ANTECEDENTS AND EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED AGE DISCRIMINATION
AGAINST EMPLOYEES UNDER 40

by

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ABSTRACT

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Over the past decade, much of the organizational literature has used age-associated stereotypes and the age context of jobs to explain the occurrence of age discrimination against older workers (e.g., Cleveland & Landy, 1983; Cleveland & Shore, 1992; Goldberg, Finkelstein, Perry & Konrad, 2004; Gordon, Rozelle & Baxter, 1988b; Rosen & Jerdee, 1976). However, legislation covering age discrimination and most of the management literature has overlooked the existence, significance, and effects of age discrimination against younger employees. Because previous age diversity research has overwhelmingly focused on older workers, younger workers are an important group about whom we know little. The declining ratio of younger workers
entering the workforce, and the greater racial and ethnic diversity of younger workers make understanding perceptions of discrimination among younger workers an important contribution to understanding of age diversity in organizations.

This study extends earlier works by utilizing the social dominance framework to explain bias and perceptions of age discrimination and its effects on younger, rather than older, employees. Further, the study investigates the existence and extent of age discrimination against younger workers and the relationships between age discrimination against younger employees and career progress outcomes (promotions, income, and management levels), job satisfaction, self-esteem, and intentions to quit. Recently, limited empirical research has found that younger workers are evaluated less favorably than older workers (e.g., Garstka, Hummert & Branscombe, 2005; Snape & Redman, 2003). Given the current variance of different generations interacting in the workplace, there is reason to believe that an age and power structure-social hierarchy may exist.

The results of this study indicate that there are no significant differences between younger and older employees’ perceptions of age discrimination. However, younger employees who perceive age discrimination to experience lower job satisfaction and intentions to quit, higher levels of stress, and lower self-esteem.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ........................................................................................................ iv

ABSTRACT ........................................................................................................................ v

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS ............................................................................................. viii

LIST OF TABLES ............................................................................................................. ix

Chapter

1. INTRODUCTION ........................................................................................................ 1

2. LITERATURE REVIEW .............................................................................................. 10

3. RESEARCH METHOD ............................................................................................... 34

4. RESULTS .................................................................................................................... 48

5. DISCUSSION .............................................................................................................. 65

APPENDIX

A. STUDENT SURVEY .................................................................................................... 77

B. MANAGER SURVEY ................................................................................................ 86

C. HRRC PROSPECTUS REVIEW FORM .................................................................. 93

REFERENCES ................................................................................................................ 95

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION .................................................................................. 109
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Model of Antecedents, Effects &amp; Moderators</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Measurement Model</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Structural Model</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Summary of Hypotheses</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Student Sample)</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Manager Sample)</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Section 1 SDO and Younger Worker Bias</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Section 2 Age, Power and Perceived Age Discrimination</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Results of Hypotheses Testing Using Regression, Section 1 &amp; 2</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Section 3 Hypothesis 9</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Section 3 Hypothesis 10</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Section 3 Hypothesis 11a</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Section 3 Hypothesis 11b</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Section 3 Hypothesis 11c</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Results of Hypothesis-Section 3</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Summary of Parameter Deletion-Measurement Model</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Results of Hypothesis Testing Using SEM</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Summary of Hypotheses Results</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Numerous theoretical approaches predict that being targeted by prejudice and discrimination will adversely affect the physical, economical and psychological well-being of its recipients (e.g., Allport, 1954; Cooley, 1956; Erickson, 1956; Mead, 1934). Race and sex forms of discrimination are significantly related to negative performance outcomes in the workplace, and high levels of psychological distress to the recipients (Brown, Sellers, Brown & Jackson, 1999; Cassidy, O’Connor, Howe & Warden, 2004; Garstka, Hummert, Branscombe, 2005; Noh, Beiser, Kaspar, Feng & Rummens, 1999, Noh et al., 1999; Williams & Williams-Morris, 2000). Similarly, age discrimination studies indicate that age evaluations influence people’s beliefs and judgments in a wide range of employment issues such as hiring, firing, promotion and employee performance evaluations (Avolio, Waldman & McDaniel, 1990; Cleveland & Shore, 1992; Garstka, Hummert, and Branscombe, 2005; Goldberg, Finkelstein, Perry & Konrad, 2004; Kanter, 1977; Lawrence, 1988; Rosen & Jerdee, 1976; Snape & Redman, 2003; Perry, Kulik & Bourhis, 1996). However, limited studies in management have assessed the physical and psychological well-being of the employees affected by perceived age discrimination.

Research on age discrimination has frequently posited that there is consistent discrimination against older employees. Furthermore, the majority of this research
indicates that younger employees (under 40) are favorably evaluated in the workplace at the expense of older workers (over 40). When the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) of 1967 was enacted in the United States those 40 or older were in fact a minority. By 1994, however, about half of the U.S. population was in the protected group and by 2010 it is estimated that those under 40 will be the new minority. As older people are now the numerical majority and holders of power, young employees may be subject to workplace discrimination.

Recently, some empirical research has found that younger workers are regarded less favorably than older workers (e.g. Garstka et al., 2005; Snape & Redman, 2003). In a study by Goldberg et al., (2004), younger workers earned significantly less than older workers even when education and experience were taken into account. Under the strictest interpretation of the law, there are no legal ramifications for employers who discriminate against younger employees in the U.S. However, some states such as Colorado, Maine, Maryland, Nevada, and New Mexico prohibit age-based discrimination against all persons 18 and older. The United Kingdom (U.K.) is bracing itself for a new proposed age legislation to go in effect in 2006 which will outlaw workplace discrimination for all age groups. The Employers Forum on Age group – a reputable organization comprised of leading employers in U.K. – suggests that employers will mostly face discrimination claims from the younger employees, who have been ignored by employers. The majority of Australian States have already adopted legislation that protects all ages against age discrimination (Bennington & Roberts-Calvert, 1998).
Limited research has been published on age discrimination against younger employees, and none has used the specific model hypothesized in this study. Thus, concern regarding the consequences of age discrimination is very timely and sorely needed. Snape and Redman’s (2003) study found that reports of discrimination for being ‘too young’ were as numerous as those for being ‘too old’. According to the International Labor Organization (ILO, 2005), the unemployment rate for young adults around the world is two to three times higher than for older adults. Most of the younger adults are also employed in the informal sector where wages are 44% lower than the formal sector and protection and benefits are non-existent (ILO, 2005). Negative employment effects can profoundly negatively impact young workers’ careers long into the future (ILO, 2005). There are also significant costs that employers can incur as a result of age discrimination. These include litigation-related costs if such discrimination is prohibited by law, turnover, lowered productivity and absenteeism as evidenced from other forms of discrimination (i.e., race and sex).

Much of the organizational literature has used age-associated stereotypes and age context of jobs to explain age discrimination (e.g., Cleveland & Landy, 1983; Cleveland & Shore, 1992; Garstka et al., 2005; Goldberg et al., 2004; Gordon, Rozelle & Baxter, 1988b; Rosen & Jerdee, 1976). This study extends earlier works by utilizing the social dominance framework to explain bias and perceptions of age discrimination and its effects on younger employees. Given the current increase of different generations interacting in the workplace, there is a strong reason to believe that one is very likely to find the power structure-social hierarchy so often associated with social
dominance theory. Since older workers comprise the fastest and largest growing group of employees in U.S. organizations—at nearly 4 times the rest of the labor force (DOL, 2004), the application of social dominance theory would lead to expectations of age group differentiations (i.e., older workers versus younger workers), which should increase intergroup bias and tension.

Over the past decade considerable research has investigated the antecedents and consequences of discrimination (Ruggiero & Taylor, 1997; Schmitt et al., 2002; Sellers & Shelton, 2003). Despite the growing literature on discrimination, less is known about the psychological implications of being a minority target of discrimination than the attitudes and behaviors of the sources of discrimination (Cassidy et al., 2004). This is an important oversight because of the negative effects of discrimination experienced by recipients, which may result in cascading negative implications for organizations. This study addresses this research weakness by investigating age discriminatory behavior that can occur against younger employees and the effects of such discrimination on psychological (self esteem, job satisfaction, intentions to quit, perceived fairness), physiological (stress) and career progress outcomes (managerial levels, promotion, salary).

Human Resources and Organizational Behavior Implications

Research exploring the effects of employees’ age on selection decisions in management literature has been described as limited (Morrow, McElroy, Stamper & Wilson, 1990; Singer & Sewell, 1989). The majority of the studies have focused on the role of employees’ age on promotional opportunities (e.g., Goldberg et al., 2004,
Perceptions of age discrimination by younger employees can negatively reduce the effectiveness of core Human Resources (HR) practices such as recruitment, promotion, selection for training, redeployment and performance appraisal. Furthermore, perceptions of age discrimination can affect job satisfaction, self-esteem, stress levels, and intentions to quit, which are constructs typically studied in organizational behavior (OB). Younger employees may perceive organizational practices as age biased and lose trust in the fairness and effectiveness of management practices. These perceptions of age discrimination may also negatively impact employees’ performance and organizational effectiveness. It is also important to understand factors that are likely to contribute to age discrimination in order to successfully control and eliminate the discrimination (Perry, Kulik & Bourhis, 1996).

Other forms of discrimination such as that based on sex and race are posited to have adverse effects on employees, which negatively impacts individual and organizational performance (Bell & McLaughlin, 2002; Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand & Magley, 1997).

**Centrality of Social Dominance Theory in Age Valuation Process**

Due to the considerable implications caused by age discrimination against younger employees in organizations, it is important to understand the antecedents and the effects of this discrimination. The central questions addressed in this study examine whether hierarchies and power structures existing in organizations foster age
discrimination against younger employees, and the effects of such discrimination.

Social dominance theory provides a framework which utilizes social discourse (e.g., stereotypes, attitudes, ideology), and individual and institutional behavior to conceptualize group-based social hierarchies (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). In social dominance theory, the dominant group tends to display greater amounts of ingroup bias than the subordinate group. Contrary to other psychological and structural theories, social dominance theory focuses on both individual and structural factors that influence group-based oppression (Sidanius et al., 2004). The theory suggests that organizations disproportionately allocate power, wealth, prestige etc., to dominant and privileged groups through hierarchical power structures, while allocating negative social value to low status groups (Sidanius et al., 2004). Thus, the theoretical underpinnings posit that group-based oppression is driven by systematic power structures within institutions and individuals leading to discrimination.

**Summary of Problem**

Along with other individual characteristics such as sex and race, perceptions about age have contributed significantly to organizational practices for many years. Age is used in performance evaluations, selection processes and also as a predictor of behavior and ability in organizations (Finkelstein, 1992). Current laws are designed to protect employees over 40 years age from age discriminatory practices. Age legislation and most of the management literature have overlooked the existence, significance, and effects of discrimination on younger employees. Contradictory standards exist regarding how literature portrays young adults/employees. For example, young adults
in corporate organizations are regarded as inexperienced and lacking the capability to assume leadership positions (Flint, 2000), and in a strange contradiction they are also argued to be favored by employers for lucrative positions occupied by older employees (Goldberg et al. 2004).

Thus, the current study examines the experience of perceived age discrimination against younger employees. Research on sex and race-based discrimination suggests that the effects of such discrimination are damaging and long lasting even when the discrimination is considered minimal (Cassidy et al. 2004; Bell & McLaughlin, 2002). Other research focusing on younger employees proposes that this group of workers is most likely to be exposed to negative discriminatory behavior that can have far reaching consequences over the life course of younger workers (Bell, 2005). Saks and Ashforth (1997) suggest that initial positive experiences at work can trigger a career success cycle for young workers. Therefore, I argue that younger employees who perceive discrimination will experience adverse effects such as limited career progress outcomes, stress, low self-esteem, low job satisfaction, and intentions to quit.

**Purpose of this Study**

Past research postulates that older employees experience adverse effects from age discrimination. Few studies have examined age discrimination or perceived age discrimination against younger employees in the workplace (e.g., Garstka et al., 2005; Goldberg et al., 2004; Snape & Redman, 2003), and even more limited research informs us about the mechanisms that facilitate age discrimination against younger employees, and the effects of such discrimination (Garstka et al., 2005; Snape & Redman, 2003).
This study expands on previous research by examining age discrimination against younger employees. It is posited that the power hierarchy in organizations leads to discriminatory behavior against younger employees. The power hierarchy is hypothesized to arise from the dominance of higher status groups in the workplace. The grouping of high status/dominant versus low status/subordinate categories of employees is explained through Social Dominance Theory (SDT).

Social dominance theory posits that young employees are most likely to belong to low status groups in organization. Literature on power dynamics in organizations proposes that low status groups are institutionally and directly discriminated against by high status groups. Therefore, I posit that young employees are likely to be recipients of discrimination through socialized techniques (i.e., stereotypes, norms) used by the higher status group that controls power hierarchy in organizations. Researchers have found that recipients of race and/or sex discrimination experience adverse effects such as wage differentials, less promotions, termination, turnover and psychological issues (Elliot & Smith, 2004; Elmsie & Sedo, 1996; Sanchez & Brock, 1996; Valian, 2002). Similarly, I also propose that young employees who experience age discrimination will have less promotional opportunities, higher levels of stress, lower self-esteem and less job satisfaction, leading to development of intentions to quit. I also propose that sex and race will moderate the relationship between age and age discrimination.

I acknowledge that age categorization differs depending on the organization. Employees considered young and on the fast track in one organization may be old and plateaued in another. In this study, age 40 is used to classify employees as “young” and
“old”. This is also consistent with government’s definition of older employees and the protected class by the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967. Moreover, researchers have followed this guideline when striving to differentiate who falls in the ‘younger’ or ‘older’ categories (e.g., Bellas, 2001; Cleveland et al. 1997). This is also consistent with U.S. society’s definitions. For instance, Fortune magazine has an almost yearly theme whereby they list the ‘young, rich and powerful’ who are under 40. High status /dominant and low status/ subordinate are used synonymously in this study.

Overview of this Study

This study will investigate the existence and extent of age discrimination against younger workers, and the relationships between age discrimination against younger employees and psychological, physiological and career progress outcomes. The moderating roles of race and sex are also investigated. In chapter 2, the literature on workplace power structure in organizations and its influence on propagating age discrimination against younger employees are reviewed and a comprehensive framework depicting the hypothesized relationships is presented. The effects of age discrimination on younger employees, such as psychological, physiological and career progress outcomes are reviewed. The posited moderating effects of race and sex are included in the framework. Chapter 3 includes a discussion of the research strategy, methodology, and measures that will be used in the study. Chapter 4 will contain the results of the study, and Chapter 5 will provide conclusions, limitations, and needs for future research.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Social Dominance Theory and Age Discrimination

Explanations in social sciences are generally defined as claims about antecedent causes of consequent events (Cook & Campbell, 1979). Typically, antecedents that covary with consequent events are regarded as causes of events (Cook & Campbell, 1979; Mackie, 1974). Explanations of differences between groups have clarified intergroup process such as stereotyping (Hewstone, 1990; Pettigrew, 1979), and the legitimation of social inequity (Pratto et al., 1994; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Social dominance theory (SDT) argues that societies create ideologies that promote the superiority of one group over another to minimize group conflict (Pratto et al., 1994; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). While social identity theory posits out-group denigration as a method for maintaining positive identity; SDT maintains that out-group alienation is used a device for maintaining superior group status (Pratto et al., 1994; Levin, 2004). SDT maintains that race, sex, and class stereotypes are consensually shared across groups to give moral and intellectual legitimacy to the hierarchical relations among groups (Sidanus et al., 2004). The main tenets of SDT posited by Sidanius and Pratto (1999) are that human group-based social hierarchies have the following distinct stratification systems: (a) an age system, in which older adults have more social power than the younger adults, (b) a gender system in which males have more social and political power than the females, (c) an arbitrary-set system which comprises socially
constructed highly salient groups based on characteristics such as race, social class caste, nation or any other socially relevant group distinction.

The society-created ideologies promote and legitimize discrimination by promoting and maintaining status inequalities among groups (Pratt et al., 1994). By promoting social consensus, these ideologies further contribute to normalized group inequality by legitimizing myths to support oppression among groups (i.e., institutional racism, social Darwinism, and meritocracy). The extent that one endorses legitimizing myths depends on whether or not he or she supports a group-based social hierarchy. This generalized orientation toward group-based hierarchy is called social dominance orientation. Following is a description and discussion of how legitimizing myths and social dominance orientation factor into social dominance theory.

**Legitimizing Myths**

Legitimizing myths (LMs), which are key components of SDT, consist of attitudes, values, beliefs, stereotypes, and ideologies that provide justification for creating group hierarchies (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). Negative stereotypes of subordinate groups, sexism, and classical racism are all examples of LMs. According to Sidanius and Pratto (2001), the extent to which LMs are highly effective is dependent on the consensus, embeddedness, certainty and mediational strength of the LMs. Consensus in LMs’ refers to the degree that LMs are accepted in both dominant and subordinate groups. For example, studies on anti-black racism have asserted that racist beliefs about Blacks are not simply held by Whites, but also by Blacks. Embeddedness refers to the extent which LMs are ingrained into the social fabric. Certainty pertains to
the degree that a LM is regarded as moral, religious or as a scientific truth. Meditational strength is concerned with the extent to which a given LM supports a social policy that endorses group based hierarchy.

**Social Dominance Orientation**

The social dominance orientation (SDO) is the psychological component of SDT (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). SDO refers to the extent to which one’s group aspires to dominate the subordinate or out-group (Pratto et al., 1994). Generally, SDO can apply to any group distinctions (i.e., sexes, races, social classes, nationalities, regions, religions, etc) existing within a given social context. Individuals with high levels of SDO gravitate towards policies favoring hierarchies, contrary to those low on social dominance orientation. Therefore, according to Pratto et al. (1994), “SDO is thus the central individual-difference variable that predicts a person’s acceptance or rejection of numerous ideologies and policies relevant to group relations” (p. 742). SDO is also proposed to be significantly affected by one’s membership and identification with highly salient hierarchical organization (i.e., it is expected for dominant members who identify with other dominant members to have higher levels of SDO), the background and socialization factors to which an individual is exposed, temperamental predispositions that an individual is born with, and the sex (men are regarded to have higher levels of SDO than females) of the individual. Therefore, individuals who score high on SDO use and prefer social ideologies that enhance group inequality while individuals low on SDO use and prefer ideologies that attenuate group inequality.
Pratto et al. (1994) posit that groups with the highest levels of social dominance orientation are the most powerful (i.e., belong to dominant groups) and that they define the sharpest power differential within any society at any given time. For example, the social class hierarchical system has been the primary continuum for social stratification for much of modern European history and the key driver for SDO in that part of the world (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). Alternatively, in the U.S., race relations rather than social class has always been and continue to be the primary basis of social stratification and the primary driver of SDO (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). Individuals who possess negative biases towards others are more likely to discriminate (Perry et al., 1996). Therefore, the above discussion leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1a: Employees with higher levels of SDO are more likely to express younger worker bias.

Hypothesis 1b: Managerial bias will lead to perceived age discrimination among younger employees.

**Age System and Perceived Age Discrimination towards Younger Employees**

Evidently, age plays an important role in influencing both employer and employee behaviors (Lawrence, 1988). Both employers and employees evaluate and compare ages in organizations (Lawrence, 1988). Although this exercise may appear insignificant, its result can have over arching consequences on a wide range of employment issues such as hiring decisions, promotion opportunities and employee performance (Dalton & Thompson, 1971; Kanter, 1977; Rosen & Jerdee, 1976). Academic disciplines such as anthropology, sociology, social psychology (Atchley,
and more recently organizational behavior (Avolio, Waldman & McDaniel, 1990; Lawrence, 1988; Snape & Redman, 2003) have investigated the effects of age on organizational outcomes. Sociologists recognize age as the basic element in social structure and human life span and use two general theoretical perspectives to differentiate the different temporal dimensions relating to age: the sociocultural (normative) and cohort-historical (chronological) (Elder, 1975).

The sociocultural perspective, also known as the normative age, gives emphasis on the social meaning of age and its contextual relation to the biological human life span. Social facts and constructions are ingredients in the formation of age categories, grades and social classes across societies (Eisenstadt, 1956; Gulliver, 1968). Normative age considers socially recognized divisions of the human life span generalized across society or restricted to some institutional domains (Elder, 1975). Age grades within normative age are defined by age norms that provide a basis for self-definition and specify the appropriate behavior, roles, and time schedules (Elder, 1975). The cohort-historical perspective or chronological age mainly considers the biological facts and social indicators in the study of human life span (Elder, 1975). Chronological age considers life stages and the aging process and uses actual age distributions as a proxy for age norms. Further, the chronological age approach examines the relationship between age distribution and behavior rather than that between age norms and behavior (Lawrence, 1988). Both methods argue that people apply social pressures on those who deviate from behaviors considered typical for an age group (Lawrence, 1988).
Evidence suggests that all social systems have developed age-related behavioral standards (Eisenstadt, 1956; Neugarten & Datan, 1973; Neugarten, Moore & Lowe, 1965; Neugarten & Petersen, 1957; Passuth, Maines & Neugarten, 1984) such as age appropriate social roles and activities, which define the formal and informal networks of control (Neugarten & Datan, 1973). Following, employees observe age distributions, develop shared judgments of those distributions, and see the behavioral patterns that evolve around age as standards of behavior (Lawrence, 1988). Every day organizational gossip such as “Isn’t she/he a bit too young for that managerial job?” is an example of how employees apply such standards in their evaluation of roles and statuses (Lawrence, 1988). Lawrence (1988) observed that the respondents in her study perceived lower management levels to be occupied by younger employees while upper level managers were likely to be occupied by older employees. For most of the identified management progression timetables, it is the norm for younger employees to occupy lower level positions in organizations.

Employees who violate these socially established boundaries are perceived as deviants and may be punished accordingly by other employees (Lawrence, 1988). Such patterns of behavior and processes evolve from the social normative age group perspective. Normative age groups within organizations develop because employees of similar age share comparable experiences and therefore eventually develop like attitudes and beliefs. These groups of employees proceed to perceive themselves as distinct and specify the rules of membership versus non-membership, thus establishing standards of behavior. As suggested above, employers’ and employees’ evaluations of
age in organizations can lead to discriminatory practices against both younger and older employees. In an article entitled “Young Losers,” Flint (2001) blamed the loss of the Detroit auto market share to foreign competitors on the bad management practices of young executives whom he essentially thought had progressed too fast for their own good. He associated being young with a lack of maturity, experience and commitment.

According to the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2001), one in 12 under-age 35 has been told that they are too young for certain job roles. Popular press suggests that actually twice as many in that age group believe that they have been discriminated against for being too young (Clement, 1999; Corporate Finance 2002).

In organizations, positions of power are historically and most frequently occupied by older white men (Harley, Jolivette, McCormick & Tice, 2002). According to Harley et al., (2002), white middle-aged to older men own and control nearly all of the economic system. This group is regarded as the dominant culture and the makers of the constitution, power holders, and developers of public policy (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 1999; Harley et al., 2002). Research indicates that to legitimately retain this power, members of high status/dominant groups seek to justify their advantaged positions by arguing that their privilege is a result of hard work and expertise relative to younger workers and other disadvantaged groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). Power in the workplace is an important dimension of stratification occurring in all positions, even in the most mundane jobs. Power in the context of supervision or ruling of others has great influence in the workplace and over all aspects of social behavior at work (Bendix, 1956; Braverman, 1974; Dahrendorf, 1959). An individual or a group with
more power than others in the workplace typically has a higher rank, higher earnings, more status, more perks, and multiple ways of accumulating income than individuals possessing less amounts of power (Wolf & Fligstein, 1979). The power structure and group hierarchies existing in organizations are suggested to be responsible for institutional and direct forms of discrimination (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Ascriptive dissimilarity is posited as a strategy that dominants use to retain inequality and power in organizations (Elliot & Smith, 2004). In perhaps the best known discussion of these dynamics, Kanter (1977) contends that with movement up organizational hierarchies, power position holders place a premium on discretion and trust among workers selected to advance up the power hierarchy. One way that dominant groups try to maximize trust and discretion and impose greater predictability on an otherwise uncertain environment is to maintain relative social homogeneity among individuals they select to fill positions of organizational power beneath them. The underlying idea is that communication, discretion, and trust are facilitated by social similarity. Dominant groups in organizations prefer this type of relationship over the strain of dealing with subordinate groups who are viewed as different and less trustworthy when higher degrees of legitimate authority are at stake.

Kanter refers to this process generally as “homsocial reproduction” because it tends to reproduce the social characteristics of organizational power structures over successive generations of employees. Because older white men have historically held the reins of power in U.S. workplaces, they benefit most from these universal tendencies for in-group favoritism as they move up organizational hierarchies, creating
increasing inequality for out-group members. Homosocial reproduction operates in a vertical fashion, with dominants selecting individuals like themselves to fill power positions below them. To illustrate this concept Harley et al., (2002) suggest the following example: “consider a simple a three-level firm in which managers are As, supervisors are Bs, and workers are Cs. (1) As will tend to fill openings for B with individuals like themselves; (2) likewise, Bs will tend to fill openings for C with individuals like themselves; (3) the first tendency will be greater than the second tendency because more power is at stake”. The authors further suggest that “this process benefits white men more than other groups because white men are the group best positioned to benefit from ingroup favoritism at higher levels of power” (Harley et al., 2002). Therefore, based on the above rich discussion on social hierarchies and different allocation of power between old and younger workers in organizations, the following hypotheses are suggested:

Hypothesis 2: Younger employees will perceive more age discrimination in organizations than older employees.

Hypothesis 3: There will be an inverse relationship between power and perceived discrimination. Younger employees with less power will perceive more age discrimination in organizations.

**Effects of Age Discrimination on Younger Employees**

**Career Progress Outcomes**

Research on career progress outcomes has shown sex and race effects (Goldberg et al. 2004). Despite the increased opportunities when compared with the past, research
is rich with data on the various challenges that minorities continue to encounter while advancing their careers in the workplace (e.g., Brass, 1985; DiTomaso et al., 1988; Ibarra, 1993; Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley, 1990; Pershing, 2003; Powell & Graves, 2003; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989; Ragins & Cotton, 1991; Ragins, 1989; Scandura, 2003). Minority members experience low levels of job discretion and influence as a result of their status as outgroups in their organizations (Ilgen & Youtz, 1986). Kanter (1977) posited that minority employees have low access to opportunity and power in organizations. They are also more likely to be viewed as less competent and are expected to have lower performance (Powell & Graves, 2003). These low expectations for minorities have been reflected by the large numbers of minorities congregated in lower levels of management regardless of experience and education (Greenhaus et al., 1990). Further evidence indicates that black managers possess less power, discretion, and autonomy, in comparison to white managers (Fernandez, 1975; 1981).

As suggested earlier, minorities generally have lower status or perceived value than men and whites, and occupy the least desirable jobs in organizations. Bouno and Kamm (1983) suggest women and minorities generally occupy the “poor” jobs. Minorities occupy half of all managerial and professional positions in lower levels of organizations, yet they only account for only 6 to 9% in high-ranking positions of power and influence (Catalyst, 2000; Greenhaus et al., 1990). The few minorities in executive level positions are more likely to be in service industries with no direct line
responsibility, and often head divisions where other minorities are employed (Valian, 1998).

Organizations use a variety of methods and mechanisms to determine pay rates. The degree of sex inequality in pay can be influenced by institutional norms (Roth, 2003). Minorities earn substantially less than white men in almost all occupations, even after controlling for experience and education levels (Valian, 1998). Goldberg et al. (2004) found that younger employees and women significantly earned less than older employees and men even when experience was controlled. Even with increasing numbers of minorities graduating from college, attaining higher degrees and in the workforce, a disparity still exists in compensation. Although women comprise more than half of the degree holders and middle managers, the economic status of women in corporate organizations remains lower than that of men especially since many other benefits such as pension, bonuses, 401K plans are dependent on the salary earned. Gendered patterns of work in organizations result in women earning less, and occupying the least desirable jobs in organizations. It is estimated that women on the average make seventy-seven cents for every dollar that men make, and that women managers earn 67% of what men managers earn (Padavik & Reskin, 2002; Powell & Graves, 2003). Further categorization exists within gendered professions, which results in women of color earning less, getting the least preferred shifts, and basically getting less desirable outcomes than their white colleagues (Shields & Price, 2002).

Limited studies have investigated the effects of age discrimination on career progress outcomes (Goldberg, 2004). Evidence supports the idea that older employees
have a wage advantage and attain higher managerial levels compared to the younger employees even when education and experience are taken into account (Goldberg, 2004). In the last two decades, the number of young employees in the managerial and professional specialties has remarkably increased especially with regards to women where the numbers have doubled (DOL, 2002). Technology intensive industries such as the internet, airlines, technology and telecoms are recruiting young executives (Corporate Finance, 2000). Because this new breed of executives is younger, many question whether ability and ambition can be a viable substitute for age and experience (Corporate Finance, 2000).

The few younger employees who attain positive career progress have been associated with many names that seek to reinforce their youth in a not so flattering manner. Younger employees have been referred to as “slackers” (individuals who lack drive and ambition), and “whiners” (those who complain without reason) (DOL, 1998). Among the major issues raised concerning younger employees are questions regarding their credibility (Corporate Finance, 2000). Even though these young professionals may be well seasoned in their expertise, they may still be viewed as lacking in experience and not rewarded accordingly by the older generation who control organizations (Corporate Finance, 2000). Therefore, it is predicted that:

Hypothesis 4: Younger employees who perceive age discrimination will have poorer career outcomes (less managerial levels outcomes, fewer promotions, and lower pay).
Job Satisfaction

Research suggests that affective work outcomes such as job satisfaction and commitment to organizations can be determined by the interaction between an employee’s personal characteristics, features of the job, other employees and the organization as a whole (Kristof, 1996; Taris et al., 2005). The psychological, social, and structural elements of the work environment can affect employees’ physical and mental well-being as well as their performance and job satisfaction (Bond et al., 2004; Messing 2000). Further, employees who are highly dissatisfied with their jobs are more likely to intend to quit (Clark, 1997; Freeman, 1978; Shields & Price, 2002). Bond et al (2004) found that past research has focused on the effects of interpersonal discrimination, neglecting the influence of structural organizational elements such as conditions of work, occupational segregation, salary inequities, and differentials levels of job decision latitude. Such factors are considered to be predictors of employees; well-being and job satisfaction (Bond et al., 2004).

Employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs are more likely to have intentions to quit their jobs (Shields & Price, 2002). The more the employee identifies and fits the requirements of the job and surrounding work environment; the more likely he/she will be committed and satisfied, and less likely to develop intentions to quit the organization. Shields and Price’s (2002) study found that minority nurses were more dissatisfied with their jobs if racial discrimination was from their colleagues and immediate work surroundings rather than external patients. They found that younger highly trained nurses who had experienced racial discrimination were more likely to be
The least satisfied with their jobs and indicate higher intention to quit their jobs. Laband and Lentz (1998) also found strong evidence linking the experience of sexual harassment and discrimination to reduced job satisfaction and an increased probability of intentions to quit the organization. Therefore, younger employees who perceive age discrimination from their surrounding work environment are most likely to be dissatisfied. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5: Perceived age discrimination of younger employees will be negatively related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6: Job satisfaction will mediate the direct effects of perceived discrimination on intentions to quit for younger employees.

**Self-esteem**

Several theoretical perspectives in social psychology posit that experiencing prejudice will damage the self-esteem of its targets (Crocker & Major, 1987). For example, if members of subordinate groups recognize prejudice as rejection by the dominant group, the "looking-glass" approach to the self (Cooley, 1956; Mead, 1934) postulates that the subordinates are likely to accept the negative evaluations and have lower self-esteem. Similarly, an efficacy-based approach to self-esteem posits that because positive self-esteem is built by gaining a sense of control over one's environment (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1983; White, 1959), the helplessness accompanied by prejudice and discrimination reduces feelings of control, therefore harming self-esteem among subordinates.
The labor markets are divided into primary and secondary tier jobs (Dickens & Lang, 1985). The primary tier consists of jobs that offer high wages, training and opportunity for advancement, while jobs in the secondary sector pay low wages and do little to develop the skills required by primary sector jobs. Younger employees are overrepresented in secondary sector jobs that have minimal training and do not reward education or stability. Researchers agree that past training and experience are important determinants of the current productivity of employees (Elmslie & Sedo, 1996a; Piore, 1970). If these factors are denied to a group of employees at a given point in time, they will be unable to compete with their favored counterparts in the future. Therefore, young employees tend to form work habits and develop labor force characteristics that are consistent with the requirements of their secondary sector jobs, creating a cycle of discrimination that is reinforced by the behavior of employees as well as employers.

Effects of discrimination early in a career can have effects on job quality that persist even after the initial discrimination has been eliminated. Therefore, even if discrimination itself is not a long-term phenomenon, the effects of such behavior can have persistent effects on job quality. Perceived discrimination leads to severe adverse psychological conditions that can affect motivation and future learning abilities (Elmslie & Sedo, 1996b). Individuals who are subjected to discrimination in the workplace are likely to experience negative psychological effects that hinder their ability to search for future employment or advance in their current organizations (Elmslie & Sedo, 1996b). Furthermore, high levels of learned helplessness occur in circumstances where one is discriminated against due to characteristics such as race, gender and age. These high
levels of helplessness lead individuals to internalize failure, resulting in self-esteem problems (Elmslie & Sedo, 1996b). Black youth exposed to discriminatory practices are prone to low levels of self-esteem and disengagement from social life (Spurlock, 1973). Similarly, Rumbaut (1994) found that ethnic discrimination was one of the several race related correlates of depressive symptoms and self-esteem. Thus, it is predicted that:

Hypothesis 7: Perceived age discrimination of younger employees will be negatively related to employee self-esteem.

**Stress**

Stress is generally defined as the negative affect and cognitive state related to the occurrence of specific events and or/ specific appraisals (Aneshensel, 1992; Arnold, 1990; Avison & Gotlib, 1994; Cockerham, 1996; Brown et al., 2001; William & House, 1991). A sense of lessened environmental control, heightened physical or emotional distress, hopelessness, disappointment and anxiety can induce or result in stress (Brown et al., 2001). Although stress may not be perceived as life threatening, chronic or long lasting, stress can have devastating effects on nearly all aspects of employee behavior and organizational functioning (Crocker, 1999). Evidence suggests that stress is a major contributor to adverse psychological effects among adults and children (Arnold, 1990; Avison & Gotlib, 1994; Colten & Gore, 1991; Thoits, 1995). Epstein (1998) suggests that younger employees are more susceptible to stress. Stress related ailments on employees include; heart disease, stroke, gastrointestinal problems, respiratory disorders, emotional difficulties, depression, burnout, and violence (Epstein, 1998).
Concerning organizations, stress has been attributed to high turnover, absenteeism, poor performance, accidents and sabotage (Westman & Eden, 1997).

Social stress theory extends the regular stress theory by positing that factors in the social environment can additionally influence stress experienced by individuals. Meyer (2003) further elaborates on social stress by including minority stress, which is the stress that subordinate groups encounter from social settings due to their social status. Minority stress is inferred from several sociological and psychological theories that discuss adverse effects of social conditions such as prejudice and stigma (Allport, 1954; Crocker, Major & Steele, 1998; Jones et al., 1984; Link & Phelan, 2001). Compared to white young adults, black young adults are disproportionately exposed to high-risk environments, more poverty, and are more likely to experience high crime rate, and unemployment. This exposure to psychosocial stressors has been attributed to stressful life events, and both the internalizing and externalizing of disorders (Attar, Guerra, and Tolan, 1994; D’Imperio, Dubow & Ippolito, 2000). Thus, minorities or subordinate groups are likely to be subject to conflicts with the surrounding environment since the dominant culture, social structures and norms do not reflect those of the subordinates.

Interactions with others are also very crucial for the development of self and well-being. Symbolic interaction theories suggest that negative evaluations from others leads to negative evaluations of self (Clark et al. 1999). Therefore, negative stereotypes and prejudices can lead to subordinate groups evaluating themselves negatively. This deprivation of a sense of harmony between the stigmatized groups and the dominant
culture is damaging and the resultant stress is significant (Allison, 1998; Clark et al., 1999). Support is found in literatures concerned with social categorizations such as race/ethnicity and gender (Barnett & Baruch, 1987; Mirowsky & Ross, 1989; Pearlin, 1999; Swim et al., 2001). Other groups stigmatized by characteristics such as weight, physical illnesses, body marks have been found to experience elevated levels of stress (Miller & Myers, 1998; Fife & Wright, 2000; Jetten et al., 2001). Thoits’ (1999) review of stress and identity called for an investigation of the stressors affecting minority/subordinate groups as the next crucial step. Therefore, the application of the stress model to young employees affected by discrimination is relevant. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 8: Perceived age discrimination of younger employees will be negatively related employee’s stress.

Race, Social Dominance Theory and Age Discrimination

Bell (1992:12) states that “…Black people will never gain full equality in this country. Even those Herculean efforts we hail as successful will produce no more than temporary ‘peaks of progress’, short-lived victories that slide into irrelevance as racial patterns adapt in ways that maintain white dominance. This is a hard to accept fact that all history verifies”. Consistent with this statement, Blendon et al. (1995) report that 23% of their Black respondents perceive that racial equality will never be achieved. Another 46% of the Black respondents predict that racial problems will not be solved in their children’s lifetime.
Sidanius and Pratto (2001) suggest that even in countries that claim to have comprehensive discrimination laws (e.g., Sweden, Canada, Netherlands, United Kingdom, and United States) the unemployment rate among subordinate groups is approximately twice as high as that of the rest of the population. The subordinate groups hold the least desirable jobs, are excluded from many positions of authority and power, and disproportionately occupy the most low-skill jobs, all of which contribute to their lower wages (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). Increasing evidence further suggests that low status groups are last to be hired, first to be fired, receive the least amount of training, and are generally treated as inferior by both supervisors and fellow employees. In SDT, race is categorized under the arbitrary-set categories and it can be influenced by situational, status and ideological distinctions. For example, studies that have looked at group dominance orientation among dominants and subordinates groups have found the relationship attenuated with increased levels of education (Altemeyer, 1988). Nevertheless, the dominant races still had higher SDO than subordinate race groups.

Even though both black men and women experience race discrimination as members of a subordinate group, there is economic inequality existing between the two groups. While the black poverty rates are consistently two to three times that of whites, black women have higher poverty rates than black men (Dickerson, 2002). According to Bureau of Labor Statistics (1999), full-time employed black female workers earn 85 percent of what full-time black males earn. Higher poverty and lower earnings among black women suggest that they experience more discrimination than black men.
Alternatively, SDT further postulates that the subordinates’ males are more likely to experience more discrimination than subordinate females. Even though women from subordinate groups clearly suffer from gender discrimination along with the dominant women, when comparing just subordinate male and females; subordinate males are suggested to encounter more discrimination than subordinate females. This pattern has been found on several types of data sources; including perceptions of discrimination, archival data, and well-controlled field experiments (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). Hood and Cordovil’s (1992) study set precedence by disclosing strong evidence of the racial discrimination against black men by the British criminal justice system. Other studies such as housing discrimination studies and automobile retail market have supported the thesis that subordinate males experience more discrimination than subordinate females (Blau & Graham, 1990; Yinger, 1995). While both dominant and subordinate females are subject to gender discrimination, there is evidence that arbitrary-set discrimination will be higher for subordinate males than subordinate females and dominant females.

According to the economic-competition model, as the black population increases in a region, earnings discrimination against blacks increases because greater black representation evokes fear among white males of greater competition over opportunities (Cassirer, 1996). Because white men disproportionately control the personnel practices that determine labor market outcomes (Spaeth, 1985; Reskin & Ross, 1992), and sex segregation limits women’s access to better paying higher status male-typed jobs, (Bielby & Baron, 1984; King, 1992; Reskin, 1993), black women pose
little threat of economic competition to white males compared to black men (Cassirer, 1996) and are considered more “hireable” than black men (Dickerson, 2002). In support of the economic competition model, Cassirer’s (1996) study found that increases in black representation led to an increase in earnings for white men and women (black and white) in the both north and south regions of the U.S., but black men’s wages remained constant even though they still made relatively better wages than women. Thus, based on the above discussion, the following is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 9: Younger employees from minority races will perceive more age discrimination.

Hypothesis 10: Younger male employees from minority races will perceive more age discrimination than younger females from minority races.

**Sex Differences in Age Discrimination against Younger Employees**

SDT argues that men and women display psychological and behavioral differences in their general orientation towards expropriating social relations, systems of group-based social hierarchy, group oppression, sexual/reproductive strategies, and levels of SDO. In accordance with evolutionary psychology, SDT suggests that men will have higher levels of SDO than women because the accumulation of economic resources, social power, and social dominance are most instrumental to maintain a hierarchical system. Extensive empirical evidence from different global cultures supports the thesis that men have significantly higher levels of SDO (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). Furthermore, dominant men are suggested to be more predisposed to
accumulation of social power for the purposes of dominating subordinates and justifying their dominant position in the society.

Evidence supports the fact that white male employers relegate women, minorities, and young employees to low positions of authority (Elliot & Smith, 2004). Although significant progress has been made over the last two decades in advancing women’s rights and equal opportunity, women are still confronted by unfair inequalities in organizations (Bates & Heaven, 2000). Gender differences in workplace power are suggested to be an important source of occupational status and levels differences, and wage inequality (Halby, 1979; Kluegel, 1979; Robinson & Kelley, 1979; Smith, 1997; Wolf & Fligstein, 1979). Empirical studies reveal that power dynamics in organizations contribute to women and minorities’ lowered occupational status in organizations (Elliot & Smith, 2004; Wolf & Fligstein, 1979).

Stereotypes of femininity (e.g., higher on characteristics such as dependent, emotional and passive) are applied more to younger women than older women leading to biasing behavior in the workplace (Cleveland et al., 1999). Young females are three times more likely to report gender discrimination, while older women are perceived as more stable, active and hardy than younger women (Antecol & Kuhn, 2000; Feldman, Biringen & Nash, 1981). Wolf and Fligstein (1979) found that even with similar levels of education and occupational status, women possess considerably less power in the workplace compared to men. In similar vein, McGuire’s (2002) study suggests that women’s networks of power are also considerably less powerful compared to white men’s networks. Her comprehensive study found that even when black and white
women held jobs in which they had personal ties to the same types of higher-level employees as white men, they received significantly less work-related help from these ties than similarly situated white men. McGuire concludes that this discrepancy arises because network members are less likely to invest in women than (white) men as a result of cultural beliefs about power structure that ranks women below men. Furthermore, workers, not just employers, use race and gender to rank network members and this ranking influences the type and amount of assistance available to members of different groups. From the above discussion, the following is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 11a: Young female employees will perceive more age discrimination than young White male employees.

Hypothesis 11b: Young female employees from minority races will perceive more age discrimination than young White female employees.

Hypothesis 11c: Young female employees who perceive age discrimination will have less pay, less managerial level outcomes and fewer promotions compared to young White males.
Figure 1 A Model of the Antecedents, Effects & Moderations
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter discusses the sample, measures and statistical techniques used in the study. The chapter is divided into four parts. The first part begins with a discussion of the study design and samples used, followed by a description of the measures in the second part, the third part discusses the pilot study, and finally the fourth part discusses data collection, data preparation and the statistical techniques used to analyze the data.

Study Design and Data Collection

The research process involved a pilot study, which was conducted to test the psychometric properties of the proposed measures, and a main study whereby data was collected from a student sample and a field sample. The student sample included both graduate and junior level to senior level undergraduate students, while the field sample was comprised of the students’ supervisors/managers. Past research has questioned the generalizability of results obtained from students; however, since 90% of the students were currently employed and the rest held jobs in the past, it is reasonable to assume that their perceptions of age discrimination and its effects are representative of the work environment. Students who had never been employed were excluded from the sample.
Measures

The measures below were collected from the student sample except for social dominance orientation and younger worker bias which were collected from the managerial sample.

Independent Variables

Workplace Power

Survey respondents were asked three closed-ended questions commonly used in survey research on workplace power (Elliott and Smith, 2004). An example of a sample item included: “Do you supervise another employee who is directly responsible to you

Emulating the Elliott and Smith (2004) study, the responses to these questions were used to classify the employees into three hierarchies:

0=worker  (“no” to a, b, and c);
1=supervisor  (“yes” only to a);
2=manager  (“yes” to a, and “yes” to b or c).

Questions b and c are combined to create a single indicator of managerial success since as reported in other studies (i.e., Elliot & Smith, 2004), respondents who answered “yes” to b or c also answered “yes” to a; and additionally, the correlation between b and c in our pooled sample is quite high for both the student and managerial sample. Elliott & Smith (2004) further argue that b and c are conceptually similar since they represent the control over people and other resources found in organizations. This operationalization of workplace power is preferred over actual occupational based
measures because its legitimacy extends beyond officially recognized managerial occupations (Elliott and Smith, 2004).

**Social Dominance Orientation**

The 16 item measure developed by Pratto et al. (1994) measures the degree to which individuals endorse anti-egalitarian values, and support and perpetuate hierarchical group-based systems of inequality. The scale items tap on the beliefs regarding inequality in group relationships and the inherently inferiority or superiority of some groups compared to others. The items were rated on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Each participant was given an SDO score by calculating the mean response of the 16 items. Example item include: “Sometimes other groups must be kept in their place”. The scale shows a good internal reliability, averaging alpha = .88.

**Age**

Chronological age was an open ended question asking for the respondent’s age in years. Age was treated as a continuous variable.

**Moderators**

Respondents were asked to choose their race from the following categorization: Caucasian = 1; African American = 2; Asian = 3; Hispanic = 4; Native American = 5; and other = 6 (a space was provided for other category). Respondents were also asked to indicate their sex by selecting female = 1 or male = 2.
Dependent Variables

Modem Racism Scale (Bias)

The modem Racism Scale (McConahay, 1986) measures subtle racist attitudes as opposed to old-fashioned racism. This seven-item scale is measured on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (disagree strongly) to 5 (agree strongly). McConahay reports Cronbach alphas of .86 (McConahay, 1983). In this study the word “Black” was replaced with “younger employees.” Lower scores indicate prejudice or negative attitudes towards younger employees, while higher scores indicate a positive regard towards younger employees. The scale was used only on the managerial sample. An example item is: “Younger workers are too demanding in their push for equal rights.” The cronbach’s alpha for the scale’s reliability in this study was .71.

Perceived age discrimination

Items were adapted from a scale used by Sanchez and Brock (1996) to measure perceived race discrimination. The word “ethnicity” was replaced were replaced with “age” on all items to reflect age discrimination. An example item is: “I have been denied a promotion because of my young age.” The cronbach’s alpha for the 10 items previously used by Sanchez and Brock (1996) was .87. The cronbach’s alpha for the scale’s reliability in this study was .91.

Career Progress Outcomes

Respondents were asked to provide detailed information on career progress outcomes using items from Goldberg et al. (2004) study. These included salary, number of promotions, and management level. Number of promotions obtained since starting
the job and annual salary were open ended questions. Subjects were provided with a six-option response format to choose a level that was reflective of their current managerial level: 1 = non management position; 2 = first line supervisor; 3 = unit manager; 4 = middle manager or senior specialist such as senior financial analyst; 5 = functional manager, divisional manager, or department manager; 6 = CEO, senior executive or executive vice president.

**Job Satisfaction**

Items for the job satisfaction measure were derived from Hackman, Oldham and Jone (1976) study. Job satisfaction was measured with the five-item General Job Satisfaction scale, which is a subscale of the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Respondents reported their level of agreement with five items on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). An example item is: “All in all I am very satisfied with my current position.” The cronbach’s alpha for the scale’s reliability was .83.

**Job Stress**

Job stress was measured with a four-item scale developed by Motowidlo, Packard and Manning (1986). Example items included: “My job is extremely stressful,” and “Very few stressful things happen to me at work” (reverse-scored). Responses were made on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .80.
Self-esteem

Self-esteem was assessed using the 10-item scale from Rosenberg’s (1965) study. Previous researchers have also used this scale with a coefficient alpha of .85 (e.g., Turban & Keon, 1993). An example item rated on a four-point Likert scale is “On the whole, I am satisfied with myself” (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha for this study is .79.

Intentions to Quit

Four-item scale measured intentions to quit (Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1999). The cronbach’s alpha for two studies conducted by Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham (1999) was .92 and .93. An example item rated on a five-point Likert scale is, “I am thinking about leaving this organization” (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha for this study is .89.

Control Variables

Negative Affect

Negative affect was measured using a 10-item scale developed by Watson et al. (1988). This construct measures an individual's disposition to respond negatively across situations. Employees reported the extent to which they experienced each descriptor (e.g., upset, irritable, nervous) in general. Responses ranged from 1 (very slightly) to 5 (extremely). Example item include: “I am always irritable.” The cronbach’s alpha for the scale’s reliability in this study was .91.
Total Years of Work Experience

Respondents were asked to fill in the total number of years they had worked over all.

Education

Respondents were asked to choose their level of education attainment from the following categorization: High School Diploma/GED = 1; Some College = 2; Associate Degree = 3; Bachelor’s Degree = 4; Master’s Degree = 5; Professional Degree (i.e., Ph.D., J.D.).

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to test the psychometric properties of the proposed measures. The student sample included junior level to senior level undergraduate students, while the field sample was comprised of the students’ supervisors/managers. The students completed a survey in class, and also took a packet which contained a survey, consent letter and a stamped business-reply envelope to their supervisors/managers. The undergraduate students were given extra credit points for participating in both efforts. The surveys were returned in a business-reply envelope directly to the researcher. The total sample size for the pilot study was 135 student respondents and 100 supervisors/managers. Based on the results of the pilot study, the bias scale for the main study was replaced with the modern racism scale (modified). The original bias scale was a 7 item semantic differential scales developed by Cleveland, Festa and Montgomery (1988). Participants described younger workers on categories such as: 1 = attractive and 9 = unattractive; 1 = healthy and 9 = unhealthy; 1 = liberal and 9 = conservative  (reverse coded). Most of the respondents were reluctant
to rate their employees on the above criteria, and those that participated tended to only select a few of the positive semantics and left the rest blank. Additional, majority of the supervisors wrote that they did not feel comfortable rating their employees.

Data Analysis Techniques

Missing Data

Missing data is a common phenomenon occurring in both longitudinal and cross-sectional research (O'Rourke, 2003). Missing data can introduce bias into a study, reduce statistical power, affect generalizability, and affect interpretation of the results (O'Rourke, 2003). The most common ways of dealing with missing data include deletion and imputation (Figueredo et al., 2000; Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). Within the deletion tactic exists listwise deletion and pairwise deletion methods. Listwise deletion involves deleting a complete record while pairwise deletion involves deleting the case with missing data. Since structural equation modeling was one of methods used for analyses, pairwise deletion could not be used because it causes the determinant of the matrices not to be positive (Figueredo et al., 2000), which results in the multivariate models not being estimable and the analytical software failing to run (Figueredo et al., 2000).

In this study, both the mean imputation and the listwise deletion method were the preferred choices due to the method chosen to analyze the multivariate relationships in the study. Imputation with the mean method can reduce a variable's variance, and the reported statistics may be biased (Byrne, 2001). However, since less than 10 percent of the items used to measure the variables were missing, using imputation method was
determined to be acceptable. Similarly, listwise deletion can be problematic if the sample is small since it involves deletion of whole record. Since the sample size was large, listwise deletion was utilized. The original data had 465 records and 17 records that had more than 50% missing data were deleted. Imputation was performed using the mean of the variables for 20 additional cases that were missing about 10% of the data. The final data comprised of 448 records.

Methodology

Hierarchical regression and structural equation modeling (SEM) were the two main data analysis techniques used in this study. Hierarchical regression was used to test the relationship between the antecedents (age, power, SDO, bias) and perceived discrimination, control variables, and also the moderator effects.

Following, SEM was used for its robustness in the analysis of relationship with multiple latent and indicator variables. Even though SEM allows for the testing of moderator relationships, the process has been described as arduous and complex and there is also little consensus about the best approach (Marsh, 2002; Frazier, Tix & Barron, 2004: 120). Furthermore, “published examples of the direct estimation of interaction effects within SEMs are extremely rare because the required procedures are very demanding and have not yet been fully developed in the technical literature” (Boerzen & Bemish, 2003: 1295; Schurnacker & Mxoulides, 1998). Thus, hierarchical multiple regression will be used to test for interaction effects in the study.

SEM statistical methodology takes a confirmatory approach to the multivariate analysis of a theory regarding some social phenomenon (Byrne, 1994). Implicit in the
term structural equation modeling are two aspects of the methodology that state that causal relationships under investigation are represented by a series of regression equations (i.e., regression equations), and that the relationships can be depicted by a diagram to portray a clear conceptualization of the theory under study (Byrne, 1994). In this study, SEM is used to specify the phenomenon under investigation (outcomes of perceived discrimination) - in terms of cause and effect latent variables and their indicators. SEM using LISREL 8.50 (a statistical software package) permits analysis with multiple latent constructs and allows the integration of measurement error (Anderson, 1987). In this study, the relationships between perceived age discrimination and self-esteem, career outcomes, stress, job satisfaction leading to intentions to quit are investigated.

**Developing Structural Equation Models**

In SEM analysis, the following steps are observed: 1) specifying of the theoretical model in diagram or equations, 2) identifying the model using observed data, 3) estimating the model’s parameters, and 4) determining whether the predicted model fits the observed model. The above can be summarized into two models: the measurement model and structural model. The measurement model specifies the relationship between the observed and unobserved variables, while the structural model defines the relationship between latent variables (Byrne, 1994).

The measurement model assesses the relationships between the observed variables and each of the latent variables. In other words, it defines the relationship between the observed and the unobserved variables and also specifies the pattern by
which each measure loads on a particular factor (Byrne, 1994). The structural model assesses the relationships between the latent variables. It defines the relations among the unobserved variables; it specifies which latent variables—directly or indirectly—have some bearing on the values of other latent variables in the model (Byrne, 1994). In SEM analysis, the minimum sample size required for maximum likelihood estimation is N=100.

**Data Collection and Data Preparation**

The data collection period took place from January 2006 though March 2006. Surveys were used to collect data from the university students and their supervisors/managers. Students had to be currently employed or worked in the past in order to participate in the survey. About 90 % of the students were currently employed while the 10 % had worked in the past. Students were given extra credit both as an incentive for completing the survey and also to encourage them to submit surveys packets to their supervisors/managers. The packets given to supervisors/managers contained the following: consent form, a letter assuring the participant of confidentiality, survey, and a stamped return envelope. The students were told that their supervisors/managers would be randomly contacted to verify that the survey had indeed been completed by the intended individual. The students were asked after a couple of weeks to remind their supervisors/managers to complete the surveys. A total of 574 (465 students and 104 managers) surveys were completed. The response rate from the supervisors/managers was 20 %, while students’ response rate was 99 %.
Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the research design used to test the hypotheses. First, an overview of the research design and sampling procedure was discussed. Then the data collection method and means of operationalizing and measuring the variables were provided. Finally, the chapter concluded with a discussion of the statistical analysis used in the study. The next chapter presents the results of the statistical analysis.
Table 1 Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1a: Employees with higher levels of SDO are more likely to express younger worker bias.

Hypothesis 1b: Managerial bias will lead to perceived age discrimination among younger employees.

Hypothesis 2: Younger employees will perceive more age discrimination in organizations than older employees.

Hypothesis 3: There will be an inverse relationship between power and perceived discrimination. Younger employees with less power will perceive more age discrimination in organizations.

Hypothesis 4: Younger employees who perceive age discrimination will have poorer career outcomes (less managerial levels outcomes, fewer promotions, and lower pay).

Hypothesis 5: Perceived age discrimination of younger employees will be negatively related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6: Job satisfaction will mediate the direct effects of perceived discrimination on intentions to quit for younger employees.

Hypothesis 7: Perceived age discrimination of younger employees will be negatively related to employee self-esteem.

Hypothesis 8: Perceived age discrimination of younger employees will be negatively related employee’s stress.
Table 1 - continued

Hypothesis 9: Younger employees from minority races will perceive more age discrimination.

Hypothesis 10: Younger male employees from minority races will perceive more age discrimination than younger females from minority races.

Hypothesis 11a: Young female employees will perceive more age discrimination than young White male employees.

Hypothesis 11b: Young female employees from minority races will perceive more age discrimination than young White female employees.

Hypothesis 11c: Young female employees who perceive age discrimination will have less pay, less managerial level outcomes and fewer promotions compared to young White males.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter provides the results, interpretations and major findings of the study. An in-depth analysis of the results pertinent to each hypothesis is also discussed. The chapter is divided into four sections. The first section discusses sample characteristics. The second section presents hierarchical regression analyses and results. The third section discusses the use of the structural equation modeling technique. Finally, section four presents the SEM results of the measurement model, hypothesized structural model and modified structural model.

Sample Characteristics

In the student sample, 50.9% were male, 53.3% were White, 13.4% were Black, and 19.6% Hispanic. The average age of the student respondents were 26 years (SD 7.1), they worked an average of 31.15 hours per week, and had been working an average of 7.73 years. Industries represented included banking, airline, higher education, logistics etc. Job titles were equally diverse and included accountant, accounting supervisor, administrative project, aircraft mechanic, banker, business systems analyst, analyst, etc. Table 2 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations of the items in the study. The scales used in the study had high internal consistency reliability and all measures had cronbach’s alpha above .80 except for self-esteem (.79) and bias (.71). Nevertheless, self-esteem and bias cronbach’s alpha were above the standard cutoff point of .70.
In the supervisor/manager sample, 61.8% were male, 76% were White, 8% were Black, 7% were Asian, and 5% Hispanic. The average age of the field sample was 41.27 years (SD 10.39), and the managers had been working for 21.76 years on average. Industries represented were quite varied and included; manufacturing, retail, banking, service, education, medical, military, shipping, etc. Job titles included; accounting director, accounting supervisor, chief financial officer, architect, assistant director, owner, customer service manager, director of operations, director of sales etc. Table 3 presents a summary of the means, standard deviations and the correlations of the supervisor/manager.
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<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
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<th>7</th>
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<td>0.22**</td>
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<td>0.13**</td>
<td>0.14**</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.20**</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
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<td>-0.06</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
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<td>0.08</td>
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<td>0.02</td>
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<td>0.03</td>
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<td>0.07</td>
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<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.20**</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>-0.22**</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
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*SDO- Social dominance orientation; esteem- self-esteem; career- promotions, managerial levels & income; hours worked- hours worked per week
*p <.05
Table 2 - continued

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*SDO- Social dominance orientation; esteem- self-esteem; career- promotions, managerial levels & income; hours worked- hours worked per week
*p < .05
*N= 465

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations
(Manager Sample)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>SEX</th>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>SDO</th>
<th>MRS</th>
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<td>SEX</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>0.49</td>
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<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>41.27</td>
<td>10.40</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDO</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>(0.82)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>BIAS</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.37**</td>
<td>(.71)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*SDO- Social dominance orientation
*p < .05
*N= 104

51
Hierarchical Regression

This section analyzed the antecedents (age, SDO, power) of perceived discrimination and younger worker bias. Due to lack of unidimensionality, single construct nature of some of the antecedents, and use of control variables, SEM was not suitable for the analyses. Given these constraints, hierarchical regression was used to analyze the impact of age and power on perceptions of discrimination, SDO’s impact on younger worker bias, and the moderating relationships. Prior to running the regression analysis, correlations among the variables was examined (See Table 2 & 3) to ensure that none were above .70. Correlations higher than .70 are a strong indicator of multicollinearity issues and should be addressed before proceeding with the regression analyses (Tabachick & Fidell, 1996). None of the correlations in this study exceeded .50.

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the hypotheses in each section. Sections one, which comprised of hypothesis one (a-b), analyzed the relationship between SDO and bias towards younger workers, and the effect of bias on perceived age discrimination among younger workers. Section two comprised of hypotheses two and three, and analyzed the relationship between age and power with perceived discrimination, while controlling for negative affect, education and years of experience. Section three comprised of hypotheses nine, ten and eleven (a-c), analyzed the moderating effects of race and gender on the relationship between age and perception of age discrimination. Data collected from supervisors/managers were used in analyzing section 1, while the rest of the sections used student data.
Table 4 presents the results of section one. Managers’ SDO was positively related to younger worker bias ($\beta = .20, p < .005$), supporting hypothesis 1a. However, hypothesis 1b which suggested that managerial bias would be related to perceived age discrimination was not supported. In section two, a two step hierarchical regression was used. In the first step, the control variables, negative affect, education, and years of experience were included in the model. In the second step both age and power were entered. Table 5 presents the results of section two. In step 1, negative affect and education were positively significantly related to perceived discrimination ($p < .05$). In the second step, the relationship between power, age and perceived discrimination was non-significant. Thus, hypotheses 2, suggesting that younger workers will perceive more discrimination than older workers in organizations, was not supported. Hypothesis 3 which indicated that there would be an inverse relationship between power and perceived discrimination was also non-significant. Thus, hypothesis 3 was also not supported. In summary, section one and two yielded support for one of the hypotheses (see Table 6).

Table 4 Section 1 SDO and Younger Worker Bias

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>Adjusted $R^2$</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>SDO</td>
<td>Younger worker bias</td>
<td>.37*</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managerial Bias</td>
<td>Perceived Age Discrimination</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*SDO- Social dominance orientation
*p < .05
Table 5 Section 2
Age, Power, and Perceived Age Discrimination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Step 1 β</th>
<th>Step 2 β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Discrimination</td>
<td>Control Variables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative Affect</td>
<td>0.24*</td>
<td>0.24*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Years of Experience</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>0.11*</td>
<td>0.11*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Independent variables</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.05</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Power</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R²</td>
<td>0.26</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adjusted R²</td>
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<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p <.05

Table 6 Results of Hypotheses Testing Using Regression
Section 1 & 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>Hypothesis 1</th>
<th>Employees with higher levels of SDO are more likely to express younger worker bias.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Hypothesis 2</td>
<td>Younger employees will perceive more age discrimination in organizations than older employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Hypothesis 3</td>
<td>There will be an inverse relationship between power and perceived discrimination. Younger employees with less power will perceive more age discrimination in organizations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=Not Significant, S=Significant

Section three tested interaction effects for hypotheses 9, 10, 11a, 11b, and 11c. For all the above hypotheses, a three step hierarchical regression was used to test for interaction effects. In step one, as in section two, the control variables of negative
affect, education and total years of work experience were entered. Following, age construct was entered in step two. In step three, the interaction was entered. For all the above hypotheses, the interaction effects were non-significant (see Table 7 to 11) and therefore the alternate comparisons in the hypotheses were not tested and thus hypothesis 9, 10, 11a, 11b, and 11c (See Table 12) were not supported.

Table 7 Section 3 Hypothesis 9

<table>
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<th>Step 3 β</th>
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<td>Control Variables</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative Affect</td>
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<td>.24*</td>
<td>.25*</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Years of Experience</td>
<td>-.04</td>
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<td>-.08</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>.10*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent variables</td>
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<td>.06</td>
<td>.04</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Race</td>
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<td>-.10</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactions</td>
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<td>.06</td>
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<tr>
<td>R²</td>
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*p < .05
Table 8 Section 3 Hypothesis 10

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*p < .05

Table 9 Section 3 Hypothesis 11a

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<tr>
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<td>.24*</td>
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<tr>
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*p < .05
Table 10 Section 3 Hypothesis 11b

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<tr>
<td>Negative Affect</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>.20*</td>
<td>.20*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Years of Experience</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.28*</td>
<td>-.28*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.17*</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent variables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age*Race (11b)</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R²</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05

Table 11 Section 3 Hypothesis 11c

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Promotions Step 1</th>
<th>Promotions Step 2</th>
<th>Management Levels Step 1</th>
<th>Management Levels Step 2</th>
<th>Income Step 1</th>
<th>Income Step 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived discrimination</td>
<td>-.088</td>
<td>-.100</td>
<td>-.007</td>
<td>.128</td>
<td>-.051</td>
<td>-.255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>-.019</td>
<td>-.027</td>
<td>-.047</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>-.053</td>
<td>-.185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived*Sex(11c)</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.169</td>
<td>.255</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R²</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>-.002</td>
<td>-.002</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05
Table 12 Results of Hypotheses Testing Using Regression

Section 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Hypothesis 9</th>
<th>Younger employees from minority races will perceive more age discrimination.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Hypothesis 10</td>
<td>Younger male employees from minority races will perceive more age discrimination than younger females from subordinate races.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Hypothesis 11a</td>
<td>Young female employees will perceive more age discrimination than young White male employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Hypothesis 11b</td>
<td>Young female employees from minority races will perceive more age discrimination than young White female employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Hypothesis 11c</td>
<td>Young female employees will have less pay, less managerial level outcomes and fewer promotions compared to young White males race.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=Not Significant, S=Significant

Analysis of Hypothesized Relationships Using SEM

In the second half of the analysis, SEM was used to test the hypothesized relationships. The SEM analysis used the two step procedure recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and Byrne (2001). First, a measurement model also known as confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted in order to evaluate the relationship between indicators and the latent variables they are supposed to measure. Second, the structural model which tests the relationships between exogenous and endogenous latent variables was tested. Both analyses were conducted using the maximum-likelihood method which is the most commonly used and default estimation procedure in LISREL. Maximum likelihood method finds the parameter estimates that are most likely to maximize the probability of the data.
Measurement Model Fitness Test

The measurement model assesses the extent to which hypothesized relationships between indicators and their latent constructs adequately describes the sample data. Because there are numerous fit indices that can be presented when reporting results, in this study only the fit indices recommended by Anderson (1992) are presented.

In the first run of the measurement model, maximum likelihood (ML) technique produced a model which did not have a good data-model fit (see Table 5). Acceptable comparative fit indices are as follows: Goodness of fit index (GFI) is an index that provides the comparative amount of the observed variances and covariances explained by a model should be $\geq .90$, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) which takes into the account the model's complexity should be $\leq .05$, Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index which adjusts the ratio of degrees of freedom should be (AGFI) $\geq .80$, Normed Fit Index (NFI) which compares the proposed model, saturated model and the independence model and provides the discrepancy of the proposed model should be $\geq .90$, Comparative Fit Index (CFI), which is similar to the NFI but takes in to account the sample size should be $\geq .90$ (Bentler, 1992). The initial measurement model had the following comparative fit indices: GFI = .85, RMSEA = .056, AGFI = .83 and NFI = .89. Only AGFI met the minimum criteria evaluation ($<.050$). The Chi square (1209, df = 449) was statistically significant ($p<.001$), and its ratio to the degree of freedom was greater than 3. The Chi-square is a badness of fit measure and tests that the factor loadings, factor variances, covariances, and error variances of the model for validity (Byrne, 2001). The probability ($p$) for the chi-square test refers to the
probability of obtaining a chi-square value larger than that actually obtained, given that the hypothesized model holds (Keats & Hitt, 1988). Consequently, the larger the value of \( p \geq .10 \), the better the fit.

Modifications were made to the measurement model in order to attain a better fit. The indicator items that had low loadings on their targeted latent factors were dropped. The decisions to make these modifications were all theory-grounded, and the remaining items still had a high internal consistency. The re-specified measurement model was a good fit and had the following comparative fit indices: GFI = .93, CFI = .97, NFI = .95, AGFI = .91, and the Chi square (359, df = 194) ratio to the degree was less than 3 (See Table 13).

The final measurement model retains the revised specifications for the structural model step.
Figure 2 Measurement Model
Table 13 Summary of Parameter Deletion-Measurement Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Run Initial Measurement Model</th>
<th>Chi-square (df)</th>
<th>RMSEA (Confidence Interval)</th>
<th>NFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>AGFI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Run Initial Measurement Model</td>
<td>1209 (449)</td>
<td>.056 (.059 - .067)</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop Perdis (Perceived Discrimination)1, 2 &amp; 4</td>
<td>858 (362)</td>
<td>.053 (.052 - .061)</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop Esteem (Self – esteem) 4R, 5R, 7R, 8R,</td>
<td>596 (260)</td>
<td>.052 (.049 - .060)</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop Intent1 (Intentions to Quit) 1</td>
<td>445 (237)</td>
<td>.047 (.038 - .050)</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop Mgmtlvl (Management Levels)</td>
<td>419 (215)</td>
<td>.047 (.039 - .052)</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drop Stress2r (Stress)</td>
<td>359 (194)</td>
<td>.044 (.037 - .051)</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Structural Model Fitness Test**

The second part of the SEM analysis tested the theorized causation of the structural model, which was in the direction of the key constructs. Bollen (1989) also suggested that hypothesized models should be compared to past models that have tested similar theories. To this point, since this study is exploring relationships that have not been explored using SEM, there were no fit criteria available for comparison.

When the hypothesized structural model was imposed on the final measurement model, it yielded fit indices (NFI=.90, CFI=.94, AGFI=.90, RMSEA=.07). The results indicate that, overall, the hypothesized structural model showed a satisfactory degree of fit to the observed data, and that the structural model of outcomes of perceived discrimination can be retained as one of many possible explanations of the data.
The t-scores (a t-score of 1.96 or greater was considered to be significant at the 0.05 level) of the structural model were examined to draw conclusions about specific model relations (e.g., direct effects and correlations). The t-values solution revealed that 4 of the 6 paths among latent factors were statistically significant (see Figure 3). These significant pathway coefficients reflected: 1) direct, negative effects of perceived discrimination on self esteem, job stress and job satisfaction 2) direct, negative effects of job satisfaction on intentions to quit 3) a full mediation relationship between perceived discrimination, job satisfaction and intentions to quit. Thus hypotheses 5, 6, 7, and 8 were supported, however hypothesis 4 was not supported (See Table 14).

Chapter 5 discussed the methods used for data analyses and the results thereof. The descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities for the variables were discussed, as well as the hypothesis testing of the purported model. Chapter 6 will discuss the results as well as the implications and the theoretical contributions of the study. The limitations of the study and directions for future research will also be discussed.
Table 14 Results of Hypotheses Testing Using SEM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Hypothesis 4</th>
<th>Younger employees who perceive age discrimination will have poorer career outcomes (less managerial levels outcomes, fewer promotions, and lower pay).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Hypothesis 5</td>
<td>Perceived age discrimination of younger employees will negatively related to job satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Hypothesis 6</td>
<td>Job satisfaction will mediate the direct effects of perceived discrimination on intentions to quit for younger employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Hypothesis 7</td>
<td>Perceived age discrimination of younger employees will be negatively related to employee self-esteem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Hypothesis 8</td>
<td>Perceived age discrimination of younger employees will be negatively related employee’s stress.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=Not Significant, S=Significant

Figure 3 Structural Model
CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

This chapter presents a detailed discussion of the research findings and the implications of this study. In the first section, the results of each hypothesis are discussed, followed by the theoretical and practical implications of the study in the second section. Finally, in the third section, the limitations, research contributions and future research directions are highlighted.

The goal of this study was fourfold: 1) to determine whether social dominance orientation plays a role in supervisors/managers bias against younger employees, 2) to determine if age and power play a role in the development of perceptions of age discrimination among younger employees, 3) to determine whether perceptions of age discriminations can affect one’s career outcomes, self-esteem, stress, and job satisfaction leading to intentions to quit, and 4) to determine if race and gender moderate the relationship between age and perceptions of discrimination and career outcomes.

This study utilized social dominance theory as a theoretical framework for a better understanding of the relationship between age, power and perceptions of discrimination among younger employees. Student sample data as well as field sample cross-sectional data were used in the study. Hierarchical regression and structural equation modeling were the two techniques used to test the proposed hypotheses.
Summary of Findings

Thirteen hypotheses were proposed to address the aforementioned research questions. The first three hypotheses and the moderation hypotheses were tested using hierarchical regressions. Hypothesis 1 was supported while hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 3 were not supported. None of the moderation hypotheses (hypotheses 9, 10, 11a, 11b, and 11c) were supported. The rest of the hypotheses (hypotheses 4, 5, 6, 7, 8) were tested using structural equation modeling. Hypothesis 4 was not supported, but support was found for hypotheses 5, 6, 7 and 8.

Discussion of Hypotheses

A results summary of the hypotheses tests are presented in Table 15. Hypothesis 1 stated that employees with higher levels of social dominance orientation were more likely to express younger worker bias. Support for this hypothesis was found in the study. This finding was consistent with social dominance theory that posits that age hierarchies exist in the society, and that older workers have more social power (Pratto et al., 1994). Contrary to expectations, hypothesis 2, which stated that younger employees would perceive more age discrimination in organizations than older employees was in the expected direction, however it was not significant. This was an interesting finding considering that prior research has found that younger workers experience age discrimination (Snape & Redman, 2003; Garstka, Hummert, & Branscombe, 2005). A closer examination of the data revealed that younger and older employees perceived less age discrimination. A possible explanation for the finding could be that younger workers who work in occupations that are not traditionally
occupied by younger employees (i.e., middle management positions) maybe more cognizant of age discrimination. The majority of the students held jobs normally occupied by younger workers (i.e., waiters, bartenders, clerks, customer service representatives). Hypothesis 3, which stated that there would be an inverse relationship between power and perceived discrimination, such that younger workers with less power in organizations would perceive more age discrimination was not supported. Since literature on power dynamics in organizations proposes that low status groups are institutionally and directly discriminated against by high status groups, it was interesting that this hypothesis was not supported. However, it was observed from the data that most of the students indicated that there was little age variation in their places of work. The rejection-identification model predicts that group identification among low status group can alleviate the negative effects of perceived discrimination (Garstka, Schmitt, Branscombe, & Hummert, 2004). Since the majority of the students in the sample worked in low level, less powerful positions that are normally occupied by younger employees, it is possible that they may view discrimination as part of the process and lessen the negativity of age discrimination.

Hypothesis 4, which argued that younger employees who perceive age discrimination will have lower career outcomes (income, promotions, and managerial levels), was not supported. Even though research has shown lower career outcomes for women, minorities and younger employees (Kanter, 1977; Goldberg et al., 2004; Powell & Graves), the results of the study did not support this thesis. Nevertheless, minority workers still continue to encounter various challenges in organizations (Burke &
Nelson, 2002). Additionally, younger employees and women significantly earn less than older employees and men even when controlling for experience (Kanter, 1977; Goldberg et al., 2004). A closer look at the student sample revealed that majority of the students were in jobs that offered non-existent promotional opportunities and also majority of the jobs were non-management type. Since younger workers normally work in these positions due to lack of education and experience, it is possible they may unaware they are being discriminated against and regard the behavior as the acceptable norm for these level of positions. Bell (2005) argued that younger workers are susceptible to maltreatment in the workplace (i.e., sexual harassment) as they are regarded as naïve and easy targets that are unaware of the recourse available to them.

Hypothesis 5 which stated the perceived age discrimination of younger employees would be negatively related to job satisfaction was supported. Similarly, diversity research has found that minorities, women and younger workers who experienced race discrimination were more dissatisfied with their jobs (Shields & Price, 2002; Laband & Lentz, 1998). Therefore, it was expected that younger employees who perceived age discrimination would be less satisfied with their jobs.
Table 15 Summary of Hypotheses Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Employees with higher levels of SDO are more likely to express younger worker bias.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Younger employees will perceive more age discrimination in organizations than older employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>There will be an inverse relationship between power and perceived discrimination. Younger employees with less power will perceive more age discrimination in organizations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Younger employees who perceive age discrimination will have poorer career outcomes (less managerial levels outcomes, fewer promotions, and lower pay).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Perceived age discrimination of younger employees will be negatively related to job satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Job satisfaction will mediate the direct effects of perceived discrimination on intentions to quit for younger employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Perceived age discrimination of younger employees will be negatively related to employee self-esteem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Perceived age discrimination of younger employees will be negatively related employee stress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Younger employees from minority races will perceive more age discrimination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Younger male employees from minority races will perceive more age discrimination than younger females from subordinate races.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>11a</td>
<td>Young female employees will perceive more age discrimination than young White male employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>11b</td>
<td>Young female employees from minority races will perceive more age discrimination than young White female employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>11c</td>
<td>Young female employees will have less pay, less managerial level outcomes and fewer promotions compared to young White males.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis 6, which stated that job satisfaction would mediate the direct effects of perceived discrimination on intentions to quit for younger employees, was supported. This is consistent with past findings such as Shields and Price (2002), who found that minorities who were dissatisfied with their jobs were more likely to have intentions to quit. Laband and Lentz (1998) also found strong evidence of job satisfaction mediating the relationship between sexual harassment and intentions to quit.
Hypothesis 7, which stated that perceptions of age discrimination among younger workers would be negatively associated with self-esteem, was also supported. This was in line with social psychology literature that argues that experiencing prejudice can affect the self-esteem of the victims. Subordinate groups have also been recognized to have lower-levels of self-esteem as a result of prejudice and discrimination (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1983).

Hypothesis 8 which stated that perceptions of age discrimination among younger employees will be negatively related to employees’ stress was supported. This is in line with the effects of perceived age discrimination on self-esteem as discussed prior. Brown et al., (2001) found that minority individuals who experienced a sense of lessened environmental control as a result of race discrimination experienced higher stress levels (Brown et al., 2001). Although the hypothesis has not been tested before with respect to age based discrimination against younger employees, these results fall in line with past research and are important here given that younger workers perceptions of age discrimination effects on stress have not been previously investigated.

Hypothesis 9 which stated that younger employees from minority races would perceive more age discrimination and hypothesis 10 which stated that young males from minority races will perceive more age discrimination than younger females from subordinate races were not supported. This is contrary to numerous research results stating that subordinate races, especially males experience more discrimination (Altemeyer, 1988; Cassirer, 1996; Hood & Cordovil, 1992; Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). A
possible explanation could be that younger employees from subordinate races are more
cognizant of race discrimination and less sensitive to age discrimination.

Hypotheses 11a which suggested that younger females will perceive more age
discrimination than younger males was not supported. Similar to hypothesis 9 and 10, it
is possible that young females are more cognizant of gender discrimination and less
sensitive to age discrimination. Hypothesis 11b stated that young female employees
from minority races will perceive more age discrimination than young White females
was not supported. Again, young females from minority races may be more cognizant
of race discrimination and gender discrimination and less sensitive to age
discrimination. Hypothesis 11c which stated that young female employees will have
less pay, less managerial level outcomes and fewer promotions was not supported.
Even though women experience gender-based discrimination in organizations which
hinders their career progress in organizations (Catalyst, 2000; Powell & Graves, 2003;
Valian, 1998), the results were non significant for hypothesis 11c, suggesting that this
effect is not more prevalent for younger females. Perhaps sex role stereotypes are less
influential for younger women. Research has also found that younger women earn
similar salaries to younger men, but the gap widens over time (Valian, 1998). Similar
to hypothesis 4, a possible reason why this hypothesis was not supported could be
because due to the fact that younger workers normally work in low level positions and
they may unaware they are being discriminated against and regard the behavior as the
acceptable norm for these levels of positions.
Theoretical and Practical Implications of the Study

Theoretical Implications

The majority of the studies on age discrimination have focused on the role of employee’s age on promotional opportunities (e.g., Goldberg et al., 2004, Cleveland & Shore, 1992, Shore et al., 2003) and few have looked at the impact on psychological factors (Shore et al., 2003). This study developed a theoretical model that looked at antecedents of perceived age discrimination among younger workers, and the physical and psychological outcomes of perceived age discrimination.

Over the past decade research has investigated the antecedents and consequences of discrimination (Ruggiero & Taylor, 1997; Schmitt et al., 2002; Sellers & Shelton, 2003). Despite the growing literature on discrimination, less is known about antecedents and consequences of age discrimination. This study expands on previous research by examining perceptions of age discrimination among younger employees. It is posited that the power hierarchy in organizations leads to discriminatory behavior against younger employees. The power hierarchy is hypothesized to arise from the dominance of higher status groups in the workplace.

Limited studies in management literature have explored the effects of perceived age discrimination on young employees (Garstka et al., 2004; Goldberg et al., 2004; Snape & Redman, 2003). Additionally, much of the organizational literature has used age-associated stereotypes and age contexts of jobs to explain age discrimination (e.g. Cleveland & Landy, 1983; Cleveland & Shore, 1992; Goldberg et al., 2004). This study addresses this weakness in research by positing that investigating age discriminatory
behavior that can occur against younger employees and the effects of such
discrimination on psychological (self esteem, job satisfaction, intentions to quit,
perceived fairness), physiological (stress) and career progress outcomes (managerial
levels, promotion, salary).

Lastly, this study extends earlier works by utilizing the social dominance
theoretical framework to explain bias and perceptions of age discrimination and its
effects on younger employees. Social dominance theory provides a framework which
utilizes social discourse (e.g., stereotypes, attitudes, ideology), and individual and
institutional behavior to conceptualize group-based social hierarchies (Sidanius &
Pratto, 2001). The theoretical underpinnings posit that group-based oppression is
driven by systematic power structures within institutions and individuals leading to
discrimination.

**Practical Implications**

The concern regarding the consequences of age discrimination is very timely
and sorely needed. Snape and Redman’s (2003) study found that reports of
discrimination for being ‘too young’ were as numerous as those for being ‘too old’.
According to the International Labor Organization (ILO, 2005), the unemployment rate
for young adults is two to three times higher than for older adults. Most of the younger
adults are also employed in the informal sector where wages are 44% lower than the
formal sector and protection and benefits are non-existent (ILO, 2005). Negative
employment effects can profoundly negatively impact young workers’ careers long into
the future (ILO, 2005). There are also significant costs that employers can incur as a
result of age discrimination. These include litigation-related costs, turnover, lowered productivity and absenteeism as evidenced from other forms of discrimination (i.e., race and sex).

In the next decade it is estimated that those under 40 will be the new minority. As older people are now the majority and holders of power, young employees may be subject to workplace discrimination. Recently, some empirical research has found that younger workers are evaluated less favorably than older workers (e. g. Garstka, Hummert & Branscombe, 2005; Snape & Redman, 2003). In a study by Goldberg, Finkelstein, Perry and Konrad (2004), younger workers earned significantly less than older workers even when education and experience were taken into account. Perceptions of age discrimination by younger employees can negatively reduce the effectiveness of core Human Resources (HR) practices such as recruitment, promotion, selection for training, and performance appraisal.

Furthermore, perceptions of age discrimination can affect job satisfaction, self-esteem, stress levels, and intentions to quit. Younger employees may perceive organizational practices as being age biased and lose trust in the fairness and effectiveness of management practices overall. These perceptions of age discrimination may also negatively impact employees’ performance and organizational effectiveness.

**Limitations of the Study**

Several limitations were inherent in this study. First, because cross-sectional data was used in the analysis, causation can not be inferred from the analysis. Second, the study may have common method bias because the independent and the dependent
variables were collected from the same survey. Common method bias can be detected by loading all of the constructs’ indicators on one factor (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). If common method variance exists, then only one factor will emerge from factor analysis. Principal components analysis was conducted and several factors emerged from the analyses suggesting that common method bias was not an issue. Finally, the surveys were self-reported and this method of collecting data has been subject to bias in previous researches, as respondents may respond inaccurately in order to achieve social desirability, especially if the survey questions are deemed sensitive (Ajzen, 1988). However, because of the complexity of the hypotheses and the survey questions asked were not of sensitive nature, self–report bias was not a major concern.

**Directions for Future Research**

Since this study found no support for the suggested antecedents of perceived age discrimination among younger workers, a field sample of young professionals should be used to re-test the model. A field sample of young professionals may elicit better fit for the model because the sample subjects are more likely to be in positions not normally occupied by younger workers.

Future studies should also include constructs pertaining to race and gender discrimination for purposes of investigating if race and gender explains the remaining variance. Additional, triangulation method of data collection should be considered to avoid self-report and common method biases issues.
Conclusions

This study sought to fill a gap in the literature by studying the perceptions of age discrimination among younger workers and the effects thereof. Previous literatures have focused mainly on older workers. The findings of this study suggest that younger workers who perceive age discrimination will experience higher levels of stress, lower self-esteem, and low job satisfaction leading to intentions to leave the organization. These finding are consistent with Snape and Redman’s (2003) study which found that perceptions of age discrimination were associated with negative job attitudes. This study contributes to the literature by using grounded theory to explain the antecedents and effects of perceived age discrimination among younger workers.

This study is important because since there will be fewer younger workers entering the workforce than in the past, and since more of them will be female and people of color, it’s vital that they feel they have opportunities to succeed and advance and that their age (or other aspects of nondominance) will not hinder their potential progress.
APPENDIX A

STUDENT SURVEY
Dear Sir or Madam:

Enclosed please find our survey which asks your general perceptions towards work in organizations. This study is a part of an ongoing series of surveys that have been conducted by major business schools in the United States. We would sincerely appreciate your participation, which will assist us in identifying factors that can help managers and organizations become more effective and efficient.

Please complete all the questions in the enclosed survey and put it in the attached envelope and mail it. The information provided will be kept strictly confidential and anonymous. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact either of us at the addresses below.

We greatly appreciate your assistance.

Sincerely,

Principal Investigator
Myrtle P. Bell, Ph.D.
Associate Professor of Management
University of Texas at Arlington
Box 19467
Arlington TX 76019-0467
Ph: 817 272-3857

Co-investigator
Eileen Kweisiga
Department of Management
College of Business Administration
University of Texas at Arlington
Arlington, TX 76019-0467
Ph: (817) 272-3860
Survey #

(Provide to ensure you get credit for this survey; otherwise this information is anonymous and confidential. Your responses WILL NOT be shared with the professor or your work organization)

If you are employed, answer the following questions with respect to your current job. If you are unemployed, answer with reference to your last job.

Section A.

The statements below ask about how you feel about your work environment. Read each statement and mark the box which best reflects your agreement or disagreement with the statement.

Rate each item below from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree by checking the appropriate box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>My job is extremely stressful.</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>Very few stressful things happen to me at work.</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>I feel a great deal of stress because of my job.</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>I almost never feel stressed because of my work.</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>I am thinking about leaving this organization.</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>I am planning to look for a new job in the near future.</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>I intend to ask people about new job opportunities.</td>
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<td>8.</td>
<td>I don’t plan to be in this organization much longer.</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>I would be willing to relocate in order to rise in my present company.</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>I would be willing to relocate in order to obtain my ideal job, either in my present company or in another company.</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>If I could choose to where to relocate, relocation would be desirable for my spouse or other family members because of career or other reasons.</td>
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<td>12.</td>
<td>If I could choose where to relocate, relocation would be desirable for me financially.</td>
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<td>13.</td>
<td>If a good friend of mine told me that he/she was interested in working in a job like mine, I would strongly recommend it.</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>All in all, I am very satisfied with my current job.</td>
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<td>15.</td>
<td>In general, my job measures up to the sort of job I wanted when I took it.</td>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>Knowing what I know now, if I had to decide all over again whether to take my job, I would.</td>
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<td>17.</td>
<td>I am effective at balancing my work and non-work life.</td>
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<td>18.</td>
<td>I have the skills necessary to simultaneously have a successful career and family roles.</td>
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<td>19.</td>
<td>Whatever obstacles are presented in trying to balance work and family life, I am sure I will be able to handle them.</td>
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<td>20.</td>
<td>If I tried to work and have a family simultaneously, I don’t think I could be effective at either.</td>
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<td>21.</td>
<td>I am better at managing multiple roles than the average person.</td>
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<td>22.</td>
<td>If family demands interfered with my job, I am not sure how I would handle it.</td>
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<td>23.</td>
<td>If I had a personal problem on my mind, I don’t think I could concentrate and be effective at work.</td>
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<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Difficulty prioritizing my work and family responsibilities inhibits my effectiveness in both domains.</td>
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<td>25.</td>
<td>I am effective at my job, even when I am under a lot of personal stress.</td>
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<td>26.</td>
<td>Even with a very demanding job, I am able to have satisfying relationships with family and friends.</td>
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<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>I am able to change between my work to nonwork roles quickly and easily, still being effective at both.</td>
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28. Even when my job is very stressful, I am able to leave it behind in the evening so it does not interfere with my nonwork activities.

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<td>Section B.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The statements below ask about how you feel about your work and nonwork roles. Read each statement and mark the box which best reflects your agreement or disagreement with the statement. Rate each item below from (1) strongly disagree to (4) strongly agree by checking the appropriate box.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.</td>
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<td>2. At times I think I am no good.</td>
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<td>3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.</td>
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<td>4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.</td>
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<td>5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.</td>
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<td>6. I certainly feel useless at times.</td>
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<td>7. I feel I am a person of worth, at least on equal plane with others.</td>
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<td>8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.</td>
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<td>10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.</td>
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<td>11. My main satisfaction in life comes from my work.</td>
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<td>12. The most important things that happen to me involve my job.</td>
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<td>Section C.</td>
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<tr>
<td>The statements below ask about how you feel about ambition, developmental opportunities and group relations in organizations. Read each statement and mark the box which best reflects your agreement or disagreement with the statement. Rate each item below from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree by checking the appropriate box.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. My work schedule is fair.</td>
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<td>2. I think that my level of pay is fair.</td>
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<td>3. I consider my work load to be quite fair.</td>
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<td>4. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.</td>
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<td>5. I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.</td>
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<td>6. Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner.</td>
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<td>7. My general manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.</td>
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<td>8. All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.</td>
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<td>9. Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the general manager.</td>
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<td>10. Some groups of people are simply inferior to other groups.</td>
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<td>12. In getting what you want, it is sometimes necessary to use force against other groups.</td>
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3 Go on to the next page
13. It's OK if some groups have more of a chance in life than others.
14. To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups.
15. If certain groups stayed in their place, we would have fewer problems.
16. It's probably a good thing that certain groups are at the top and other groups are at the bottom.
17. Inferior groups should stay in their place.
18. Sometimes other groups must be kept in their place.
19. It would be good if groups could be equal.
20. Group equality should be our ideal.
21. All groups should be given an equal chance in life.
22. We should do what we can to equalize conditions for different groups.
23. We should have increased social equality.
24. We should have fewer problems if we treated people more equally.
25. We should strive to make incomes as equal as possible.
26. No one group should dominate in society.

Rate each item below either (yes) or (no) by checking the appropriate box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Do you supervise at least one employee who is responsible to you?</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. If you have employees under your supervision, how many do you supervise?</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Do you have the authority to hire and fire others?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section D.
The statements below ask how you feel about your contributions in the workplace.

Rate each item below from (1) strongly disagree to (10) strongly agree by checking the appropriate box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. In any organization I might work for, it would be more important for me to get from the organization.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. In any organization I might work for, it would be more important for me to help others.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. In any organization I might work for, I would be more concerned about what I receive from the organization.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. In any organization I might work for, I would be more concerned about what I contributed to the organization.</td>
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<td>5. In any organization I might work for, the hard work I would do should benefit the organization.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. In any organization I might work for, the hard work I would do should benefit me.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. In any organization I might work for, my personal philosophy would be you must look out for yourself.</td>
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Section E.

The statements below ask about how you feel about the perceptions of others in organizations. Read each statement and mark the box which best reflects your agreement or disagreement with the statement.

Rate each item below from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree by checking the appropriate box. For questions which do not apply select box 6 (N/A)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>N/A</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. At work, I feel uncomfortable when others make jokes or negative</td>
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<td>2. At work, I sometimes feel that my age is a limitation.</td>
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<td>3. At work, many people have stereotypes about people my age and</td>
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<td>4. At work, people think I am unassessable when in fact I have</td>
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<td>5. At work, I sometimes feel that people actively try to stop me</td>
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<td>6. At work, it bothers me when people pressure me to fit in to an</td>
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<td>7. At work, I do not get enough recognition because of my age.</td>
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<td>8. My age is a limitation at work.</td>
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<td>9. At work, I feel that others exclude me from their activities</td>
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<td>10. At work, people look down upon me if I set my age.</td>
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<td>11. I personally have never experienced gender discrimination in my</td>
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<td>12. The people I work with treat me less favorably because of my age.</td>
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<td>13. My immediate superior treats me less favorably than other</td>
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<td>14. I have been treated less favorably when applying for a job</td>
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<td>15. I have been denied a promotion because of my age.</td>
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<td>16. I have been denied training opportunities because of my young age.</td>
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<td>17. I have been rated poorly on performance appraisals because of my</td>
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<td>18. I have been treated less favorably when applying for a job</td>
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<td>19. I have been denied a promotion because I am older.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20. I have been denied training opportunities because I am older.</td>
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Section F.

The statements below ask about your understanding of the experiences of others (e.g., friends, family members) in organizations. Read each statement and mark the box which best reflects your agreement or disagreement with the statement.

Rate each item below from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree by checking the appropriate box. For questions which do not apply SELECT box 6 (N/A)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>N/A</th>
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Section G.

The statements below ask the degree to which you have experienced the emotions listed below in the past one year.

Rate each item below from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree by checking the appropriate box.

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Section H. Demographic Questionnaire

If you are employed, answer the following questions with reference to your current job. If you are unemployed, answer with reference to your last job.

1. Which of the following best describes your current employment status?
   - [ ] Employed
   - [ ] Unemployed

2. If you are currently employed, how many hours do you work each week? ______

3. When is your anticipated graduation date? ______

4. What is your sex?  [ ] Male  [ ] Female

5. What is your age? ______ years

6. To the best of your ability, please estimate the average age of your co-workers ______ years

7. Which of the following describes the age variation in your organization?
   - [ ] There is little variation in age
   - [ ] There is a large variation in age

8. What is your highest level of education?
   - [ ] High school diploma/GED
   - [ ] Associate degree
   - [ ] Bachelor's degree
   - [ ] Master's degree
   - [ ] Professional degree (i.e., Ph.D., J.D.)

9. What is your job or profession? ______

10. How many years of total work experience do you have? ______ years

11. How long have you worked for your current employer? ______ years ______ months

12. Please indicate the number of promotions you have obtained since starting working for your current employer ______

13. Please select from the choices below the level that reflects your current management level
   - [ ] Non-management position
   - [ ] First line supervisor
   - [ ] Unit manager
   - [ ] Middle manager or senior specialist such as senior financial analyst
   - [ ] Functional manager, divisional manager or departmental manager
   - [ ] CEO, senior executive or executive vice president

14. What is the range of your annual income?
   - [ ] Under $25,000
   - [ ] $25,000-$44,999
   - [ ] $45,000-$59,999
   - [ ] $60,000-$79,999
   - [ ] $80,000-$100,000
   - [ ] Over $100,000

15. What is your marital status?

   - [ ] Single
   - [ ] Married
   - [ ] Widowed
   - [ ] Divorced
   - [ ] Separated

   *Go on to the next page*
16. Please indicate the number of your children _______. Please indicate the ages of your children _______.

17. What is your race or ethnicity? Please select only one category. If you are multi-racial, please write in the appropriate categories.
- White, not Hispanic
- African American/Black
- Hispanic
- Native American
- Other (____________________)

18. Please indicate your citizenship
- U.S Citizen
- Other (____________________)

19. How many employees are in your company?
- 1-1000
- 1000-5000
- Over 5000

20. Who referred you to the company when you were applying for a job?
- Friend who works in the company
- Advertisement
- Campus recruitment
- Cold call
- Initially a contract/temp
- Headhunter
- Other (____________________)

21. Please explain any part of the survey that you do not understand.

Thank you for your time. If you have any additional comments you would like to share, please provide them on an additional sheet.
APPENDIX B

MANAGER SURVEY
Dear Sir or Madam:

Enclosed please find our survey which asks your general perceptions towards work in organizations. This study is a part of an ongoing series of surveys that have been conducted by major business schools in the United States. We sincerely appreciate your participation, which will assist us in identifying factors that can help managers and organizations become more effective and efficient.

Please complete all the questions in the enclosed survey and put it in the enclosed envelope and mail it. The information provided will be kept strictly confidential and anonymous. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact either of us at the addresses below.

We greatly appreciate your assistance.

Sincerely,

Principal Investigator
Myrtle P. Bell, Ph.D.
Associate Professor of Management
University of Texas at Arlington
Box 19467
Arlington TX 76019-0467
Ph: 817 272-3857

Co-investigator
Eileen Kwasiga
Department of Management
College of Business Administration
University of Texas at Arlington
Arlington, TX 76019-0467
Ph: (817) 272-3860
Survey #

(This information is anonymous and confidential. Your responses will not be shared with the student or your work organization)

Section A.

The statements below ask about how you feel about ambition, developmental opportunities and group relations in organizations. Read each statement and mark the box which best reflects your agreement or disagreement with the statement.

Rate each item below from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree by checking the appropriate box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. My work schedule is fair.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I think that my level of pay is fair.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I consider my work load to be quite fair.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Job decisions are made by the general manager in an unbiased manner.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. In getting what you want, it is sometimes necessary to use force against other groups.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. It's OK if some groups have more of a chance in life than others.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. If certain groups stayed in their place, we would have fewer problems.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. It's probably a good thing that certain groups are at the top and other groups are at the bottom.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Inferior groups should stay in their place.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Sometimes other groups must be kept in their place.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. It would be good if groups could be equal.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Group equality should be our ideal.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. All groups should be given an equal chance in life.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. We should do what we can to equalize conditions for different groups.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. We should have increased social equality.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. We should have fewer problems if we treated people more equally.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. We should strive to make incomes as equal as possible.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. No one group should dominate in society.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Go on to the next page
Section B.
Read each statement and mark the box which best reflects your agreement or disagreement with the statement.
Rate each item below from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree by checking the appropriate box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It is easy to understand the demands of same sex partners for equal rights in organizations.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Younger employees are too demanding in their push for equal rights.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Single employees should not demand the same benefits as married employees in organizations.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. It is easy to understand the anger of younger employees in the workplace.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. It is easy to understand the anger of disabled employees in organizations.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Younger employees should not push themselves where they are not wanted.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Over the past few years employer benefits for married employees have been more than they deserve.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Over the past few years younger employees have gotten more economically ahead than they deserve.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Discrimination against same sex partners is not a problem in the United States.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Over the past few years the government and news media have shown more respect to younger employees than they deserve.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Discrimination against single employees is not a problem in the United States.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section D.
Please select by circling the statement that best describes your employee (who gave you the survey) from the statements below.
Rate each item selected below from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree by checking the appropriate box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. This employee helps others who have been absent.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. This employee helps others who have heavy work loads.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. This employee willingly gives of his/her time to help others who have work related problems.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. This employee helps orient new people even though it is not required.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. This employee is always punctual.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. This employee never takes long lunches or breaks.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. This employee does not take extra breaks.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. This employee obeys company rules, regulations and procedures even when no one is watching.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. This employee adequately completes assigned duties.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. This employee fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. This employee performs tasks that are expected of him/her.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. This employee meets formal performance requirements of the job.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
13. This employee engages in activities that will directly affect his or her performance. □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □
14. This employee neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform. □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □
15. This employee fails to perform essential duties. □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □
16. This employee truly values customers. □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □
17. This employee is committed to developing and maintaining a long-term relationship with customers. □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □
18. This employee is committed to providing superior service to customers. □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □
19. This employee consistently anticipates customer needs and takes appropriate actions to satisfy their needs. □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □
20. This employee recommends this company's products to customers. □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □
21. This employee fits the demands of the job. □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □
22. Other employees think he/she is qualified to do the job. □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □
23. I am confident that he/she is qualified for the job. □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □

Rate each item below either (yes) or (no) by checking the appropriate box.

1. Do you supervise at least one employee who is responsible to you? Yes □ No □
2. Do you influence or set the rate of pay received by others? Yes □ No □
3. Do you have the authority to hire and fire others? Yes □ No □

Section E.
Please select by circling the semantic that best describes your employee (who gave you the survey) from the contracts below. For example you can select 'flexible' then rate the degree (1-7) of 'flexibility'.

Rate each item selected below from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree by checking the appropriate box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. This employee is flexible.</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. This employee is stubborn.</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. This employee is good.</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. This employee is unattractive.</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. This employee is attractive.</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. This employee is active.</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. This employee is inactive.</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. This employee is ungenerous.</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. This employee is generous.</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. This employee is conservative.</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. This employee is liberal.</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. This employee is imaginative.</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. This employee is wise.</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td>□ □ □ □ □ □ □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Go on to the next page
Section F. Demographic Questionnaire

1. What is your sex? □ Male □ Female
2. What is your age? _____ years
3. To the best of your ability, please estimate the average age of your co-workers _____ years
4. Which of the following describes the education variation in your organization?
   □ there is little variation in education □ there is a large variation in education
5. Which of the following describes the age variation in your organization?
   □ there is little variation in age □ there is a large variation in age
6. What is your highest level of education?
   □ high school diploma/GED □ associates degree □ master’s degree
   □ some college □ bachelor’s degree □ professional degree (i.e. Ph.D., J.D.)
7. What is your job or profession? ________________________________
8. In what industry do you work (for example; airline, communication, etc.):__________________________
9. How many years of total work experience do you have? _____ years
10. How long have you worked for your current employer? _____ years _____ months
11. Please indicate the number of promotions you have obtained since starting working for your current employer ____________________________
12. Please select from the choices below the level that reflects your current management level
   □ non-management position □ first line supervisor □ unit manager □ middle manager or senior specialist such as senior financial analyst
   □ functional manager, divisional manager or departmental manager □ CEO, senior executive or executive vice president □ Other
13. What is the range of your annual income?
   □ under $24,999 □ $25,000-44,999 □ $45,000-54,999 □ $55,000-64,999 □ $65,000-79,999 □ $80,000-100,000
   □ over $100,000
14. What is your marital status?
   □ Never married □ Separated □ Divorced □ Married □ Widowed □ Living with partner
15. Please indicate the number of children you have ______. Please indicate the ages of your children ____________________.
16. What is your race or ethnicity? Please select only one category. If you are multi-racial, please write in the appropriate categories.
☐ White, not Hispanic  ☐ Asian/Pacific Islander  ☐ Native American
☐ African American/Black  ☐ Hispanic  ☐ Other (____________________)

17. Please indicate your citizenship
☐ U.S Citizen  ☐ Other (____________________)

18. How many employees are in your company (overall)?
☐ 1-1000  ☐ 1001-5000  ☐ Over 5000

19. Who referred you to the company when you were applying for a job?
☐ Friend who works in the company  ☐ Advertisement  ☐ Campus recruitment
☐ Cold call  ☐ Initially a contract/temp  ☐ Headhunter
☐ Other (____________________)

20. Please explain any part of the survey that you do not understand.

Thank you for your time. If you have any additional comments you would like to share, please provide them on the space below.
APPENDIX C

HRRC PROSPECTUS REVIEW FORM
Dr. Myrtle P Bell  
Ms. Eileen Kwisiga  
Department of Management  
Box 19467

TITLE: The Antecedents and Effects of Perceptions of Age Discrimination  
IRB No.: 06-0800

The UTA Institutional Review Board (UTA IRB) Chair (or designee) has reviewed the above-referenced study and found that it qualified as exempt from coverage under the federal guidelines for the protection of human subjects as referenced as Title 45—Part 46.101(b)(2). You are therefore authorized to begin the research as of November 16, 2006.

Please be advised that as the principal investigator, you are required to report any local adverse (unanticipated) events to this office within 24 hours. In addition, pursuant to Title 45 CFR 46.103(b)(4)(iii), investigators are required to, “promptly report to the IRB any proposed changes in the research activity, and to ensure that such changes in approved research, during the period for which IRB approval has already been given, are not initiated without IRB review and approval except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subject.”

All investigators and key personnel identified in the protocol must have documented Human Subjects Involved in Research Training on file with this office. The UTA Office of Research Integrity and Compliance appreciates your continuing commitment to the protection of human research subjects. Should you have questions or require further assistance, please contact this office by calling (817) 272-2536 or (817) 272-3723.

Yours sincerely,

Pat W. Myrick, CCRP, CIP  
Director, ORIC  
IRB Designee
REFERENCES


Department of Labor, 2002. The labor force experience of women from ‘Generation X’.

Department of Labor, 1998. Making it on their own: the baby boom meets Generation X.


BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Eileen Kwesiga was the recipient of the rising young scholar award from Management Doctoral Student Association for the 2005 academic year. In addition, she was awarded the Joseph Rosenstein Endowed scholarship award, 2005. She was also awarded outstanding student researcher for the management department for 2005-2006 academic year.

Eileen Kwesiga, earned her M.B.A. and B.S. in Business Administration at Cleveland State University. Her research interests include under researched diversity topics such as those pertaining to age discrimination among younger workers. Eileen’s work has been presented at both national and regional conferences. She is co-author of articles appearing in *Equal Opportunities International* and forthcoming in *Journal of Interpersonal Violence Journal*. 