$ for Black and White participants respectively). Although both Black and White participants feel more comfortable working in race-inclusion groups more than race-exclusion groups, the effect was stronger for Black participants.

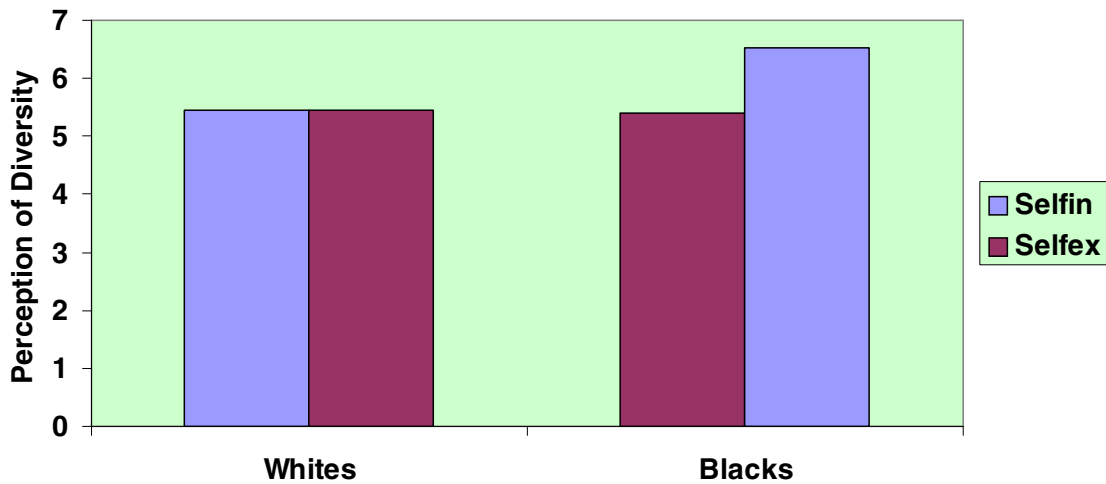


Figure 4.3. Mean ratings of perceived level of diversity as a function of type of pictures viewed.

A significant interaction effect between type of picture and ethnicity was found for attraction, $F(1,75) = 19.35, p < .001$. The findings indicate that mean difference between attractiveness ratings for race-inclusion versus race-exclusion pictures for Black participants is greater than that of White participants ($M = 1.80$ and $M = 0.90$ for Black and White participants respectively). Although both Black and White participants find race-inclusion pictures more attractive than race-exclusion pictures, the effect is stronger for Black participants. In other words, the presence of same race coworkers in

a work group makes the group more attractive to a Black participant than it does to a White participant.

Results indicate that people rate race-inclusion pictures as more attractive and more comfortable to work with than race-exclusion pictures. The prediction that the difference between the preferences of race-inclusion pictures to race-exclusion pictures for comfort level and attractiveness will be greater in Blacks than in Whites was also supported.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Study 1 examined how people perceived diverse groups, how comfortable they felt working in such groups, and how attracted they were to diverse groups. As expected, regardless of their ethnicity, people were attracted to race-inclusion groups and were more comfortable working with race-inclusion groups than race-exclusion groups. The results indicate that the presence of same race coworkers in a group is more important for Blacks than it is for White participants. White participants only expressed a slight preference for race inclusion groups to race exclusion groups. The findings are consistent with the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971) and are also in line with the social identity theory that people not only trust and like in-group members, but they favor in-groups over comparison out-groups (Tajfel, Billig, & Bundy, 1971). This indicates that irrespective of ethnicity, people prefer being with similar others since they assume that when surface-level similarity exists, deep-level similarity also exists and perceive more similarity among themselves. Further, people may perceive interacting and communicating with similar others as more enjoyable and much more effortless than interacting with dissimilar others.

Further, as predicted Black participants perceived more diversity in race-inclusion pictures than race-exclusion pictures. However, for the White participants, there was no significant difference in perception of diversity between

race-inclusion and race-exclusion pictures. This lack of significant difference in perception of diversity could be attributed to the small sample size of the study. We also found a high correlation between subjective diversity and objective diversity.

The hypothesis that White participants would be attracted to diversity and be more willing to work in diverse groups when compared to Black participants was supported. This indicates that Blacks are more oriented toward their ethnicity than Whites. This could also mean that White participants believe that expressing prejudice toward any minority group is socially undesirable.

The prediction that the difference between the preferences of race-inclusion pictures to race-exclusion pictures will be greater in Blacks than in Whites along the dimensions of attractiveness and comfort level was also supported. This indicates that irrespective of ethnicity, people are more attracted to and more willing to work with race-inclusion groups compared to race-exclusion groups, this is more true of Blacks than Whites. In other words, it is more important for a Black participant to have another Black person in the group in order to feel comfortable with group and attracted to the group than it is for a White participant.

One of the limitations in the study is the potential role of social desirability. Some participants may have indicated a preference for diversity because it is socially undesirable to express prejudice. The Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions (MCPR) (Dunton & Fazio, 1997) scale will be implemented in the next study in order to identify people who are more motivated to give socially desirable answers and to

control these effects on responses toward diversity. We will also examine how people perceive diverse group members in different contexts.

CHAPTER 6

STUDY 2

In the past, many studies have examined the validity of self report measures of attitudes towards diverse groups. Fazio et. al (1995) surprisingly found that participants' scores on the McConahay's (1986) Modern Racism Scale (MRS) were not related to their scores obtained through unobtrusive priming measures in spite of the fact that only participants having scores from the top or bottom 10% of the distribution in the MRS were selected. This indicates that sometimes people may be motivated to inhibit their actual responses. This could be because it is socially undesirable to express prejudice or discrimination against any kind of group in the United States.

In another study conducted by Fazio et. al (1995), the MRS was administered as a part of a mass survey during the beginning of the semester. After a few months, only highly prejudiced participants completed the MRS once more in the presence of either a White or Black experimenter. They found that when the scale was administered by the Black experimenter, the participants expressed less prejudice than when it was administered by the White experimenter. In other words, it was found that the correlation between the two MRS scores was lower when the scale was administered by the Black than the White experimenter. This clearly indicates that the context in which the participants are present influences their responses. Further, there is evidence for disparities between scores obtained using the self report measures and bogus pipeline, a

technique that is used to convince participants that the apparatus they are attached to is capable of discerning their true attitudes (Jones & Sigall, 1971). In order to control for the socially desirable manner in which participants are motivated to answer, we incorporated the Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions (MCPR) scale in this study. This scale separates factors that motivate people to engage in deliberative reasoning from factors that motivate people to engage in automatic reasoning when negative racial attitudes are automatically activated.

In the pilot study, we examined how people perceive diverse groups, how comfortable they felt in such groups and how much they were attracted to such groups. In this study we are interested in how different contexts affect people's perception of diversity, preference for the group, perception of the group's capability, identification with the group and perception of benefits accrued from being with the group.

Some previous studies have looked at how context affects people's perception of diversity. In a study by Wittenbrink et. al (2001a), it was found that when Black and White faces were presented in a church context, no automatic biases were found. However, when the same faces were presented in a ghetto context White participants showed an automatic in group bias. This indicates the context in which a diverse group is presented affects people's perception of diversity.

Further, norms and scripts that are associated with various situations also affect people's willingness to interact in those situations. Usually, people interact with each other in either scripted or unscripted situations. In a scripted situation, the type of behavior varies little from person to person. In other words, there is consensus about

what behavior should be exhibited and the sequence in which it should be expressed. However, in the non-scripted situation, there is no consensus of how people should behave. Behavior may vary from person to person.

According to Towles-Schwen and Fazio (2003), when a situation is highly scripted the attitudes people hold may not influence their behavior in that situation. For example, when a person has a negative attitude toward a minority group, he may be willing and comfortable interacting with a member from that group if the situation is scripted than when there is no specific script for that situation. Towles-Schwen and Fazio (2003) also found that both previous experiences and scripts led to positive expectations about imagined interactions with African Americans and greater willingness to interact with them.

Apart from scripts, the intimacy of the situation also affects people's willingness to interact in the situation. In a study by Glick (1985), it was found that when participants were attracted to their potential interaction partners they were more willing to interact with them in romantic situations as apposed to those who were not. Towles-Schwen and Fazio (2003) found that situations that require intimacy are considered awkward by people who had automatically activated negative attitudes towards Blacks. Most intimate situations do not have a script. Therefore, people with negative attitudes toward Blacks may not be willing to interaction in such situations.

The purpose of this study is to see how context (work and social) influences people's perception of diverse groups and their willingness to interact in such groups. In this study, people will view pictures of groups composed of four people from various

ethnicities such as Whites, Blacks, Hispanics, and Asians and varying in gender composition in a PowerPoint slide show. The independent variables of this study are the context in which the pictures are presented (work and social) and the type of groups (low, medium and high diverse). The dependent variables are ratings along the dimensions of a) group's capability b) preference for working or socializing with the group c) perceived diversity in the group d) identification with the group e) benefits accrued from being with the group.

Hypothesis 1:

Work is a more scripted and less intimate context, therefore we predict that participants would prefer/enjoy working to socializing with diverse groups.

Hypothesis 2:

Participants will perceive diverse groups as more capable and less enjoyable.

Hypothesis 3:

We predict that the MCPR may be related to self report responses. The MCPR scores can be used to control for the role of social desirability while rating the diverse pictures.

CHAPTER 7

7.1 Method

7.1.1. Participants

One hundred and ninety nine undergraduate students at the University of Texas at Arlington (UTA) participated in this study in exchange for partial course credit in their introductory psychology course. The participants were diverse in terms of age, ethnicity, and gender. There were 62 male and 137 female participants. Of these 45 participants were Asians (22.6%) of which 23 were male and 11 were female. Twenty-eight were African American (14.1%), 3 males and 25 females. Twenty-eight were Hispanic (14.1%), of which 8 were male and 20 were female. Seventy-seven were Caucasian (38.7%), 21 males and 56 females. Twenty-one of the participants were “mixed” or “other ethnicity” (10.5%), 7 males and 14 females. The age of the participants varied from 17 to 48, with the mean age of 20.

7.1.2. Materials

Participants first filled in consent forms and background questionnaire that requested details regarding their age, ethnicity, major, and so on. Next, they filled in the Motivation to Control Prejudiced Reactions (MCPR) (Dunton & Fazio, 1997) scale, a Likert-type scale used to measure the extent to which people seek to control the expression of prejudice. The entire study used ten group pictures of varying ethnic and gender composition. Microsoft PowerPoint 2000 was used to present these groups and

participants recorded their responses on answer sheets. (See appendix for the list of pictures.)

7.1.3. Procedure

Participants were assigned to either the primed or unprimed condition. In the primed condition, participants filled in the background questionnaire and the MCPR scales before they viewed the group pictures. In the unprimed condition, participants first viewed the group pictures and then completed the questionnaires. Participants viewed pictures as relevant to either a work or social context. In both the work and social context, participants viewed ten group pictures of varying ethnic and gender combinations of group size 4. In the work context, participants were asked to imagine themselves as one of the members in the group. They were told that together as a team they will be working on a task that includes brainstorming and decision-making. After observing each group carefully, they were asked to rate on a 9-point scale the following 5 dimensions: a) how capable do you think this group is of making good decisions? b) how much would you enjoy/prefer working with this group? c) how diverse is the group overall in terms of various characteristics such as ethnicity, race, gender and age? d) how much do you identify with this group? e) how much would you benefit (grow, develop or better yourself) from working with this group? Participants recorded their responses on answer sheets.

For the social context, participants were asked to imagine themselves as one of the members in the group. They were told that they will be socializing in a restaurant along with the group. After observing each group carefully, they were asked to rate on a

9-point scale the following 5 dimensions: a) how capable do you think this group is of having interesting discussions? b) how much would you enjoy/prefer socializing with this group? c) how diverse is the group overall in terms of various characteristics such as ethnicity, race, gender and age? d) how much do you identify with this group? e) how much would you benefit (grow, develop or better yourself) from socializing with this group? All their responses were recorded on answer sheets. At the end of the experiment, participants were debriefed and thanked for their participation.

CHAPTER 8

RESULTS

First, we examined participants' perception of diversity of the slides. We computed two types of diversity: objective and subjective (See Table 8.1). The scores for objective diversity were developed using the diversity formula (See Appendix). Subjective diversity was obtained from participants' self-report scores. Subjective diversity correlates highly with objective diversity ($r = .93$) (See Table 8.2). Apparently, participants' perception of diversity is similar to the actual diversity in the slides that was calculated using the formula.

Table 8.1 The Scores for Objective and Subjective Diversity

Slides	Subjective Diversity	Objective Diversity
1	2.10	0
2	5.07	4
3	3.75	2
4	4.04	2
5	5.69	4
6	5.57	4
7	6.98	5
8	7.23	5
9	5.91	3
10	5.97	3

Participants perceived pictures with greater diversity as more beneficial ($r = .89$) and more capable ($r = .69$) (See Table 8. 3) than less diverse pictures in both work and social contexts. There is a high correlation between capability and benefit ($r = .84$).

Also, the more participants identified with group, the more they enjoyed working or socializing with the group ($r = .86$).

Table 8.2 Correlation Between Objective and Subjective Diversity

	Subjective Diversity	Objective Diversity
Subjective Diversity	1	.930**
Objective Diversity	.930**	1

** Sig. $p < .01$

Table 8.3 Correlations between Subjective Diversity, Capability, Enjoyment, Identity and Benefit

	Sub.Div	Capability	Enjoyment	Identity	Benefit
Sub. Div	1	.692*	-.405	-.238	.892**
Capability	.692*	1	.275	.179	.842**
Enjoyment	-.405	.275	1	.865**	.024
Identity	-.238	.179	.865**	1	.179
Benefit	.892**	.842**	.024	.179	1

** Sig. $p < .01$ * Sig. $p < .05$

We also examined the effect of motivation to control prejudiced reactions on participant's evaluation of the pictures. There was no correlation between participants' motivation to control prejudice and how they responded to the various questions concerning the pictures. Therefore, participants' evaluation of the slides was not influenced by their desire to control their prejudiced thoughts.

To examine the role of gender diversity a 2 X 2 repeated-measure ANOVA of context (work versus social) by type of pictures (mixed vs same gender) was performed for pictures 7,8 (high) and 9,10 (low). Pictures 7 and 8 are composed of men and women from all 4 ethnicities. Picture 9 is composed of only women from all 4 ethnicities and Picture 10 is composed of only men from all 4 ethnicities. The results indicate a main effect for type of picture for diversity $F(1,197) = 71.75$ $p < .01$ (by Bonferroni correction). The participants perceived the mixed gender diverse pictures ($M=7.10$ $SD=1.63$) as more diverse than the same gender diverse ($M=5.94$ $SD=1.68$) pictures. Mixed gender diverse pictures ($M=5.93$ $SD=1.77$) are also perceived as more beneficial than same gender diverse pictures ($M=5.65$ $SD=1.79$), $F(1,196) = 5.47$ $p < .05$. Further, participants evaluate mixed gender diverse pictures ($M=6.24$ $SD= 1.88$) as more capable than same gender diverse pictures ($M=11.68$ $SD=3.58$), $F(1,197) = 9.07$, $p < .05$. We also found a main effect for type of context $F(1,196) = 4.20$, $p < .05$. Participants perceive work pictures ($M=5.84$ $SD=1.77$) as more enjoyable than social pictures ($M=5.29$ $SD=1.74$). There is an interaction effect for type of pictures and context for enjoyment $F(1,196) = 4.24$, $p < .05$. Participants preferred mixed gender diverse pictures ($M=5.90$ $SD=1.79$) to same gender diverse pictures in the work context ($M=5.60$ $SD=1.75$). However, in the social context, we find the opposite. Participants seem to enjoy same gender diverse pictures ($M=5.38$ $SD=1.78$) more than mixed gender diverse pictures ($M=5.21$ $SD=1.70$). (See figure 8.1). (See appendix for perception of pictures based on participants' ethnicities.)

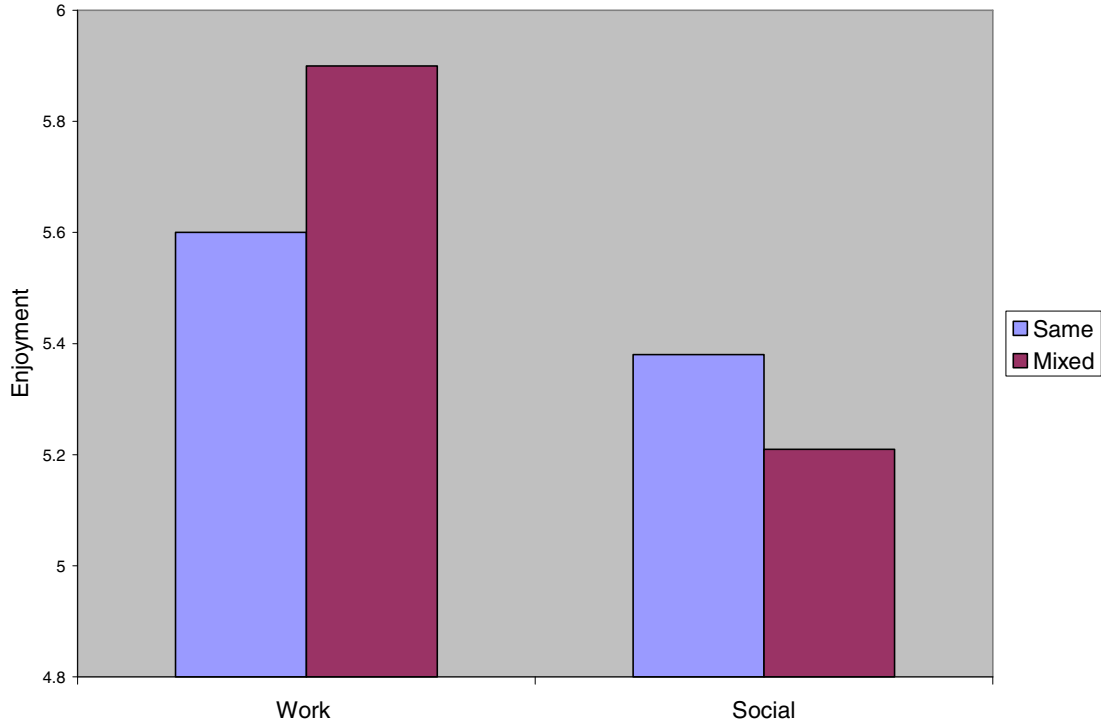


Figure 8.1. Mean ratings of enjoyment as a function of type of pictures (same vs mixed gender diverse) viewed.

To examine the relative influence of gender and ethnic diversity a 2 X 2 repeated-measure ANOVA of context (work versus social) by type of pictures (gender and ethnic vs gender diversity) was performed for pictures 9,10 (gender) and 6 (gender and ethnic). Group 6 is composed of Black and White men and women. It is composed of both gender and ethnic diversity. Picture 9 is composed of only women from all 4 ethnicities and Picture 10 is composed of only men from all 4 ethnicities. Picture 9 and 10 are only ethnically diverse. Unlike the previous comparison, people perceive ethnic diverse pictures ($M=5.94$ $SD=1.68$) as more diverse than ethnic and gender diverse pictures ($M=5.57$ $SD=1.59$), $F(1,197) = 7.87, p < .01$. It is interesting to note that like the previous pictures, people perceive the ethnic and gender diverse group ($M=6.22$

SD=1.77) as more capable than ethnic diverse group (M=5.84 SD=1.79), $F(1,197) = 8.61, p < .01$. Participants seem to enjoy ethnic and gender diverse pictures (M=6.02 SD=1.97) more than medium ethnic diverse pictures (M=5.50 SD=1.77), $F(1,196) = 14.19, p < .01$. We also find an interaction effect for capability $F(1,197) = 5.64, p < .05$. People evaluate the ethnic and gender diverse work and social pictures (M=6.55 SD=1.58 M=5.85 SD=1.90) as more capable than ethnic diverse work and social pictures (M=5.89 SD=1.71 M=5.78 SD=1.88). However, interestingly, we find that people rate ethnic and gender diverse work picture as extremely more capable than ethnic diverse work picture but ethnic and gender diverse social picture is rated as only slightly more capable than ethnic diverse social picture (See figure 8.2). (See appendix for perception of pictures based on participants' ethnicities.)

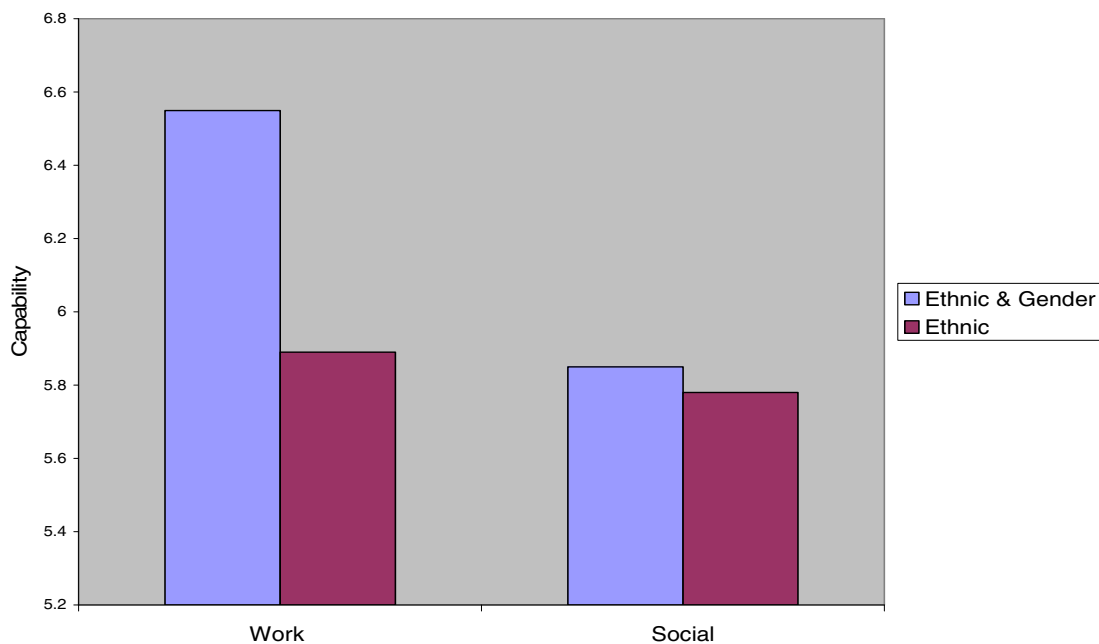


Figure 8.2. Mean ratings of capability as a function of type of pictures (ethnic & gender vs gender diverse) viewed.

To examine the influence of ethnic diversity for pictures representing only females, a 2 X 2 repeated-measure ANOVA of context (work versus social) by type of pictures (low vs medium vs high diversity) was performed on pictures 1 (low), 3 (medium), and 9 (high). The pictures were categorized as low, medium, or high diverse based on their scores on objective diversity. (See Table 1). Picture 1 is composed of all White women. Picture 3 is composed of 2 White women and 2 Hispanic women. Picture 9 is composed of Black, White, Asian and Hispanic women. First, we find a main effect for diversity $F(2,196) = 377.39, p < .01$. People perceive high ethnically diverse picture (M=5.91 SD=1.82) as more diverse than medium (M=3.75 SD=1.49) and low diverse pictures (M=2.10 SD=1.13). Participants evaluate ethnically high diverse pictures (M=5.94 SD=1.99) as more capable than medium (M=5.40 SD=1.86) and low diverse pictures (M=5.46 SD=2.02), $F(2,196) = 10.75, p < .01$. Participants also find ethnically high diverse pictures (M=5.96 SD=1.95) as more beneficial than medium (M=4.98 SD=1.97) and low diverse pictures (M=4.58 SD=2.16), $F(2,196) = 36.02, p < .01$. Interestingly, we find that people report that they will identify most with the ethnically high diverse (M=4.94 SD=2.11) followed by medium (M=4.62 SD=2.16) and low diverse (M=4.40 SD=2.58) pictures, $F(2,196) = 4.21, p < .05$. A significant interaction effect is found for context and type of pictures for capability, $F(2,196) = 3.83, p < .05$. In a social context, participants find ethnically high diverse pictures (M=5.89 SD=2.14) as more capable than medium (M=5.21 SD=1.95) and low diverse (M=5.01 SD=2.15) pictures. However, in the work context, people perceive high (M=5.99 SD=1.85) and low diverse pictures (M=5.86 SD=1.83) as more capable than

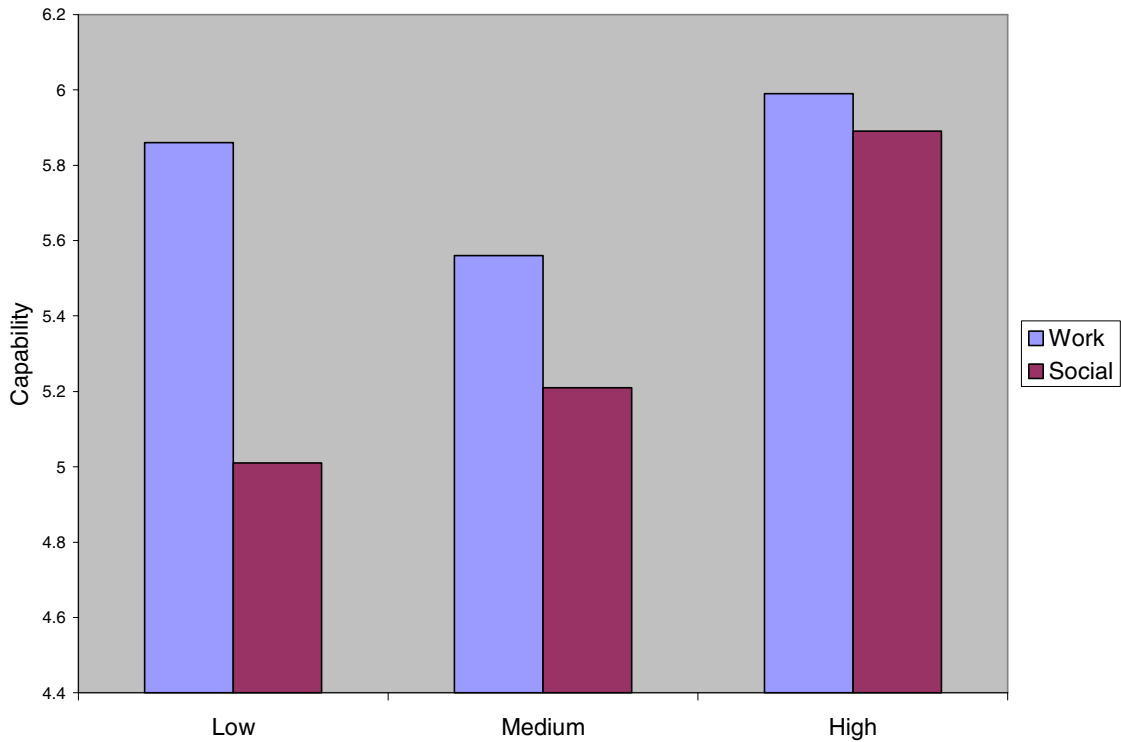


Figure 8.3. Mean ratings of enjoyment as a function of type of pictures (low vs medium) viewed.

Table 8.4 Paired Sample T-test for low, medium and high diverse slides for all female pictures.

	Mean	Correlation	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Low & Med	5.46 5.40	.702	.000	.562	198	.575
Low & High	5.46 5.94	.469	.000	-3.315	198	.001
Med & High	5.40 5.94	.621	.000	-4.581	198	.000

medium diverse pictures (M=5.56 SD=1.78) (See figure 8.3). We conducted a paired-sample t-test and found that the differences between the means for the low, medium and high diverse slides for capability were significant (See Table 8.4). (See appendix for perception of pictures based on participants' ethnicities.)

To examine the influence of ethnic diversity on mixed gender groups, a 2 X 2 repeated-measure ANOVA of context (work versus social) by type of pictures (low vs medium diversity) was performed for pictures 4 (low) and 2 (medium). Picture 4 is composed of only White men and women. Picture 2 is composed of White and Hispanic men and women.

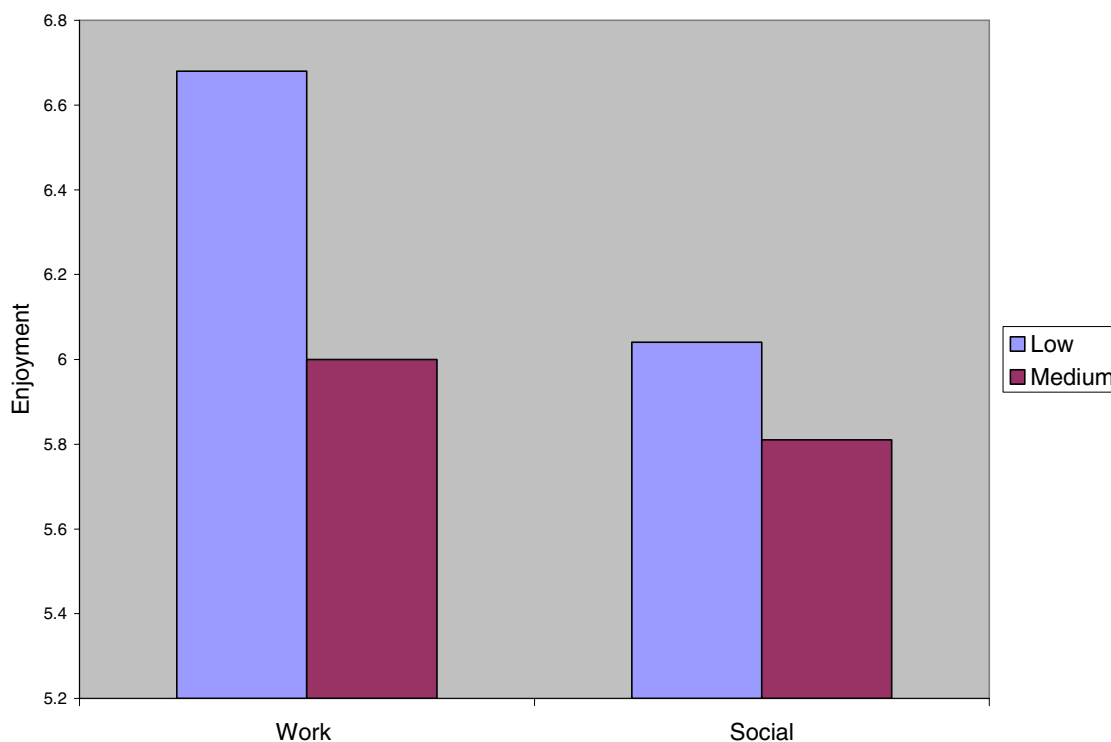


Figure 8.4. Mean ratings of capability as a function of type of pictures (medium vs high) viewed.

We find a main effect for diversity $F(1,197) = 59.59, p < .01$. People perceive the medium ethnic diverse picture ($M=5.07$ $SD=1.6$) as more diverse than low diverse picture ($M=4.04$ $SD=1.6$). Participants find low ethnic diverse picture ($M=5.91$ $SD=1.86$) as more enjoyable than the medium diverse picture ($M=5.91$ $SD=1.86$), $F(1,196) = 14.54, p < .01$. In this case, participants report that they would identify more with the low ethnic diverse group ($M=5.05$ $SD=2.14$) than the high diverse group ($M=4.48$ $SD=2.14$), $F(1,197) = 16.69, p < .01$. We also find a main effect for type of context, $F(1,197) = 15.54, p < .01$. Participants find work groups ($M=6.55$ $SD=1.6$) as more capable than social groups ($M=5.60$ $SD=1.9$) (See appendix for perception of pictures based on participants' ethnicities.) (See figure 8.4).

Yet another examination of ethnic diversity on mixed gender groups was performed by a 2 X 2 repeated-measure ANOVA of context (work versus social) by type of pictures (low vs medium vs high) for pictures 4 (low), pictures 2, 5,6 (medium) and 7,8 (high). Picture 4 is composed of White men and women. Pictures 2, 5, and 6 are composed of men and women from 2 different ethnicities. Picture 2 is composed of Whites and Hispanics. Picture 5 is composed of Whites and Asians. Picture 6 is composed of Whites and Blacks. Pictures 7 and 8 are composed of diverse men and women. People perceive high ethnic diverse picture ($M=7.09$ $SD=1.63$) as more diverse followed by medium ($M=5.44$ $SD=1.22$) and low ($M=4.04$ $SD=1.62$), $F(2,195) = 224.85, p < .01$. People identify most with the low ethnic diverse picture ($M=5.05$ $SD=2.14$), followed by medium diverse ($M=4.56$ $SD=1.41$) and high diverse picture ($M=4.35$ $SD=1.66$), $F(2,196) = 8.33, p < .01$. Irrespective of the type of diversity in the

pictures, people perceive work pictures (M=6.58 SD=1.55) as more capable than social pictures (M=5.75 SD=1.94), $F(2,196) = 16.19, p < .01$. Further, people find the low ethnic diverse group (M=6.38 SD=1.78) as the most enjoyable followed by the medium (M=5.95 SD=1.58) and high diverse pictures (M=5.58 SD=1.78), $F(2,195) = 16.96, p < .01$. We also find an interaction effect for context and type of picture $F(2,195) = 4.76, p < .05$. We can see that in both work and social context, as the diversity increases people find the pictures less enjoyable. However, the effect is stronger in social context (See figure 5). The means for work groups are (M=6.68 SD=1.70, M=6.09 SD=1.58, M=5.91 SD=1.79) for low, medium and high diverse picture respectively. The means for social groups are (M=6.04 SD=1.82, M=5.80 SD=1.56, M=5.21 SD=1.70) for low, medium and high diverse picture respectively. (See figure 8.5). (See appendix for perception of pictures based on participants' ethnicities.)

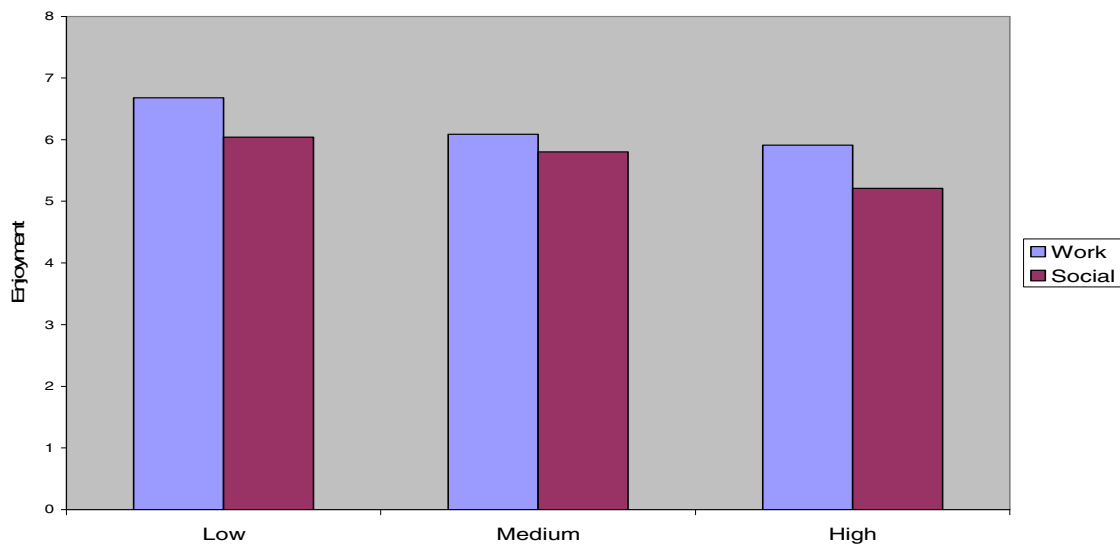


Figure 8.5. Mean ratings of enjoyment as a function of type of pictures (low vs medium vs high) viewed.

CHAPTER 9

DISCUSSION

The present study examined the effect of different types of diversity on various contexts. We predicted that participants would find diverse groups as more capable and less enjoyable. We also predicted that the participants would be more willing to interact with a diverse group in a work context than a social context. Our study provides some interesting results. We compared pictures with different levels of diversity such as low, medium and high. In almost all the comparisons, participants perceived more diversity on the slides that were more diverse according to the formula. In other words, participants' perception of diversity was very similar to the actual diversity present in the slides. Our manipulation of the ethnic diversity of the pictures produced the desired effect. Further, participants perceived the groups with greater ethnic and gender diversity as more capable in brainstorming and decision making tasks than less ethnically diverse groups and same gender groups. The findings of this study are in line with Cox, Label, & McLeod's (1991) concept of "value-in-diversity" which states that diversity enhances group's performance by bringing in different perspective and alternatives to the decision making process. The findings are also in line with the research done by Schrujjer & Mostert, (1997) where they found mixed gender groups to be more capable at brainstorming tasks than only male or only female groups.

Additionally, participants also reported that they would be more benefited collaborating with mixed gender groups and highly ethnically diverse groups than same gender groups and low ethnically diverse groups. The finding is similar to some of the previous studies where diverse groups were cognitively more benefited than homogenous groups because diverse group members can generate more perspectives that contribute toward divergent thinking (Milliken, et al., 2003; Paulus, 2000).

We also expected people to find more diverse groups as less enjoyable than less diverse groups. When we examined the influence of ethnic diversity on mixed gender groups representing two or more ethnicities, we found that participants enjoyed ethnically low diverse groups more than ethnically high diverse groups. The findings are in line with the previous studies which indicate that diversity is evaluated negatively along the affective components (Riordan & Shore, 1997) but positively along the terms of creativity and innovativeness (Jackson, 1992; Jehn et al., 1999). However, when we examined the influence of gender and ethnic diversity on enjoyment, participants reported that they would enjoy gender and ethnically diverse groups more than just ethnically diverse groups. Participants also reported that in a work context, they would enjoy interacting with a mixed gender group more than a same gender group. However, in a social context, they found same gender group as more enjoyable. Our findings are in line with our prediction that the participants would be more willing to interact with a diverse group in a work context than a social context. Further, when we examined mixed gender groups of low, medium and high ethnic diversity, we found that participants preferred socializing with low ethnically diverse groups the most followed

by medium and high ethnically diverse groups. This could be because social contexts usually have fewer scripts and are more intimate compared to work contexts. Further, in social contexts, individuals' behaviors are less predictable. Therefore, people might find diversity more threatening and might be more willing to interact with similar others in social contexts.

Additionally, we also expected that people's motivation to control prejudice might influence their self report scores. However, we found that participants' MCPR scores were not related to their self report scores indicating that participants were not motivated to give socially desirable answers.

The present study has a few limitations. The participants in the study were college students and do not represent the actual working population. The perception of college students may vary greatly from the employees in organizations. Additionally, in the present study participants were asked imagine that they were a member of various groups being shown on the screen. Based on their imagination, they rated how they would feel interacting with the group on various dimensions in either a work or social context. In the present study, the participants were aware that they did not have to actually work with or socialize with the different groups presented to them. However, the participants' might have evaluated the groups differently if they had actually worked with or interacted with the groups. Nevertheless, the fact that participants find diverse groups more capable, more beneficial and less enjoyable indicates that participants' perception of diversity is in line with the previous findings on diversity research

(Mannix & Neale, 2005). In the future, it will be interesting to replicate this study in actual work or social groups.

Further, in the present study we found that participants' were not motivated to give socially desirable answers in evaluating the list of pictures presented to them. Thus it might be possible to use the picture rating task as an instrument for assessing people's willingness to work or socialize in diverse groups.

In the future, it will be interesting to study the individual differences in perceptions of diversity and group outcomes. Van Der Zee, Van Oudenhoven & De Grijs (2003) found that participants' perception of diversity depends on various aspects such as cultural backgrounds, personality traits, and experience in diverse groups. It will be interesting to see how participants' scores on various traits affect their perception of diversity and their preferences for working or socializing in diverse groups. Participants' scores on various traits could be assessed using the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (MPQ) (Van Der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2003). MPQ is a multidimensional questionnaire used to measure multicultural effectiveness.

In a future study, it will also be interesting to examine how individuals differ in their self-categorizations of groups. According to Roccas and Brewer (2002), there are two models of ingroup representation: intersectional model and dominance model. In the intersectional model, groups are categorized as similar to self based on multiple social categories. For example, a Black man who identifies with only other Black men. In the dominance model, groups are categorized as similar to self based on one dominant category. For example, a Black man who identifies with other Black group

members or other men in the group. We predict that people who score high on the Openness and Social Initiative subscales of the MPQ would be more capable of identifying themselves with others with whom they share a single category or categories that may not be very dominant.

APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRES

Background Questionnaire

Age: _____

Country of Birth: _____

Gender Male _____ Female _____

Country of Citizenship: _____

Native Language: _____

What other languages do you speak? _____

What is your major? _____

How many semesters have you been at UTA? _____

How many years have you lived in the U.S? _____

To how many different student organizations do you belong? _____

Do you belong to a fraternity or sorority? Yes _____ No _____

My ethnicity is

- (1) Asian or Asian American, including Chinese, Japanese, and others
- (2) Black or African American
- (3) Hispanic or Latino, including Mexican American, Central American, and others
- (4) White, Caucasian, Anglo, European American; not Hispanic
- (5) American Indian/Native American
- (6) Mixed; Parents are from two different groups

(7) Other (write in): _____

My father's ethnicity is (use numbers above)

My mother's ethnicity is (use numbers above)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement on the following scale

Strongly Disagree

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

- 1 In today's society it is important that one not be perceived as prejudiced in any manner.
- 2 I always express my thoughts and feelings, regardless of how controversial they might be.
- 3 I get angry with myself when I have a thought or feeling that might be considered prejudiced.
- 4 If I were participating in a class discussion and a student of a different ethnicity or race expressed an opinion with which I disagreed, I would be hesitant to express my own viewpoint.
- 5 Going through life worrying about whether you might offend someone is just more trouble than it's worth.
- 6 It's important to me that other people not think I am prejudiced.
- 7 I feel it's important to behave according to society's standards.
- 8 I'm careful not to offend my friends, but I don't worry about offending people I don't know or don't like.
- 9 I think that it is important to speak one's mind rather to worry about offending someone.
- 10 It's never acceptable to express one's prejudices.

- 11 I feel guilty when I have a negative thought or feeling about a person of a different ethnicity or race.
- 12 When speaking to a person of a different ethnicity or race, it's important to me that he/she not think I'm prejudiced.
- 13 It bothers me a great deal when I think I've offended someone, so I'm always careful to consider other people's feelings.
- 14 If I have a prejudiced thought or feeling, I keep it to myself.
- 15 I would never tell jokes that might offend others.
- 16 I'm not afraid to tell others what I think, even when I know they disagree with me.
- 17 If someone who made me uncomfortable sat next to me on a bus, I would not hesitate to move to another seat.

You will now be seeing some group pictures. Imagine you are one of the members of each of the groups shown. Along with this you will work on a brainstorming task that involves generating ideas and decision making. You need to carefully observe the group. Then on a 9 point scale you will be asked to rate the following dimensions:

Questions for WORK context:

- 1) How capable do you think this group is of making good decisions?
- 2) How much would you enjoy/prefer working with this group?
- 3) How diverse is the group overall in terms of various characteristics such as ethnicity, race, gender and age?
- 4) How much do you identify with this group?
- 5) How much would you benefit (grow, develop or better yourself) from working with this group?

OR

You will now be seeing some group pictures. Imagine you are one of the members of each of the groups shown. Along with this you will be socializing in a restaurant. You need to carefully observe the group. Then on a 9 point scale you will be asked to rate the following dimensions:

Questions for SOCIAL context:

- 1) How much would you enjoy/prefer socializing with this group?
- 2) How diverse is the group overall in terms of various characteristics such as ethnicity, race, gender and age?
- 3) How much do you identify with this group?

- 4) How capable do you think this group is of having interesting discussions?
- 5) How much would you benefit (grow, develop or better yourself) from socializing with this group?

APPENDIX B

ANOVA TABLES FOR DIFFERENT ETHNICITIES

Anova Tables for Same Gender and Mixed Gender Pictures for all 5 Dependent Variables (Pictures 7,8 and 9,10)

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Diversity	Whites	43.171	1.000	75.000	.000
	Blacks	3.337	1.000	26.000	.079
	Asians	15.240	1.000	43.000	.000
	Hispanics	41.525	1.000	26.000	.000
Div * WS	Whites	.135	1.000	75.000	.715
	Blacks	.018	1.000	26.000	.894
	Asians	.536	1.000	43.000	.468
	Hispanics	2.299	1.000	26.000	.142

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Capability	Whites	4.656	1.000	75.000	.034
	Blacks	.021	1.000	26.000	.885
	Asians	.838	1.000	43.000	.365
	Hispanics	1.486	1.000	26.000	.234
Cap * WS	Whites	.021	1.000	75.000	.886
	Blacks	.696	1.000	26.000	.412
	Asians	3.488	1.000	43.000	.069
	Hispanics	2.080	1.000	26.000	.161

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Benefit	Whites	2.225	1.000	75.000	.140
	Blacks	.027	1.000	26.000	.871
	Asians	4.200	1.000	43.000	.047
	Hispanics	.239	1.000	26.000	.629
Ben * WS	Whites	.380	1.000	26.000	.543
	Blacks	.099	1.000	26.000	.756
	Asians	.414	1.000	43.000	.523
	Hispanics	.024	1.000	26.000	.879

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Identity	Whites	1.136	1.000	75.000	.290
	Blacks	.314	1.000	26.000	.580
	Asians	.978	1.000	43.000	.328
	Hispanics	1.608	1.000	26.000	.216
Id * WS	Whites	1.334	1.000	75.000	.252
	Blacks	.099	1.000	26.000	.756
	Asians	4.070	1.000	43.000	.050
	Hispanics	.174	1.000	26.000	.680

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Enjoyment	Whites	.647	1.000	75.000	.424
	Blacks	1.337	1.000	26.000	.258
	Asians	1.728	1.000	43.000	.196
	Hispanics	.320	1.000	25.000	.577
Enj * WS	Whites	.062	1.000	75.000	.805
	Blacks	1.018	1.000	26.000	.322
	Asians	5.163	1.000	43.000	.028
	Hispanics	.320	1.000	25.000	.577

Means for Diversity for Whites, Asians and Hispanics

	Mixed	Same
Whites	7.091	5.939
Asians	7.896	6.153
Hispanics	6.633	5.564

Means for Capability for Whites

	Mixed	Same
Whites	6.006	5.538

Means for Benefit for Asians

	Mixed	Same
Asians	5.730	5.170

Means for Identity for Asians for Work and Social Contexts

Work/Social	Identiy	Means
Work	Mixed	4.923
	Same	4.385
Social	Mixed	4.553
	Same	4.737

Means for Enjoyment for Asians for Work and Social Contexts

Work/Social	Enjoyment	Means
Work	Mixed	5.923
	Same	5.135
Social	Mixed	4.711
	Same	4.921

Anova Tables for Ethnic and Gender Versus Ethnic Diverse Pictures for all 5 Dependent Variables (Pictures 6, and 9,10)

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Diversity	Whites	4.135	1.000	75.000	.046
	Blacks	.020	1.000	26.000	.889
	Asians	2.880	1.000	43.000	.097
	Hispanics	.179	1.000	26.000	.676
Div * WS	Whites	2.456	1.000	75.000	.121
	Blacks	.242	1.000	26.000	.627
	Asians	.969	1.000	43.000	.330
	Hispanics	7.052	1.000	26.000	.013

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Capability	Whites	9.177	1.000	75.000	.003
	Blacks	2.043	1.000	26.000	.165
	Asians	.016	1.000	43.000	.901
	Hispanics	.245	1.000	26.000	.625
Cap * WS	Whites	.199	1.000	75.000	.657
	Blacks	1.650	1.000	26.000	.210
	Asians	.641	1.000	43.000	.428
	Hispanics	7.057	1.000	26.000	.013

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Benefit	Whites	1.075	1.000	75.000	.303
	Blacks	1.013	1.000	26.000	.323
	Asians	.452	1.000	43.000	.505
	Hispanics	.385	1.000	26.000	.540
Ben * WS	Whites	1.355	1.000	75.000	.248
	Blacks	.042	1.000	26.000	.840
	Asians	2.529	1.000	43.000	.119
	Hispanics	2.456	1.000	26.000	.129

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Identity	Whites	2.061	1.000	75.000	.155
	Blacks	32.433	1.000	26.000	.000
	Asians	2.034	1.000	43.000	.161
	Hispanics	.470	1.000	26.000	.499
Id * WS	Whites	.062	1.000	75.000	.804
	Blacks	1.890	1.000	26.000	.181
	Asians	.212	1.000	43.000	.647
	Hispanics	.470	1.000	26.000	.499

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Enjoyment	Whites	7.449	1.000	75.000	.008
	Blacks	5.342	1.000	26.000	.029
	Asians	.613	1.000	43.000	.438
	Hispanics	2.747	1.000	25.000	.110
Enj * WS	Whites	1.361	1.000	75.000	.247
	Blacks	5.859	1.000	26.000	.023
	Asians	.898	1.000	43.000	.349
	Hispanics	.512	1.000	25.000	.481

Means for Diversity for Whites

	Gender & Ethnic	Ethnic
Whites	5.557	5.939

Means for Diversity for Hispanics for Work and Social Contexts

Work/Social	Diversity	Means
Work	Gender & Ethnic	6.385
	Gender	5.538
Social	Gender & Ethnic	5.600
	Gender	6.767

Means for Capability for Whites

	Gender & Ethnic	Ethnic
Whites	6.197	5.538

Means for Capability for Hispanics for Work and Social Contexts

Work/Social	Enjoyment	Means
Work	Gender & Ethnic	6.692
	Gender	5.769
Social	Gender & Ethnic	6.133
	Gender	6.767

Means for Identity for Blacks

	Gender & Ethnic	Ethnic
Blacks	6.257	4.279

Means for Enjoyment for Whites

	Gender & Ethnic	Ethnic
Whites	5.910	5.368

Means for Enjoyment for Blacks

	Gender & Ethnic	Ethnic
Blacks	7.021	6.059

Means for Enjoyment for Blacks for Work and Social Contexts

Work/Social	Enjoyment	Means
Work	Gender & Ethnic	7.588
	Gender	5.618
Social	Gender & Ethnic	6.455
	Gender	6.500

Anova Tables for Low, Medium and High Diverse Female Pictures for all 5 Dependent Variables (Pictures 1, 3, and 9)

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Diversity	Whites	217.054	2.000	74.000	.000
	Blacks	38.783	2.000	25.000	.000
	Asians	48.288	2.000	42.000	.000
	Hispanics	41.303	2.000	25.000	.000
Div * WS	Whites	.796	2.000	74.000	.455
	Blacks	.139	2.000	25.000	.871
	Asians	.869	2.000	42.000	.427
	Hispanics	3.052	2.000	25.000	.065

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Capability	Whites	.821	2.000	74.000	.444
	Blacks	8.895	2.000	25.000	.001
	Asians	3.479	2.000	42.000	.040
	Hispanics	2.977	2.000	25.000	.069
Cap * WS	Whites	.548	2.000	74.000	.581
	Blacks	.903	2.000	25.000	.418
	Asians	2.401	2.000	42.000	.103
	Hispanics	3.582	2.000	25.000	.043

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Benefit	Whites	11.466	2.000	74.000	.000
	Blacks	4.685	2.000	25.000	.019
	Asians	4.093	2.000	42.000	.024
	Hispanics	10.443	2.000	25.000	.001
Ben * WS	Whites	.564	2.000	74.000	.571
	Blacks	.052	2.000	25.000	.950
	Asians	1.448	2.000	42.000	.246
	Hispanics	.239	2.000	25.000	.789

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Enjoyment	Whites	7.761	2.000	74.000	.001
	Blacks	7.154	2.000	25.000	.003
	Asians	3.451	2.000	42.000	.041
	Hispanics	1.181	2.000	24.000	.324
Enj * WS	Whites	4.396	2.000	74.000	.016
	Blacks	.403	2.000	25.000	.673
	Asians	.662	2.000	42.000	.521
	Hispanics	.798	2.000	24.000	.462

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Identity	Whites	13.607	2.000	74.000	.000
	Blacks	7.055	2.000	25.000	.004
	Asians	14.936	2.000	42.000	.000
	Hispanics	11.136	2.000	25.000	.000
Id * WS	Whites	2.609	2.000	74.000	.080
	Blacks	.203	2.000	25.000	.818
	Asians	.040	2.000	42.000	.961
	Hispanics	.514	2.000	25.000	.604

Means for Diversity for Whites, Blacks, Asians and Hispanics

	Low	Medium	High
Whites	1.951	3.702	5.876
Blacks	1.749	3.521	5.882
Asians	2.089	3.729	5.415
Hispanics	2.590	4.141	6.318

Means for Capability for Blacks and Asians

	Low	Medium	High
Blacks	5.174	5.096	6.671
Asians	5.014	4.999	5.552

Means for Capability for Hispanics for Work and Social Contexts

Work/Social	Enjoyment	Means
Work	Low	6.385
	Medium	5.769
	High	6.077
Social	Low	4.933
	Medium	5.667
	High	6.800

Means for Benefit for Whites, Blacks, Asians and Hispanics

	Low	Medium	High
Whites	4.493	4.941	5.758
Blacks	4.406	4.781	5.826
Asians	4.549	4.645	5.418
Hispanics	4.805	5.318	6.767

Means for Enjoyment for Whites, Blacks and Asians

	Low	Medium	High
Whites	6.514	5.953	5.606
Blacks	5.096	5.390	6.765
Asians	5.087	4.737	5.338

Means for Enjoyment for Whites for Work and Social Contexts

Work/Social	Enjoyment	Means
Work	Low	6.385
	Medium	5.769
	High	6.077
Social	Low	4.933
	Medium	5.667
	High	6.800

Means for Identity for Whites, Blacks, Asians and Hispanics

	Low	Medium	High
Whites	5.872	5.247	4.703
Blacks	3.278	3.949	4.984
Asians	2.815	3.405	4.865
Hispanics	3.756	4.985	5.515

Anova Tables for Low and Medium Diverse Mixed Gender Pictures for all 5 Dependent Variables (Pictures 2 and 4)

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Diversity	Whites	58.635	1.000	75.000	.000
	Blacks	16.795	1.000	26.000	.000
	Asians	1.492	1.000	43.000	.229
	Hispanics	5.717	1.000	26.000	.024
Div * WS	Whites	.000	1.000	75.000	.989
	Blacks	2.017	1.000	26.000	.167
	Asians	1.492	1.000	43.000	.229
	Hispanics	1.409	1.000	26.000	.246

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Capability	Whites	2.241	1.000	75.000	.139
	Blacks	.869	1.000	26.000	.360
	Asians	4.162	1.000	43.000	.048
	Hispanics	1.007	1.000	26.000	.325
Cap * WS	Whites	.150	1.000	75.000	.699
	Blacks	.494	1.000	26.000	.489
	Asians	.798	1.000	43.000	.377
	Hispanics	.100	1.000	26.000	.754

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Benefit	Whites	.421	1.000	75.000	.518
	Blacks	.041	1.000	26.000	.842
	Asians	.013	1.000	43.000	.909
	Hispanics	.566	1.000	26.000	.459
Ben * WS	Whites	.117	1.000	75.000	.733
	Blacks	.396	1.000	26.000	.535
	Asians	1.635	1.000	43.000	.208
	Hispanics	5.247	1.000	26.000	.030

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Identity	Whites	59.530	1.000	75.000	.000
	Blacks	.609	1.000	26.000	.442
	Asians	2.001	1.000	43.000	.164
	Hispanics	2.651	1.000	26.000	.116
Id * WS	Whites	.057	1.000	75.000	.812
	Blacks	.062	1.000	26.000	.805
	Asians	.037	1.000	43.000	.848
	Hispanics	4.214	1.000	26.000	.050

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Enjoyment	Whites	59.530	1.000	75.000	.000
	Blacks	.037	1.000	26.000	.849
	Asians	6.862	1.000	43.000	.012
	Hispanics	.153	1.000	25.000	.699
Enj * WS	Whites	.356	1.000	75.000	.553
	Blacks	.142	1.000	26.000	.709
	Asians	4.816	1.000	43.000	.034
	Hispanics	2.760	1.000	25.000	.109

Means for Diversity for Whites, Blacks and Hispanics

	Low	Medium
Whites	5.009	3.737
Blacks	5.930	4.040
Hispanics	5.354	4.285

Means for Capability for Asians

	Low	Medium
Asians	5.679	6.054

Means for Benefit for Hispanics for Work and Social Contexts

Work/Social	Benefit	Means
Work	Low	5.615
	Medium	6.538
Social	Low	5.600
	Medium	5.133

Means for Identity for Whites

	Low	Medium
Whites	4.510	6.135

Means for Identity for Hispanics for Work and Social Contexts

Work/Social	Benefit	Means
Work	Low	5.231
	Medium	5.385
Social	Low	5.800
	Medium	4.467

Means for Enjoyment for Whites and Asians

	Low	Medium
Whites	5.952	6.840
Asians	5.210	5.858

Means for Enjoyment for Asians for Work and Social Contexts

Work/Social	Benefit	Means
Work	Low	5.577
	Medium	6.769
Social	Low	4.842
	Medium	4.947

Anova Tables for Low, Medium and High Diverse Mixed Gender Pictures for all 5 Dependent Variables (Pictures 4 vs 256 vs 78)

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Diversity	Whites	189.156	2.000	74.000	.000
	Blacks	14.408	2.000	25.000	.000
	Asians	35.347	2.000	42.000	.000
	Hispanics	48.324	2.000	25.000	.000
Div * WS	Whites	1.183	2.000	74.000	.312
	Blacks	.460	2.000	25.000	.637
	Asians	.998	2.000	42.000	.377
	Hispanics	1.797	2.000	25.000	.187

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Capability	Whites	1.032	2.000	74.000	.361
	Blacks	1.764	2.000	25.000	.192
	Asians	2.294	2.000	42.000	.113
	Hispanics	.444	2.000	25.000	.647
Cap * WS	Whites	.954	2.000	74.000	.390
	Blacks	.507	2.000	25.000	.608
	Asians	.374	2.000	42.000	.690
	Hispanics	.007	2.000	25.000	.993

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Benefit	Whites	1.443	2.000	74.000	.243
	Blacks	4.710	2.000	25.000	.018
	Asians	1.526	2.000	42.000	.229
	Hispanics	4.182	2.000	25.000	.027
Ben * WS	Whites	1.092	2.000	74.000	.341
	Blacks	.328	2.000	25.000	.724
	Asians	1.619	2.000	42.000	.210
	Hispanics	.488	2.000	25.000	.620

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Enjoyment	Whites	20.341	2.000	74.000	.000
	Blacks	5.032	2.000	25.000	.015
	Asians	1.322	2.000	42.000	.277
	Hispanics	1.514	2.000	24.000	.240
Enj * WS	Whites	1.249	2.000	74.000	.293
	Blacks	.954	2.000	25.000	.399
	Asians	5.925	2.000	42.000	.005
	Hispanics	1.555	2.000	24.000	.232

	Ethnicity	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Identity	Whites	40.179	2.000	74.000	.000
	Blacks	4.300	2.000	25.000	.025
	Asians	1.406	2.000	42.000	.256
	Hispanics	2.739	2.000	25.000	.084
Id * WS	Whites	1.092	2.000	74.000	.341
	Blacks	.843	2.000	25.000	.442
	Asians	.388	2.000	42.000	.681
	Hispanics	2.828	2.000	25.000	.078

Means for Diversity for Whites, Blacks, Asians and Hispanics

	Low	Medium	High
Whites	3.737	5.447	7.091
Blacks	4.040	5.831	6.771
Asians	4.183	5.011	6.633
Hispanics	4.285	5.765	7.896

Means for Benefit for Blacks and Hispanics

	Low	Medium	High
Blacks	5.885	5.415	5.592
Hispanics	6.049	5.814	6.346

Means for Enjoyment for Whites and Blacks

	Low	Medium	High
Whites	6.840	5.958	5.512
Blacks	5.837	6.083	5.598

Means for Enjoyment for Asians for Work and Social Contexts

Work/Social	Benefit	Means
Work	Low	6.769
	Medium	5.692
	High	5.923
Social	Low	4.947
	Medium	5.211
	High	4.711

Means for Identity for Whites and Blacks

	Low	Medium	High
Whites	6.135	4.556	4.105
Blacks	3.652	4.526	4.487

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BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Niveditha Parthasarathy has always been interested in observing and reasoning the behavior of individuals alone and in groups. As her first step toward understanding the factors that shape human behavior and perception of others, she completed her bachelor's degree in psychology at the University of Madras, India. To keep up with technology, she also pursued a post-graduate diploma in software programming. Upon completion, she accepted a much coveted job offer from the National Institute of Information Technology (NIIT), Ltd., a reputed software consulting company in India. Working in an industrial setting gave her a chance to observe how psychological principles may be applied effectively to organizational problems and help enhance productivity, group morale and job satisfaction. This furthered her interest in inter-individual processes within a group such as stigma and stereotypes based on perception of diversity. In an effort to better understand how people perceive diversity and how to enhance the efficiency of diverse workgroups, she began my Ph.D. program in experimental psychology at the University of Texas at Arlington (UTA). Ten years from now, she sees herself in academia, combining her passion for both psychology and teaching to contribute in a unique manner to the field of social psychology.