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The Relationship between Perceived Discrimination, Organisation-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) and Job Satisfaction among Women at Work

MA Research Report 2012/2013

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Declaration

The Relationship between Perceived Discrimination, Organisation-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) and Job Satisfaction among Women at Work

A research project submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of MA by coursework and Research Report in the field of Organisational Psychology in the Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, 30th June 2013.

I declare that this research report is my own, unaided work. It has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination at this or any other university.

Word Count:

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Sarika Bhana Date

Abstract

The study aimed to test whether or not Organisational-based Self-Esteem (OBSE) mediated the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction. OBSE was expected to have an impact on Job Satisfaction, whilst Perceived Discrimination was argued to have an effect on OBSE. The study was conducted with a sample of 238 women as previous research indicates women are more likely to experience discrimination in the workplace. Contrary to expectations, the SEM revealed that perceived discrimination did not have a significant impact on job satisfaction. Also, the results obtained suggest that OBSE does not mediate the relationship as there was no significant relationship between perceived discrimination and OBSE. There was evidence that OBSE could be a moderator in the relationship instead. Furthermore, opposing the literature, the results supported the notion of global SE mediating the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction as it was the only significant path in the SEM. Overall, the study contributed to a body of literature and added value by suggesting that the role of perceived discrimination is underestimated as its impact extend outside of the workplace and may have deeper repercussions.

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To my parents and family, thank you for supporting me, encouraging me, and putting up with me!

A special thank you to my supervisor Ian Siemers who has shown great patience and understanding in the past year, as you so accurately stated, *"life happens when you're busy making other plans*".

This journey has taught me much and provided me with plenty of challenges, and it is with great pleasure I submit this work with the intention to end this chapter in my life. Thank you Lord.

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Chapter One: Rationale

In the global arena, there had been a trend in favour of male dominance in senior management and executive positions (Eagly and Carli, 2003; Eagly and Carli, 2007; Schein, 2007; UNDP, 2008, as cited in Booysen & Nkomo, 2010). South Africa also follows this trend except higher echelons of organisations specifically tend to favour the preserve of white males (Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009) South Africa is a country which has a history of both racial and gender-based discrimination (Roodt & Odendaal, 2009). This has influenced the severity of discrimination experienced in the workplace. Since the commencement of South Africa's democracy in 1994, the constitution has been amended to protect individuals from harm including that of different forms of discrimination. Its focus on the elimination of discrimination has filtered through to an organisational level through legislative frameworks such as the Employment Equity Act and Broad Based Black Employment Equity (Department of Labour: Republic of South Africa, 2009).

Perceived discrimination is likely in the relatively new diverse workplace and, according to many authors (see Ensher, Grant-Vallone, & Donaldson, 2001; Triana, Garcia, & Colella, 2010; Stainback & Irvin, 2012; Özer & Günlük, 2010), as it may impact upon job-related attitudes and outcomes such as job satisfaction, job commitment, organisational attachment, and turnover. Effective diversity management and the eradication of discrimination has shown to be productive in the long run and has been associated with positive outcomes such as increased productivity, higher retention rates, and attracts high-potential employees to the organisation (Ensher et al., 2001; DelCampo & Rogers, 2010). Perceived discrimination may thus have detrimental consequences to organisational well-being (Triana et al., 2010). Furthermore, it has been said to negatively impact an individual's self-esteem, and in particular, Organisation-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) (Sanchez & Brock, 1996; Pierce & Gardner, 2004).

Organisation-based Self-Esteem (OBSE) is a self-esteem construct specific to the workplace context (Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham, 1989; Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Pierce & Gardner, 2004; Lee & Peccei, 2007). It is has been deemed useful in evaluating the self-esteem of organisational members as it has a higher predictive efficacy than task-specific or global measures of self-esteem in terms of job attitude measures such as job satisfaction and job commitment (Pierce et al., 1989; Bowling, Eschleman, Wang, Kirkendall, & Alarcon, 2010; Lee & Peccei, 2007). Research on OBSE, however, is relatively scarce further contributing to the rationale of this study.

The study aimed to investigate the relationship between perceived discrimination, OBSE and job satisfaction among women. Firstly, the study focused on the female population as they are likely to perceive discrimination as elaborated on in the next chapter. Secondly, an SEM was conducted to verify a meditation path where perceived discrimination was expected to impact OBSE and consequently job satisfaction. It was anticipated that perceived discrimination would impact OBSE as OBSE is based on environmental cues, social cues and personal experiences and therefore the negative perception of discrimination would likely affect one's OBSE. Job satisfaction has been associated with many variables such as productivity and well-being (Odendaal, 2009); and, as both perceived discrimination and OBSE have been associated with job outcomes such as job satisfaction (Özer & Günlük, 2010; Sanchez & Brock, 1996; Pierce et al., 1989; Bowling et al., 2010; Lee & Peccei, 2007), the study included job satisfaction as a variable and is further expanded on in the literature review. Therefore, this study aims to examine whether the OBSE mediates the perceived discrimination – job satisfaction relationship.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

In the section that follows the variables of the study will be presented along with studies and research pertaining to the relationships between each, further expanding and justifying the study. To begin with, the primary focus of the study, OBSE, will be more clearly defined together with a look into its theoretical relevance. The determinants of OBSE are also discussed, namely: the role of work environment structures, social cues from significant colleagues, and personal experiences in the workplace. The argument then turns to perceived discrimination where it is defined and further contextualised in terms of the South African population. The argument examines how discrimination is likely to be perceived by women in the workplace and how this is likely to impact their job satisfaction, which leads into the topic of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is then defined together with a brief overview of the job characteristics model, Hertzberg's two factor theory of motivation and how affective dispositions are likely to impact job satisfaction. This is relevant as affective dispositions link towards one's formulation of self-concept, that is, one's self-esteem. Lastly, the argument is then carried over into the reasoning behind the mediational model.

2.1. OBSE defined

Self-esteem is an appraisal that an individual makes of his or her 'self', expressing an attitude of approval or disapproval of one's self (Pierce et al., 1989; Neff, 2011). Such personal judgements are passed onto the 'self' in terms of self-ratings of worthiness and capabilities in aspects considered important to the individual (Pierce et al., 1989; Lee & Peccei, 2007; Bowling et al., 2010; Neff,

2011). For example, one may perceive athleticism as an important indicator of self-esteem and personal capability in this aspect is likely to shape the self-esteem of the individual. Self-esteem can be summed up as "the degree to which people perceive themselves to be capable, significant, and worthy" (Gardner & Pierce, 1998, p. 49).

Scholars have identified three levels of self-esteem, specifically, task or situation self-esteem, organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) and global self-esteem (Pierce et al., 1989; Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Bowling et al., 2010). These levels are hierarchically organised and begin with task self-esteem as the bottom level, contributing to OBSE, which in turn contributes as a factor to global self-esteem. There is a need for differentiating the levels as individuals do not have one self-esteem level for all context. For example, a woman may feel highly about herself when fulfilling the role of a mother but may feel poorly about herself when looking at her role as a lawyer. Therefore, global self-esteem is the consideration of the collective "self"s" together, that is, an overall appraisal that an individual makes and maintains of his or her self-worth and competence (Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Bowling et al., 2010). Task-specific or situation-specific self-esteem is the self-evaluation that results from the behaviour in a particular situation or how well one faired in a particular task (Pierce et al., 1989). Self-esteem can serve as a fundamental buffer of anxiety and is thus, an essential prerequisite to a healthy consciousness (Lee & Peccei, 2007).

Gardner and Pierce (1998) and, Pierce and Gardner (2004) note that employee's form a self-concept or strong beliefs about themselves which stem from their organisational roles. These beliefs have strong connotations towards their work-related attitudes, behaviours and motivation. This is known as Organisation-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE). OBSE can thus be defined as the self-perceived value that an employee has of himself or herself with regards to his or her personal adequacy and worthiness as an organisational member acting within an organisational context (Pierce et al., 1989; Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Pierce & Gardner, 2004; Lee & Peccei, 2007; Ghosh, Reio Jr., & Haynes, 2012).

Accordingly, individuals with high OBSE should experience feelings of importance, meaning, efficiency and capability as well as worthiness with respect to themselves (Pierce et al., 1989). "This sense of self-worth is [also] implicitly connected to the person's effectiveness in the relationships that he/she develops in the organization for fulfilling organizational roles" (Ghosh et al., 2012, p.44). OBSE begins to develop once an individual becomes an organisation member (Bowling et al., 2010; Gardner & Pierce, 2011).

> Early in one's organizational tenure, such as when an individual first joins an organization, OBSE is an outer-level conceptualization of the self. As such it is malleable in nature – an unstable and shifting sense of self – and somewhat state-like. Over time and with the accumulation of organizational experiences this view of the self transitions to an inner-level conceptualization... It becomes more-and-more trait-like such that it eventually becomes a relatively stable belief about one's worthiness within his or her work and organizational roles. Only a sustained, different set of organizational experiences would be expected to change the level of an employee's OBSE." (Gardner & Pierce, 2011, p. 683).

Therefore, new members will initially utilise their global self-esteem while the OBSE develops (Bowling et al., 2010; Gardner & Pierce, 2011). Therefore it is important to note that this study is attempting to study OBSE, the inner trait-like conceptualisation of the self. OBSE is partially malleable and can therefore be influenced by the positive and negative experiences perceived in the workplace (Pierce et al., 1989; Boling et al., 2010). Thus, OBSE can be

> formed, maintained, and changed in part based on interpretations of external cues from the work environment, that is, individuals may 'read such signals to a large extent in performance results (of themselves or others), power differentials, leadership behaviors, organizational rules and procedures, informal social relationships, and so forth' (Theirry, 2001, p. 151, as cited in Scott, Shaw, & Duffy, 2008, p. 968).

2.2. Theoretical basis of OBSE.

Korman (1970, 1971, 1976; as cited in Pierce et al., 1989) professed self-esteem as a construct that is shaped by experiences and is crucial to the understanding of employee motivation, attitudes and behaviours. Korman's basic premise is that humans are consistent and he postulated that people are motivated to maintain a level of consistency, or 'cognitive balance' across all types of self-esteem (Dipboye, 1977; Bowling et al., 2010; Lopez, 1982). In other words, the manner in which people behave is a function of their level of self-esteem (Pierce et al., 1989). Korman differentiated between three types of self-esteem: chronic self-esteem, otherwise known as global self-esteem, task-specific self-esteem and a social self-esteem, which is based on other's expectations of oneself (Dipboye, 1977). Therefore, individuals with high self-esteem will behave in a manner that will reinforce and maintain a constructive view of themselves; while individuals with low self-esteem will behave in a manner that will reinforce and maintain a negative or deconstructive view of themselves (Bowling et al., 2010). Self-esteem has been described as a state-like trait, as individuals with low self-esteem are said to possess low self-esteem as a result of past failures and frustrations and are described as individuals who cannot fulfil personal needs; whilst individuals with high levels of self-esteem are described as adequate and able to fulfil personal needs (Dipboye, 1977).

Applied to the workplace, employees will behave in a manner which will reflect their self-esteem. High self-esteem employees have been said to develop more positive job attitudes whilst low self-esteem employees are said to develop negative job attitudes in order to maintain cognitive balance or consistency (Bowling et al., 2010). Thus, job performance and job satisfaction are reflections of the self-concepts that employees have of themselves (Lopez, 1982). Pierce et al. (1989) extended this approach to OBSE and theorised that the organisational experiences of an employee will shape an employee's OBSE which will subsequently affect motivations, attitudes and behaviours associated with an organisational context. Thus, positive experiences as an organisational member will lead to positive job attitudes and outcomes whilst negative experiences will lead to negative job attitudes and outcomes. Presented below are the determinants that have been said to shape OBSE (Pierce & Gardner, 2004).

2.3. Determinants of OBSE.

The conceptualisation of global self-esteem is associated with many determinants (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Pierce and Gardner (2004) extended the argument of these determinants to OBSE. These determinants are: (a) the implied messages conveyed from the environmental structures that one is exposed to; (b) social cues received from significant individuals within one's social environment; and (c) the person's feelings and sense of competency and efficacy that are products of the individual's direct experiences. Thus, OBSE is shaped by organisational structures, social circles and self-efficacy and worth experienced in the organisational context (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Since OBSE develops over time, when one initially joins an organisation he or she would utilise his or her current level of global self-esteem, and therefore it could be argued that global self-esteem is also a determinant of OBSE. However, it is important to note that while an individual may hold a low global self-esteem; this could be the product of having a high self-esteem in certain contexts but negative experiences in others thereby producing different levels of self-esteem dependent on the context. Thus, having a high level of global self-esteem will not automatically produce a high level of OBSE as in the long run as OBSE is determined by how competent one feels in the workplace.

While the study explored the notion of OBSE mediating the relationship between perceived discrimination, it was also argued that it is a better predictor than global self-esteem as it was contextualised to measure the self-esteem of individuals in the workplace. Therefore, global self-esteem was also measured in order to compare its impact on the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction as it was expected that OBSE would prove to be a stronger path.

2.3.1. The role of work environment structures.

Organisational type appears as a theoretical factor which affects OBSE as it provides the individual with environmental cues (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Mechanistic types of organisations have been associated with developing low employee self-esteem. Mechanistic organisations are typically rigid and controlled as there is a clear and rigid hierarchy; high division of labour and the organisation is highly centralised and standardised. This is because this type of organisation creates a social system in which every action is dictated and controlled which leads to employee mistrust and sends out the message of incapability, incompetence in the employees to make decisions, self-direct and self-regulate (Pierce & Gardner, 2004; Bowling et al., 2010). On the other hand, organisations which are organically designed have complex job designs, high-involvement social systems, and non-routine technologies are associated with higher levels of self-esteem because they are less standardised and rigid. These organisations tend to view employees as resources and provide them with leeway to exhibit self-regulation and self-expression within their organisational roles. As employees perceive higher personal control they are likely to recognise and attribute positive outcomes resulting from their own decisions and this, in turn, is likely to affect employee self-worth in a manner which is consistent with the employee's self-image, and thereby affects OBSE (Pierce & Gardner, 2004).

2.3.2. Social cues from significant others within the social environment.

The second key determinant to self-esteem is social messages received from people of importance (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Individuals will be shaped by the words and behaviours of other individuals in terms of beliefs about their own abilities, competence, and capabilities of satisfying their own needs (Korman, 1970, 1976, as cited in Pierce & Gardner, 2004). For example, a teacher who advocates for a learner's abilities in a particular field may also shape that learner's perceptions about his or her own capability in that field. OBSE can thus be viewed, at least partially, as a self-perception that can be shaped and moulded according to the social messages received from teachers, mentors, supervisors, role models; and in the workplace, from those who evaluate an employee's work. These messages are then internalised and integrated into the individual's self-concept as he or she evaluates himself or herself (Pierce & Gardner, 2004).

2.3.3. Personal experiences.

Personal experience is the third determinant known to shape OBSE. In general, experiences of success tend to boost an individual's OBSE whilst failure tends to lower OBSE (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Individuals who have direct experiences that lead to feelings of competence and self-efficacy,

are confident in their capabilities to perform certain tasks (Gardner & Pierce, 1998), and tend to view themselves in a positive light (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Self-efficacy is closely linked to OBSE as Bandura's (1997, as cited in Pierce and Gardner, 2004) work suggests that past performance affects self-beliefs depending on how the individual interprets and attributes actions and consequences. For example, should a person experience failure, that individual could attribute that failure to his or her own personal capabilities, thereby lowering self-efficacy which in turn affects self-esteem. In contrast, a person who is successful may experience the opposite, resulting in a boost in self-esteem (Pierce & Gardner, 2004; Gardner & Pierce, 1998).

2.3.4. Workplace determinants of OBSE.

Social cues and personal experiences go hand in hand. In the workplace, employees are likely to view their supervisors as significant others. The behaviour of social cues sent out by the supervisor is thus likely to impact the employees OBSE. Positive feedback and behaviour, such as friendliness, and the use of a pleasant tone of voice is likely to act as positive social cues to the employee. Therefore, negative feedback, unpleasant behaviours and tone of voice are likely to act as negative social cues and have a negative impact on OBSE. Deitch et al. (2003) discusses modern day racism or '*aversive racism*' and the subtle everyday behaviours that are exerted by individuals with heavy racist attitudes that display racism in a more socially acceptable manner. Theses socially acceptable behaviours include more subtle behaviours of unfriendliness (verbally and non-verbally), avoidance and lack of assistance when help is needed is expressed (Deitch et al., 2003). Therefore, negative behaviours, feedback and mannerisms are likely to be perceived, intentional or not, as discriminatory social cues. This is likely true for South Africa which could be described as a discrimination-conscientious and discrimination-sensitive population (Roodt & Odendaal, 2009). Furthermore, Swim et al. (2001, as cited in Deitch et al., 2003) and Bourguignon, Seron, Yzerbyt, and Herman (2006) reported that women experienced dissentient psychological consequences to 'everyday' gender discriminations such as anger, depression and lower self-esteem. These 'everyday' gender discriminations included acts such as being excluded from a group activity and general trends in differential treatment experienced either between men and women or amongst the various races and social classes. It is important to emphasise that it is the *perception* of discrimination that is likely in these instances (Deitch et al., 2003). Therefore, perceived discrimination could be described as experiencing exclusion from a group which, according to Bourguignon et al., (2006), has a high association to the concept of the 'self'. Therefore, the argument that self-esteem is likely to mediate

the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction is strengthened; and by extension, because of OBSE's predictive efficacy, OBSE should prove to be a stronger mediator.

2.4. Perceived Discrimination

Discrimination has been defined as a sociological concept that refers to the treatment an individual received based on some demographic variable such as class, gender or race (Özer & Günlük, 2010). Discrimination in the workplace has been defined as unjust or negative treatment of an employee or potential employee based on personal characteristics that are irrelevant to job performance (Özer & Günlük, 2010; Triana et al., 2010). For example, access discrimination occurs when individuals are denied entry into an organisation based on some demographic characteristics such as gender or race (Smith & Joseph, 2010). According to Özer and Günlük (2010), there are two types of discrimination, namely, formal discrimination and informal discrimination. Formal discrimination occurs when the organisations processes restrict the access of certain to groups to experience outcomes such as promotions, salary increase, more responsibilities and other procedures related to the selection and dismissal of employees (Özer & Günlük, 2010).

Informal discrimination occurs when an organisation allows certain practices of discrimination (such as the degradation and belittling of employees belonging to a particular group) and also fails to implement policies that would protect these particular groups (Özer & Günlük, 2010). For example behaviours displaying informal discrimination could include verbal behaviours such as gossiping, taunting, and ridicule as well as non-verbal behaviours such as exclusion, stares, and damage to personal belongings (Özer & Günlük, 2010). This links to the concept of organisational justice as organisations are the primary rule-setters and the manner in which discrimination is handled is set at an organisational level. Organisations thereby set the culture and tone of the organisation by taking stern or lenient action towards discrimination in its various forms (Özer & Günlük, 2010).

Overt discrimination can be distinguished from perceived discrimination as perceived discrimination is the *perception* of unfairness in treatment or the *perception* of differential treatment because of membership to some particular group or some demographic variable such as race or gender, regardless of whether *authentic* definitive discrimination occurred (Özer & Günlük, 2010; Ensher et al., 2001; Stainback & Irvin, 2012). Stainback and Irvin (2012) focused on perceived racial discrimination and noted that racial composition can elicit stereotyping and categorisations which then has an impact on the interactional dynamics between and within social groups, for example,

tokenism. It is these social dynamics that define and shape what constitutes an experience as discrimination (Stainback & Irvin, 2012).

An organisation is expected to treat its employees fairly, and as mentioned earlier, the organisations who manage diversity effectively tend to perform better in the long run (DelCampo & Rogers, 2010; Ensher et al., 2001). In South Africa the law prohibits any form of discrimination and has set up institutions such as the Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA), to handle any grievances that cannot be handled within the organisation (Nel, Kirsten, Swanepoel, Erasmus, & Poisat, 2010)**.** However, discrimination occurs in more subtle ways which makes it harder to identify (DelCampo & Rogers, 2010; Deitch, et al., 2003). Impoverished social networks and stereotype threats are examples of the discrimination most accurately captured by perceived discrimination. "If members of a stereotyped group violate expectations, others often react with discriminatory behaviors to restore the status quo and bring back their ability to understand and control the environment" (DelCampo & Rogers, 2010, p. 224). According to DelCampo and Rogers (2010), as the minority disrupts the status quo and disputes the negative stereotypes surrounding their demographic, such as an incompetence stereotype, by attaining promotions and progressing in the organisation, that minority is more likely to perceive discrimination. Applied to the South African context: women make up the minority and become a smaller and smaller minority as higher job positions are examined, and thus, it was predicted that women would likely perceive discrimination in the workplace. Furthermore, racial discrimination is likely in the higher ranks of the organisation with the preserve of white males and the minority is likely to be Blacks, Indians and Coloureds. Therefore, previously disadvantaged females are likely to perceive discrimination in one form or the other or both in the workplace.

Perceived discrimination has also been viewed as a breach of the psychological contract formed with the organisation upon attaining membership (DelCampo & Rogers, 2010). This may result in negative psychological and job-related attitudinal consequences as employees may experience a violation in trust. Furthermore, when employees perceive mistreatment because of their group membership, they experience emotions of alienation and anger which may result in negative work-related behaviours as well as negative physical and psychological consequences on the individual's wellbeing (Ensher et al., 2001; Deitch, et al., 2003; DelCampo & Rogers, 2010). Perceived discrimination has been significantly and negatively correlated with job satisfaction and organisational commitment (at the 1% level of chance) such that the presence of perceived discrimination is associated with lower job satisfaction and lower organisational commitment (Özer

& Günlük, 2010; Sanchez & Brock, 1996). While the correlation is significant, it is low to mid-range in strength (Özer & Günlük, 2010; and the present study expects a stronger correlation through the mediator OBSE.

2.5. Discrimination in South Africa

The aim of the Employment Equity Act (1998) states clearly that its primary aim is to "[promote] equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination" (Department of Labour: Republic of South Africa, 2009, p. 5). The Act states that:

> No person may unfairly discriminate, directly or indirectly, against an employee, in any employment policy or practice, on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, family responsibility, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, HIV status, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language and birth (Department of Labour: Republic of South Africa, 2009, p. 7).

Workplace diversity has become an increasingly important issue all over the world and whilst some countries such as the United States of America (USA) are approaching a close in the gender gap in the workplace, South Africa is far from this ideal position (Deitch, et al., 2003; Odendaal & Roodt, 2009b). To uphold South Africa's Employment Equity Act, the Department of Labour: Republic of South Africa (2011) issues Commission for Employment Equity (CEE) reports in order to provide guidelines to business owners towards resource allocation and track the changes the government is trying to achieve, that is a representative workforce. For the year 2010 to 2011, the CEE report provided statistics describing the current workforce composition. The Economically Active Population (EAP) consists of men and women from the ages of 15 to 64 who are either employed or unemployed and seeking employment (Department of Labour: Republic of South Africa, 2011). The CEE reported that of the EAP population of males, 40.5% are Black, 6% are Coloured, 1.9% are Indian, and 6.7% are White. Of the EAP population of females, 33.1% are Black, 5% are Coloured, 1.3% are Indian, and 5.4% are White. From this, we can see that the workforce if made up with approximately similar percentages of men and women except for Black men who are about 7% more than Black women, and that the percentage of economically active men is higher than the percentage of economically active women across all races. (See Appendix A: National Economically Active Population by Race and Gender for a graphical representation.) However, when looking at the composition of individuals in top management in 2010, results demonstrate that Whites make up 73.1% of top management, whilst Blacks constitute 12.7%, Coloureds at 4.6% and Indians at 6.8%. Thus, whilst Black people make up the majority of the working population, White people are the majority race that holds positions in top management. Furthermore, if top management is broken

down by race and gender, it can be observed that White males make up 60.8% of top management whilst White females account for 12.3%. Black women comprise 6.5% whilst Indian and Coloured women comprise 1.4% each. (See Appendix B: Trends of Top Management from 2006-2010 by Race for a graphical representation.) Such statistics suggest that despite in roads being made, racial and gender equality in the workplace remain an elusive ideal.

The Businesswomen's Association of South Africa (BWASA) also conducts an annual analysis of women's progress in the workplace (Businesswomen's Association of South Africa [BWASA]; 2011). In 2011, it was reported that in South Africa, women comprise of 51.3% of the population and 45.1% of the employed population (BWASA, 2011). However, less than 10% of CEOs and board chairs of companies listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE) as well as State Owned Enterprises (SOEs) are female (BWASA, 2011). (See Appendix C: Census Trend Pyramids for a detailed graph.) Therefore, this study will place focus on women. These statistics demonstrate a clear inequality amongst gender and race. It is also clear that White males constitute the majority of top management. Moreover, women constitute the lesser portion of the workforce amongst all races, thus displaying a current inequality in the workplace (Department of Labour: Republic of South Africa, 2011).

Morgan (2006) describes how many organisations are enslaved by gender-related biases as one gender is usually favoured over the other due to those stereotypical values embedded within an organisation. Heilman (1997) defines stereotypes as "a set of attributes ascribes to a group and believed to characterise its individual members simply because they belong to that group" (p. 879). Stereotypes may be viewed as an underlying threat in organisations as men and women are cast off into specific roles, and when either gender defies the stereotype exclusion and criticism occur as a result (Morgan, 2006). The glass ceiling effect is experienced by many women in the workplace; it is an invisible barrier which leads to exclusion from male peers of similar status and position within the organisation (April, Dreyer, & Blass, 2007; Bierema, 2001; Morgan, 2006). Women are also likely to hold the perception that organisations have a ruthless and harsh corporate culture and that they, as women, need to work much harder to attain recognition or promotion (Bierema, 2001; Morgan, 2006). This exclusionary behaviour may be perceived as discrimination on behalf of women as they might tend to feel limited by their biological characteristics and the stereotypes associated with them (Morgan, 2006). On the other hand, stereotypes and categorisation processes are not always comparable across ethnic or racial groups.

Conceptually, perceived discrimination could be viewed in terms of Adam Equity Theory. A motivational theory, it states that individuals measure fairness by comparing their inputs to their outputs in the workplace (Odendaal & Roodt, 2009a). Inputs refer to individual competence, effort put into tasks, experience in the field, and knowledge of the field. Outputs refers to the outcomes of the job which is made of tangible benefits such as salary, bonuses, and other tangible rewards, as well as intangible outcomes such as recognition, appreciation, time-off, etc. Thus, individuals perceive fairness when they observe that their inputs match their outputs where the ratio is balanced, *and* is further maintained when compared to pertinent others such as colleagues with the same or similar job profile. However, if the ratio does not match both individually and in comparison to others, the individual is likely to experience tension and feelings of unfairness (Odendaal & Roodt, 2009a). These feelings of unfairness are again, rooted in concepts of organisational justice: distributive justice (fairness of an outcome), procedural justice (fairness of the process), and interactional justice (consistency in the way people are communicated to across social groupings) (Odendaal & Roodt, 2009a; Özer & Günlük, 2010). Perceived discrimination is likely to be experienced when there are trends pointing towards authentic discrimination as well as aversive discrimination where a different in treatment among different social groupings is perceived (Deitch, et al., 2003).

The perception of discrimination is not only important to organisations because it can lead to lawsuits, but there are intense psychological consequences that the employees face which impacts both individual and organisational well-being (Triana et al., 2010) Wei, Ku, Russell, and Mallinckrodt (2008) confirmed the findings of other empirical studies asserting the association between perceived discrimination and general stress and depression. As employees experience acts of discrimination such as exclusion, gossiping, etc., they are likely to associate the workplace with the negative emotions they've experienced and this, in turn, impacts their affective commitment levels to organisation and job satisfaction (Triana et al., 2010; Ensher et al., 2001; Özer & Günlük, 2010).

2.6. Outcomes: Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be viewed as a context-specific form of well-being (Deitch, et al., 2003). Many authors define job satisfaction as the extent to which one finds his or her job enjoyable or the positive emotional state that results from one's job experiences (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2002; Ensher et al., 2001; Milner, 2009). Job satisfaction is a multi-dimensional construct which takes into consideration the satisfaction of various aspects of the job such as supervision, pay, the work itself,

working conditions, appraisal, co-workers and promotional opportunities (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2002; Milner, 2009). Thus, job satisfaction is a summation of various elements surrounding work. When employees report a high level of job satisfaction, it generally means that these employees have positive attitudes towards their jobs while a dissatisfied individual may hold negative attitudes (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2002; Milner, 2009). Job satisfaction generally has two types of measures, that is, measures that report global satisfaction; or overall satisfaction and measures that break down job satisfaction into components or facets measuring each individual aspect and reporting a total score (Fisher, Katz, Miller, & Thatcher, 2003; Milner, 2009).

Broadly, job satisfaction has also been viewed as a function of two aspects, namely, job characteristics and personality. From the perspective of job characteristics, there are many models that consider which factors to review when looking at job satisfaction. A commonly applied model is the job characteristics model (JCM) (Odendaal, 2009). The JCM may be categorised as a theory of motivation. Motivational theories of job satisfaction were chosen as opposed to facet theories of job satisfaction, not only because they are similar (with both accounting for the different facets of job satisfaction) but they have been widely researched in South African organisations where a certain set of characteristics has been found to impact behavioural outcomes (Odendaal, 2009; Bowling, Hendricks, & Wagner, 2012).

The JCM proposes that there are five aspects which adequately measure job satisfaction, these are: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Odendaal, 2009). Skill variety refers to the range of skills utilised to complete different activities required of the job. Task identity refers to the identification of the product of the task, that is, how much of it can the individual claim as his or her own. The importance of a task in terms of its impact on others makes up the aspect of task significance. Autonomy, as the name suggests, involves the independence of the individual in terms of the amount of decision making, freedom, and discretion used in the completion of the task. Lastly, feedback refers the response the individual receives in terms of how effectively the task was completed (Odendaal, 2009). The JCM is a motivational model which suggests that if these aspects were to be followed, employees are likely to experience both personal and work outcomes. In particular, the organisation is said to experience high-quality work performance, high satisfaction with work, and lower absenteeism and turnover as the individual is likely to experience meaningfulness at work. Knowledge is expected to drive feelings of competence and factors such as autonomy allow one to experience responsibility for the task completed (Odendaal, 2009).

A second theory of motivation closely linked to job satisfaction is Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (1959, as cited in Fisher et al., 2003). Herzberg proposed that there are different variables that lead to work motivation and different variables that lead to work demotivation (Fisher et al., 2003; Odendaal & Roodt, 2009a). Factors which lead to motivation are called motivators or content factors, these factors are intrinsic factors that contribute to intrinsic satisfaction, such as recognition, interesting work, achievement and advancement. Factors which lead to demotivation are called hygiene factors or context factors. These usually comprise of extrinsic factors such as working conditions, pay, quality of interpersonal relations and quality of supervision. However, the central preposition of this theory is that motivation and demotivation do not lie on the same continuum, that is, the opposite of motivation is not demotivation but neutrality and the same for demotivation (Fisher et al., 2003; Odendaal & Roodt, 2009a). The reasoning behind this lies in the premise that different factors lead to the different outcomes. Herzberg further argues that it is important to work both content and context factors into the job as it is not sufficient enough to provide extrinsic motivation and rewards, employees require intrinsic motivation in order to obtain intrinsic satisfaction from the job (Fisher et al., 2003; Odendaal & Roodt, 2009a). Bowling et al. (2010) further confirmed that global self-esteem was positively related to OBSE, as OBSE is theoretically a portion of global SE, which is positively associated with outcomes such as job complexity, autonomy, perceived organizational support from supervisors and co-workers. Therefore, it would follow that competence in these aspects is likely to lead to high self-esteem and high job satisfaction.

Thus, many researchers who examine facets of job satisfaction tend to look at extrinsic job satisfaction and intrinsic job satisfaction (Fisher et al., 2003). Extrinsic job satisfaction is derived from factors external to the individual such as pay, work conditions and job security. Intrinsic job satisfaction is derived from factors that provide an internal satisfaction to the individual such as task variety, personal control, personal growth and opportunities for skills development. Together these two produce overall job satisfaction. However, looking it in parts may be useful in suggesting which aspects of work provide the most satisfaction (Fisher et al., 2003).

Pertinent to the present study is the research that considers the influence of personality upon job satisfaction. Affective dispositions (positive and negative affectivity), for example, have been shown to impact job satisfaction (Fisher et al., 2003). Affective dispositions are "cognitive mechanisms pertaining to midrange personality traits that govern how people interpret their environment" (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998, p. 18). Therefore, they are personality-like traits that influence how positively or negatively one would interpret their immediate environment. This is a pertinent factor

to the study at hand as affective dispositions are the lenses that are likely to colour the manner in which an individual will interpret environmental structures, social cues from significant peers and even personal experiences (perceive discrimination). More importantly, is the understanding that dispositions affect one's core self-evaluations. Core self-evaluations, as described by Judge et al. (1998), encompass the concepts of self-esteem, self-efficacy, non-neuroticism, and locus of control and are used to form an appraisal of the self. Research has linked core self-evaluations to job satisfaction whereby high core self-evaluations are associated with high levels of job satisfaction (Judge et al., 1998; Milner, 2009; Fisher et al., 2003). By extension, individuals who experience feelings of competence and worthiness exhibit high levels of OBSE, and are associated with higher reports of job satisfaction, while the opposite is true for individuals who experience low OBSE (Milner, 2009). The logic is as follows: should one have recusant experiences in the workplace, it would be expected that the individual would consequently report low OBSE. A further consequence would be low job satisfaction as he or she may no longer attain much contentment from the job. This would sequentially arise as a result from the individual's perceptions of the work environment, its social cues and/or unpleasant personal experiences. Wei et al., (2008) further assert that perceived discrimination and low self-esteem contribute to depressive states thereby jeopardising the well-being of the individual.

2.7. A Mediational Model

In summation of the argument presented above, the study seeks to understand the relationship between perceived discrimination, OBSE and job satisfaction. Based upon the literature already presented, it is plausible that perceived discrimination could be argued as a determinant of OBSE. This is based upon the theory identifying three major aspects that impact the state-like nature of OBSE, namely, the role of work environment structures, social cues from significant others and personal experiences. Should any of these aspects encompass behaviours that may be perceived as discriminatory, they are likely to negatively impact upon an individual's OBSE.

Researchers such as Özer and Günlük (2010), Sanchez and Brock (1996) and Bowling et al. (2010) found that perceived discrimination and job satisfaction were significantly and negatively correlated, that is, as perceived discrimination increases, job satisfaction decreases. However, Deitch et al. (2003) found that perceived discrimination, or as they termed it, everyday discrimination, which consisted of everyday minor incidents only partially accounted for lower job satisfaction in Black employees. Moreover, other studies (e.g. Jackson et al., 1996; Kessler et al., 1999; Kessler & Neighbors, 1986; Noh et al., 1999; Radhakrishnan, 1998; Schneider et al., 2000; D. Williams et al.,

1997, as cited in Deitch et al., 1993) have shown that everyday discrimination has negative effects on psychological well-being such as lowered self-esteem. Therefore, while the perceived discrimination – job satisfaction relationship shows a significant correlation, it is plausible that there is a stronger relationship through the mediator OBSE. This is shown through by Deitch et al. (2003) as they suggest that perceived discrimination only partially accounts for a change in job satisfaction, and through research which demonstrates a higher correlation between OBSE and job satisfaction. For example Bowling et al. (2010) reports a mean correlation of $r = 0.47$ between OBSE and job satisfaction, where as Özer & Günlük (2010) report a correlation of $r = -0.306$ between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction.

The aims of the study could be summed up as follows, (a) to verify the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction, (b) to observe if OBSE mediates the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction, and (c) to confirm that OBSE not only mediates the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction, but this mediation path is a stronger predictor than global self-esteem in the workplace context. Thus, there is cause to test a mediation model wherein the relationship between perceived discrimination, OBSE and, job satisfaction is stronger (lines (a) and (b) in the diagram below) than the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction (line (c) in the diagram below).

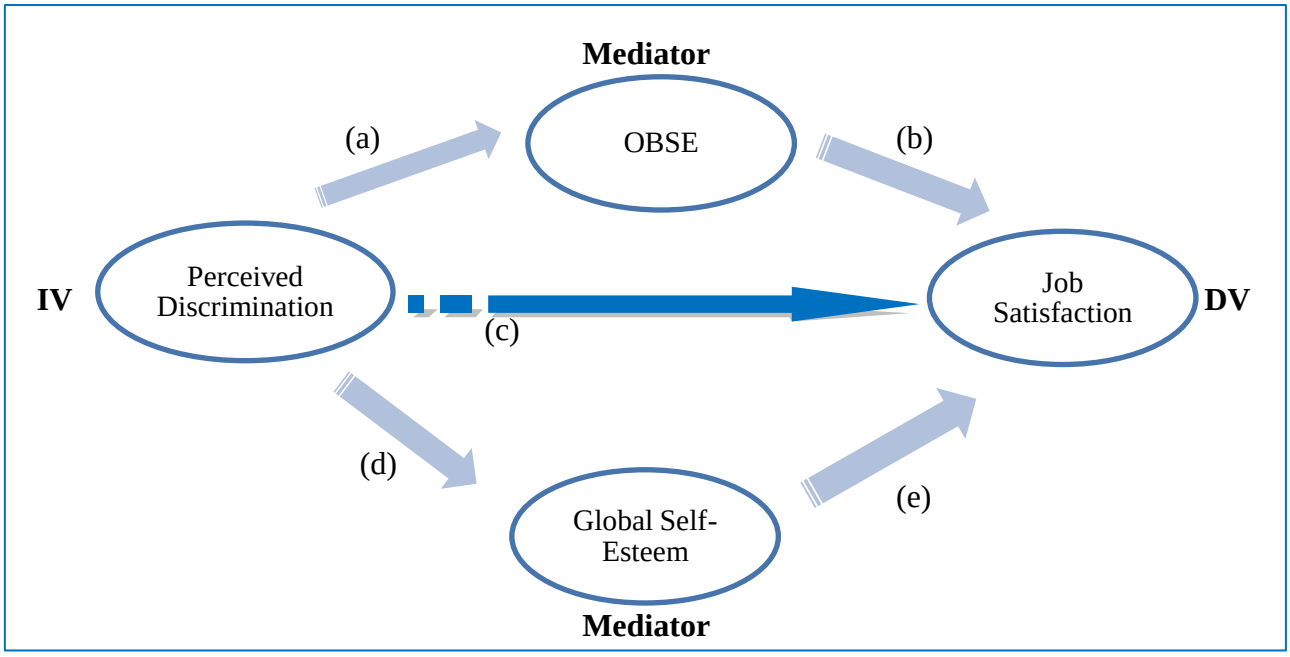


Figure 1. Diagrammatical Representation of Variables under Consideration

2.8. Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between perceived discrimination, organisational-based self-esteem, global self-esteem and job satisfaction?

    1.1. What is the relationship between perceived discrimination and OBSE?

    1.2. What is the relationship between OBSE and job satisfaction?

    1.3. What is the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction?

2. Does OBSE mediate the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction?

Chapter Three: Methodology

Chapter three provides an in-depth description of the research design, sample, procedure, research instruments and data analysis utilised in the present study in order to obtain the results presented in chapter four. This is followed by ethical considerations surrounding the study providing a thorough background to the current study.

3.1. Research Design

The study utilised a Cross-Sectional Ex Post Facto Non-Experimental design as the study did not make use of a control group nor was there any use for random assignment, and there was no manipulation of the independent variable in the study, that is, perceived discrimination was not manipulated. This study aimed to look at the directional nature of the relationships between perceived discrimination, OBSE and job satisfaction through Structural Equation Modelling as shown in the figure below. However, Global Self-Esteem was included in order to distinguish its effects against that of OBSE.



Figure 2. Expected Directional Path of Influence.

3.2. Sample

3.2.1. Sampling.

The study utilised a non-probability based sampling- strategy which aimed to test the mediating effects of OBSE on the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction. Non-probability sampling occurs when "some elements have no chance (i.e., having a probability of zero) of being included" (Huysamen, 1994, p. 37) in the sample. Initially, purposive (non-probability) sampling was the sole approach for data collection. In this approach, one large organisation had agreed to participate in the study (forwarding questionnaire links to approximately two thousand females). However, due to the low response rate attained from the organisation participating in the study (2.25%), alternate sampling approaches were employed. Mediums such as Facebook and LinkedIn were thereafter utilised, as it was outlined in the proposal as an alternative route. The

response rate peaked with a high of 20 responses on some days when broadcasts were made through these mediums, as shown in Figure 3.

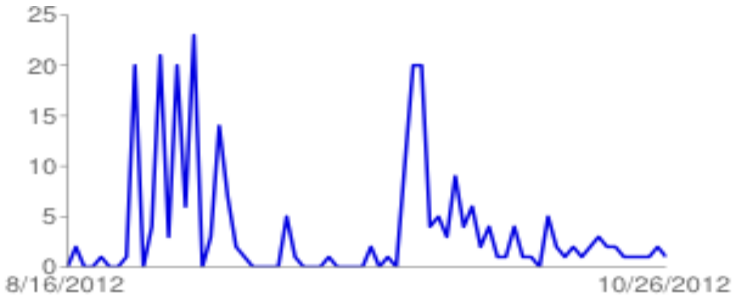


Figure 3. Trend of Data Responses

However, the total number of responses was still low. Therefore, snowball (non-probability) sampling was employed through emailing of contacts with a resultant sample of 266 working women (prior to exclusions). Three individuals were excluded because they reported that they are working students, and the study focused on individuals working full-time. The remainder of participants excluded were removed as they failed to complete the questionnaire. As a result, different scales had different sample sizes. Therefore, a Missing Value Analysis (MVA) was conducted and data was inputted by utilising the EM Algorithm method available on SPSS. This is a common and acceptable method of inputting missing values (Allison, 2003). Sample sizes were then equally 238 as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Table Displaying Various Sample Sizes for Scales and Demographics

	N (before data input)	**N (after data input)**
Age	238	238
Race	238	238
Scale 1_ OBSE	236	238
Scale 2_ Job Satisfaction	238	238
Scale 3_ Perceived Discrimination	229	238
Scale 4_ Global Self- Esteem	236	238

3.2.2. Demographics.

The sample consisted of 266 women prior to exclusions. Statistical analyses were conducted after exclusions were completed; therefore demographical information reported is based on a sample of 238 individuals. As the rationale in the introduction explains, women face unique discriminatory barriers within organisations and as such provide a target population for testing the above discussed

relationships between perceived discrimination, OBSE and job satisfaction. Women from all positions were approached as they might have faced certain obstacles such as promotion into management in the workplace. However, since OBSE develops with workplace experience and the literature has not suggested a time frame for OBSE development, to ensure that all participants have developed an OBSE, a critical exclusionary criterion utilised was that individuals required work experience of at least 12 months (1 year) in order to be included in the study. Table 2provides a summary of the sample.

Table 2. Summary of Sample Demographics.

Descriptor	**N**	**Percent**
Gender		
Female	266 (before exclusions) At least 229 (after exclusions)*	100
Race		
White	93	39.1
Black	37	15.5
Indian	93	39.1
Asian	1	0.4
Coloured	14	5.9
Total	**238**	**100**
Work Arrangement		
Full- Time	266 (before exclusions)	100
Age (years)		
20-25	67	28.2
26-30	72	30.3
31-35	34	14.3
36-40	24	10.1
41-45	11	4.6
46-50	7	2.9
51-55	10	4.2
56-69	8	3.4
Unspecified	5	2.1
Total	**238**	**100**
Tenure (years)**		
1-2	36	15.1
2-5	62	26.1
5-10	56	23.5
10-15	34	14.3
15-20	15	6.3
>20	35	14.7
Total	**238**	**100**

* See Table 1 for specified sample sizes

**Tenure refers to the duration of work from the beginning of an individuals working career.

Table 3. Descriptives for Age and Tenure.

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Skewness	Kurtosis
Age	31.99	9.691	20	69	1.522	1.926
Tenure (in months)	126.72	117.420	12	600	1.575	2.183

Of a sample of 238, 233 women reported their ages and the sample reflected an age range between 20 and 69 with a mean of 31.99 and a standard deviation of 9.691 as shown in the Table 3. Five individuals had not specified their age. The sample displayed slight skewness to the right as reported in table 3 and displayed in Figure 4. Therefore, the majority of the sample was made up individuals between the ages of twenty and forty. Tenure ranged from 12 to 600 months, that is, 1 to 50 years, displayed a mean of 126.72 months (10.56 years) and standard deviation of 117.420 months (9.785 years). It is also skew to the right placing emphasis towards a younger working population as shown in Figure 5.

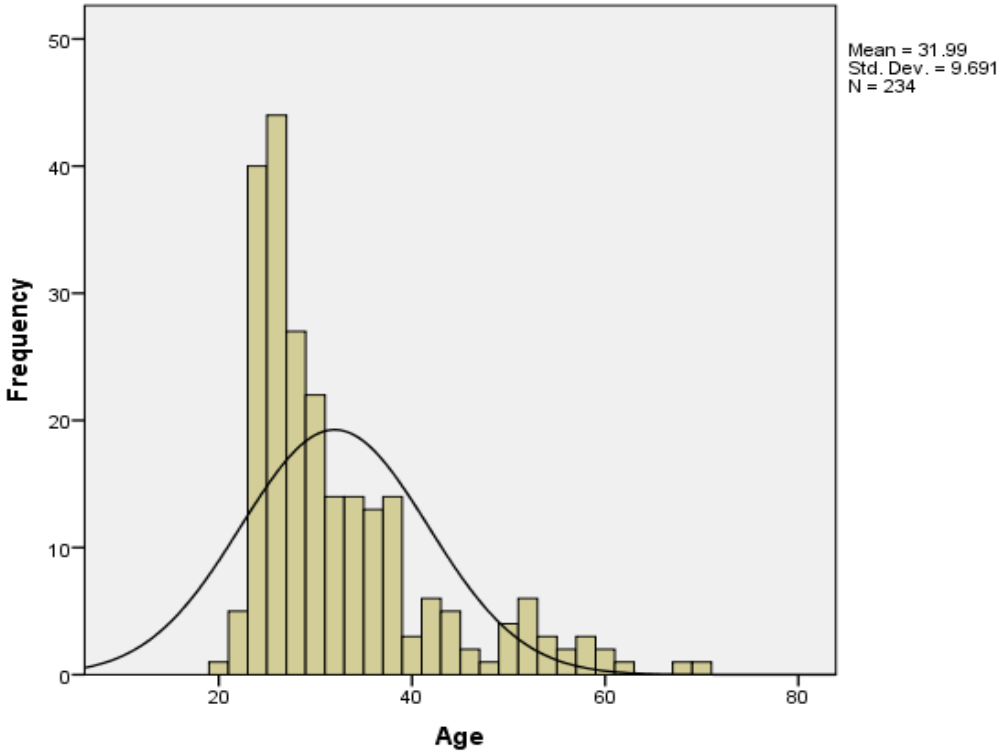


Figure 4. Age Range of the Sample.

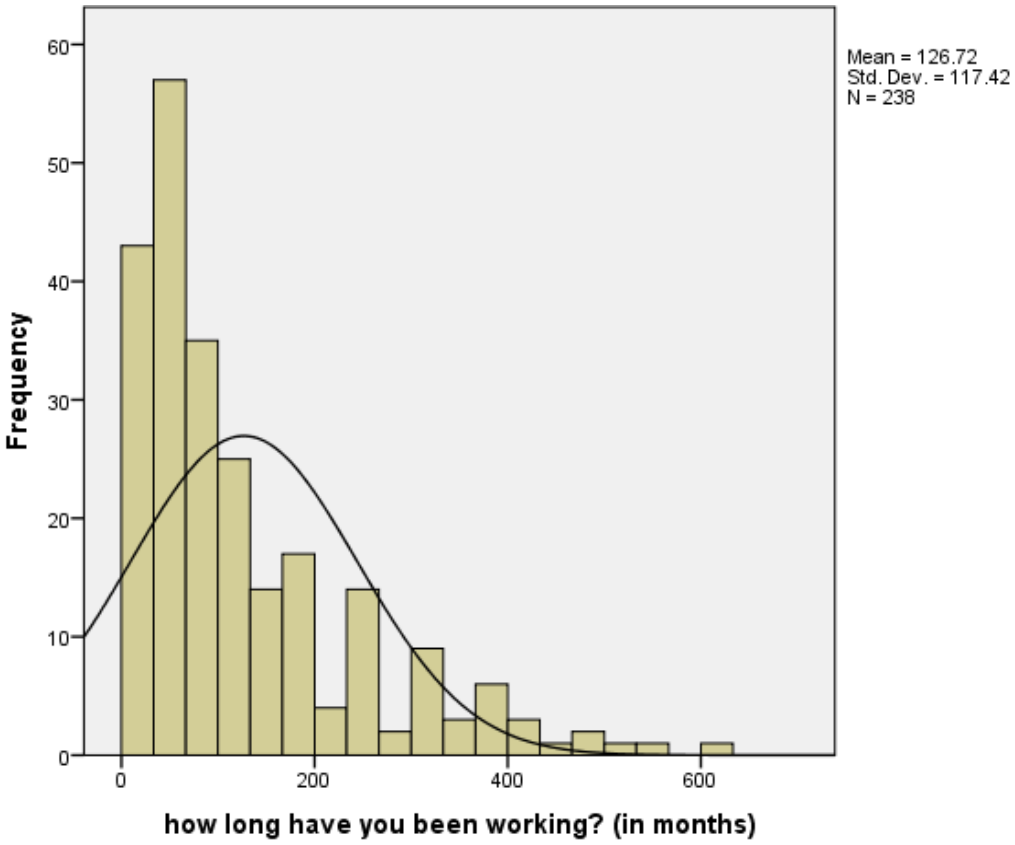
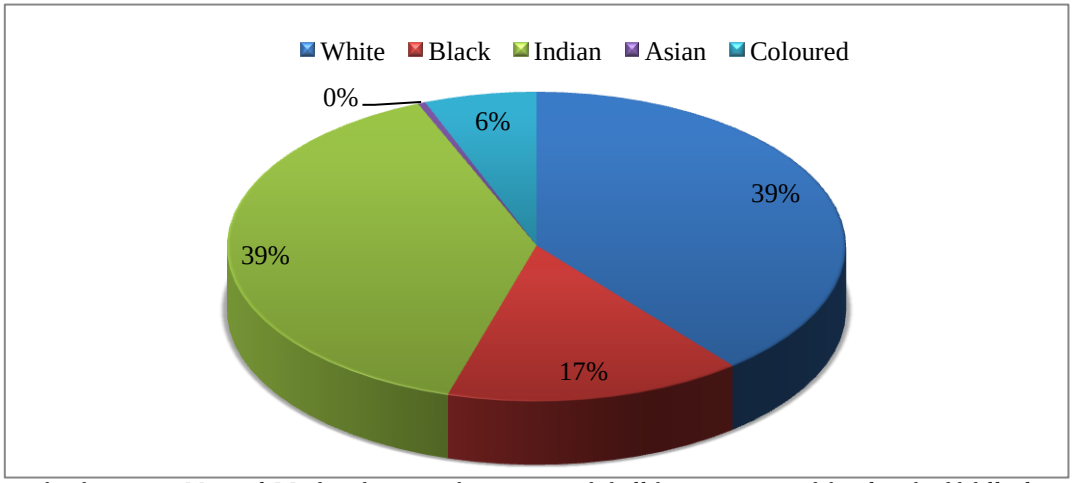


Figure 5. Tenure of Sample.

The racial breakdown is as follows: Whites composed of 39.1%, Blacks of 15.5%, Indian of 39.1%, Asian of 0.4%, and Coloureds of 5.9%. The sample is non-representative of the South African population. An unusually high number of the Indian population (39%) responded to this study; this can be explained by the author's use of snowball sampling through her community as she is of Indian descent. For a visual representation of this breakdown, see figure 6.



*Please note that the program Microsoft Word used to create this image rounded off the percentages and therefore should differ from data reported above

Figure 6. The Distribution of Race of the Sample Obtained.

Lastly, the sample was also obtained through a wide variety of organisations as 238 viable responses arose from 126 different organisations within South Africa. The largest number of participants to arise from one organisation was forty four. These participants came out of the one organisation which agreed to participate. The names of the organisations have been removed to protect confidentiality. Industries and positions rendered seem vast across these 126 organisations as the industries covered included Accounting, Banks, Actuary firms, teaching (private and public), government sectors such as education and health, chemical companies, Retail stores, Insurance, IT, consulting, television industry, petroleum industry, motor industry, civil engineering industry. Therefore, the sample is widespread and broad. Positions reported include: accountant, assistant, administrator, analysts, aeronautical engineers, associates, audit partners, bookkeeper, business analysts, call centre agents, client liaisons, civil engineers, coordinators, dentists, debt collectors, individuals from various positions in Human Resources, industrial psychologists, managers and so on. See full list reported in Appendix G.

3.3. Procedure

Approximately sixty organisations were contacted via email briefly outlining purpose of the study. Many of these organisations were found using the University of Witwatersrand Graduate Programme handbook as it was assumed that those companies that had strong associations with the University might have been more willing to participate in the study (Counselling and Careers Development Unit, University of the Witwatersrand, 2011). However, this attempt failed as there was a low response rate (approximately 8%) as well as a high rejection rate in terms of willingness to participate. Thereafter, more organisations and individuals were contacted via email through personal contacts. Almost two hundred contacts were pursued. In these emails, a brief invitation to participate in the study was mentioned with the formal letter of invitation as shown in Appendix E attached. Those organisations showing interest in participation were contacted and answers were provided around their questions.

Four organisations initially agreed to participate. These organisations were then sent out an email which they were to forward to the female workers of the organisation. In this email, a letter identical to the one in Appendix F was attached. However, once the study had begun, three of these organisations broke contact and were unreachable thereafter. Numerous calls and emails were made but the individuals from those companies were unreachable and sent no response to the emails. The fourth organisation that had agreed to participate had been sent the link to the study. After noticing a low response rate from this organisation (of six individuals) the Human Resources (HR) individual

who had agreed to participate was contacted. This person had stated that she had been sending out the links to the organisation but it was later discovered that there was a misunderstanding on her behalf as she only forwarded it to her immediate contacts and did not have the authority to send it out to the rest of the organisation. At this point it was too late to obtain the correct authority required.

A fifth organisation, large in size, had displayed interest in participating in the study at this point in time as a personal contact had forwarded the original organisational access letter to the HR Department of the organisation. The HR Director then requested a meeting in person in order to discuss the study and what would be required of the study. After a discussion with the partners of the organisation the company agreed to participate. The organisation opted to forward the email with the link and participant information letter to the female participants of the organisation. The author was courtesy copied into the email as well. Therefore anonymity could not be guaranteed, however, confidentiality was maintained. The email was sent out to approximately 2000 female employees with a final response rate of 2.5%. The author picked up this slow-response trend as Google allowed for a monitoring of response rate as shown in Figure 2 earlier. Therefore, as this trend was discovered the author pursued the social media route through LinkedIn and Facebook. Posts were sent out on a regular basis to increase the chances of participation. The trend-line reinforces this notion as responses increased on days when posts were made. The author had joined thirteen business groups specifically created for South Africans on LinkedIn in order to reach the everyday working population (who owns or has access to a computer and internet). Some examples of the groups joined are South Africa Business Communities, Johannesburg Business Club, and HR Network South Africa. Through regular posting on social media and emailing contacts, a sample of 266 was collected (prior to exclusions).

Thereafter, statistical analyses were conducted: first individuals who had not completed more than 75% of questionnaires were excluded. Second, descriptive statistics were run, as shown in the demographics section. Third, Confirmatory Factor Analyses were run (results will be discussed later). Lastly, correlations and Structural Equation Modelling SEM) were conducted to test the meditational model.

3.4. Research Instruments

3.4.1. Demographic questionnaire.

Demographical information such as age, race, place of work, job position, tenure (duration of work) and duration of work in current organisation was collected for descriptive and correlational purposes. In order to satisfy the criteria and ensure the target sample was obtained, the following questions were asked: "how long have you be working?" and, "how long have you been working for this organisation?" Since race is a primary determinant of discrimination, race was a key question in the demographic questionnaire. See Appendix D for the full questionnaire. No identifying data such as name or ID was asked for; however, if one had to actively search for a participant, one could discover the identity of the participant based on the organisation name and position provided in the questionnaire. However, this data will be protected and deleted upon completion of the study to protect the identities of the participants.

3.4.2. Organisation-Based Self-Esteem (OBSE) scale.

Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, and Dunham (1989), the pioneers of the conceptual framework for OBSE, had previously developed and validated an OBSE scale. The ten-item scale was designed to represent the organisational factors that would shape or mould the employee's self-worth in an organisational context, that is, that the employee is a valuable, efficient and worthwhile member of the organisation (Pierce et al., 1989).

The scale had an average internal consistency of .91 and test-retest reliability of .87 (after controlling for organisational change) (Pierce et al., 1989). The scale displays construct validity as shown through the presence of incremental and predictive validity as well as convergent and discriminant validity (Pierce et al., 1989). The scale is a five-point likert scale which ranges from 1 to 5 where one indicates strongly disagree and 5 indicates strongly agree. A higher score signifies a strong OBSE and a lower score signifies a low OBSE. An adapted version of the scale was administered as the original items ended with the phrase "around here" were adapted to "in the workplace" to provide a more specific organisational context for the scale. For example, items such as "I am valuable around here" and "I am efficient around here" became "I am valuable in the workplace" and "I am efficient in the workplace". (See Appendix D for the full OBSE scale.)

The scale has been used in numerous studies over the decades, for example: Pierce, Gardner, Dunham, Cummings, & Pierce, (1993) who reported an alpha of 0.90, McAllister and Bigley (2002)

who reported an alpha of .92; as well as Hsu and Huo (2003) and Lee and Peccei (2007) who both reported that the alpha was of an acceptable level; Scott et al. (2008) who used a 5-item version and reported alphas of .83 and .85 in for their two recordings of scores; Gardner and Pierce (2011); Ghosh, Reio Jr., and Haynes (2012). All authors mentioned above found the validity and reliabilities reported by Pierce et al. (1989) to be consistent and stable across time. Reliability seemed to have ranged from .83 to .92, similar to the range reported in the original validation study by Pierce et al. (1989).

In the present study, the psychometric properties were re-evaluated in order to ensure that the scale possessed good construct validity and internal consistency, and therefore, a confirmatory factory analysis and a reliability analysis was conducted using SPSS (IBM, 2011). The reliability analysis reported a very high reliability, where $\alpha = 0.929$. This was the highest reliability obtainable from this scale as it would have decreased had any items been deleted. This scale had been tested previously and therefore it was appropriate to confirm a one factor solution using confirmatory factor analysis. See Table 4 below for factor loadings. See appendix H for more tables and graphs around the reliability analysis and factor analysis.

Table 4. Factor Loadings of the OBSE Scale Using Principal Components Analysis

Component Matrix[a]	
Item	Component 1
1. I count in the workplace	.804
2. I am taken seriously in the workplace	.756
3. I am important in the workplace	.763
4. I am trusted in the workplace	.849
5. There is faith in me in the workplace	.848
6. I can make a difference in the workplace	.755
7. I am valuable in the workplace	.838
8. I am helpful in the workplace	.804
9. I am efficient in the workplace	.706
10. I am cooperative in the workplace	.680

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

a. 1 Components extracted.

Hair Jr., Black, and Anderson, (2010) provided a guideline for significant factor loadings based on the sample size. The above scale utilised a sample of 214 (as 24 were excluded). (See Appendix H: Psychometric Properties of the Scales. According to Hair Jr. et al. (2010) a significant factor loading

of this sample size is a point above 0.40. Therefore, from the above table, it is clear that all items load well onto the scale. Item 10, "I am cooperative in the workplace", had the lowest loading of all the items with a loading of 0.68, a nevertheless good factor loading. Therefore the scale demonstrates good construct validity and internal consistency.

3.4.3. Global Self-Esteem Scale.

The ten-item Rosenberg global Self-Esteem Scale was utilised (Rosenberg, 1965). The scale assesses an individual's overall evaluation of his or her "worthiness as a human being" (Schmitt & Allik, 2005, p. 626). It is a widely used measure (Tshabalala, 2011; Schmitt & Allik, 2005; Bagley, Bolitho, & Bertrand, 1997). It is a 4-point scale which ranges from strongly disagree= 0 to strongly agree= 3 where a higher score indicates a higher self-esteem (Schmitt & Allik, 2005).

Schmitt & Allik (2005) performed a study evaluating the Global Self-Esteem scale in 53 countries of which they found a mean reliability of .81 across all fifty-three countries. The range of reliabilities, however, was broad, as countries such as Congo reported a reliability of .45 in contrast to the United Kingdom and Israel which reported an α= .90. South Africa was not included in this study. However, Tshabalala (2011) reported that the scale had a test-retest reliability of .82 and a Cronbach alpha of .75 when tested on a South African HIV-positive female sample. The scale was also said to possess convergent validity as it correlates highly with other measures of self-esteem (Tshabalala, 2011). The scale contains five positively worded items and five negatively worded items. Examples of items are "I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others" and "All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure". Items 3, 5, 8, and 9 are reverse scored items; see scale in the table below. Numbers correspond to items 41, 43, 46 and 47 respectively. Bagley, Bolitho, and Bertrand (1997) validated this scale in terms of construct validity. The wide use of this scale also suggests that it possesses strong psychometric properties.

In the current study, the scale was re-evaluated to ensure that it possessed the psychometric properties claimed above. Therefore, a confirmatory factor analysis as well as reliability analysis was conducted. The reliability analysis reported an α= .804. This was the highest obtainable reliability as had an item been removed the reliability of the scale would have decreased. A one factor solution confirmatory factor analysis showed the following:

Table 5. Factor Loadings of Global Self-Esteem Scale Using Principal Components Analysis.

Component Matrix[a]	
Item	Component 1
1/ 39. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others	.577
2/ 40. I feel that I have a number of good qualities	.551
3/ R41.All in all, I am inclined to feel like a failure	.574
4/ 42. I am able to do things as well as most other people	.637
5/ R43 I feel I do not have much to be proud of	.576
6/ 44. I take a positive attitude toward myself	.745
7/ 45. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself	.704
8/ R46 I certainly feel useless at times	.608
9/ R47. At times I think I'm no good at all	.689

Extraction Method: Principal
Component Analysis.
a. 1 components extracted.

As the sample size for this scale was 226, the significant factor loading would be any point above .40 (Hair Jr. et al., 2010).Therefore, all items load onto a one-factor solution. (See Appendix H: Psychometric Properties of the Scales for further reliability and factor analysis information). Therefore, the global self-esteem scale demonstrated good reliability and construct validity.

3.4.4. Job satisfaction scale.

The twenty-item Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) Short-Form from Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1986) has been re-evaluated and reprinted in the Handbook of Organizational Measurement of 1986 by Price and Mueller. The MSQ is a popular job satisfaction scale and is still used today (Ibraheem, Mohammad, and, Al-zeaud, 2011; Chen, Chen, and Chen, 2010; Campbell, 2011; and, Van Wyk & Adonisi, 2008).

This instrument measures extrinsic job satisfaction, intrinsic job satisfaction and general job satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967). All 20 items are considered a measure of general satisfaction. The short-form is the shortened version of the long-form questionnaire which has 25-item scales. The short form took the best statement from each scale to make up a 20-item short-form scale. This short-form was utilised in the present study. The scale was said to have been validated in terms of construct validity, concurrent validity, content validity (Weiss et al., 1967; Chen et al., 2010), and face validity can be seen in the items. For example, “the way my boss handles his/her workers” is a

clear indicator of satisfaction with superiority. Rothman and Buitendach (2009) performed a scale validation of the MSQ in South Africa. After conducting an exploratory factor analysis, they concluded that the scale is conceptually valid. However, they found differences across age and race groups in the subscales measuring extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction and recommend the removal of the following items: "the freedom to use my own judgement", "the chance to try my own methods of doing the job", and, "the feeling of accomplishment I get from my job" (Rothman & Buitendach, 2009). Therefore, a 17 item scale measuring global satisfaction with eight items measuring extrinsic satisfaction and nine items measuring intrinsic satisfaction. (See items 11 to 27 in Appendix D for the full scale).

Further examples of scale items are, "being able to keep busy all the time", "the chance to work alone on the job", "the way company policies are put into practice", and "the chance to try my own methods of doing the job". Individuals were asked to rate how satisfied or dissatisfied they were on a five-point likert scale where 1 indicated very dissatisfied and 5 indicated very satisfied. Previous internal consistency results for the two sub-scales and main scale were relatively high, that is, the range for the Intrinsic Satisfaction Scale, was .84 to .91; the Extrinsic Satisfaction Scale ranged from .77 to .82 and the General Satisfaction Scale varied from .87 to .92 (Weiss et al., 1967). The stability across time for the General Satisfaction Scale yielded .89 for a one week period and .70 over a one-year interval. Chen et al. (2010) reported a reliability coefficient of 0.9, whilst Rothman and Buitendach (2009) reported an alpha of .86 for global satisfaction, .82 for extrinsic satisfaction and .79 for intrinsic satisfaction. These are acceptable reliabilities.

In the present study, a confirmatory factory analysis was conducted confirming a one-factor solution that measures general job satisfaction. A reliability analysis revealed an $\alpha = .0884$. This is a good reflection of internal consistency.

Table 6. Factor Loadings of the General Job Satisfaction Scale Using Principal Components Analysis.

Component Matrix[a]	
	Component 1
11. Being able to keep busy all the time	.559
12. The chance to work alone on the job	.569
13. The chance to do different things from time to time	.682
14. The chance to be "somebody" in the community	.586
15. The way my boss handles his/her workers	.606
16. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	.589
17. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	.411
18. The way my job provides for steady employment	.433
19. The chance to do things for other people	.624
20. The chance to tell people what to do	.622
21. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	.719
22. The way company policies are put into practice	.610
23. My pay and the amount of work I do	.525
24. The chances to try my own methods of doing my job	.755
25. The working conditions	.728
26. The way my co-workers get along with each other	.428
27. The praise I get for doing a good job	.606
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. a. 1 components extracted.	

The stipulated significant factor loading point is .40 as the sample size was 204. As tabulated above, it is clear that all items load onto the scale with some items such as "the way my co-workers get along with each other" and "being able to do things that don't go against my conscience" correlating with a relatively low but significant factor loading of 0.4. Therefore, the job satisfaction scale display good indices of internal consistency and construct validity, in line with previous studies. (See appendix H).

3.4.5. Perceived discrimination.

Perceived discriminations has been researched through various perspectives, for example, Sanchez & Brock (1996), Stainback & Irvin (2012), Corning (2002), Ensher et al. (2001) and the measurement of perceived discrimination has varied greatly in terms of methodology and quality (Corning, 2002). This study measured perceived discrimination using an adapted version of the scale set out by Sanchez and Brock (1996). The ten-item scale measuring was created and adapted from a scale measuring perceived discrimination by Mena, Padilla and Maldonado (1987, as cited in Sanchez &

Brock, 1996). Sanchez and Brock (1996) had adapted the scale to measure ethnicity as their focus was on the perceived discrimination of the Hispanic population in the United States of America. The present study concentrated on perceived gender and racial discrimination.

Sanchez and Brock (1996) reported an internal consistency of .87, while the scale's uni-dimentionality was supported by a screeplot of eigenvalues, factor analysis as well as parallel analysis which all suggested a one factor solution. "At work, I feel uncomfortable when others make jokes or negative commentaries about me because of my race/gender" and "at work, I sometimes feel that my race/gender is a limitation" are examples of the scale items. As some items ended with the terms "race/ gender", the type of discrimination referred to was phrased as a question in item 28 preceding the scale. The participant had been asked to choose one of three options, namely: gender discrimination, racial discrimination or both gender and racial discrimination experienced. It was assumed that individuals who have not experienced discrimination would leave the question unanswered. See Appendix D, items 28-38, for the full scale. Scores were measured using a 5 point likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree where a high score indicated a high perception of discrimination.

The scale had not been utilised in South Africa before; therefore, to ensure its validity in South Africa, a one factor solution confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as well as reliability analysis was conducted. The reliability analysis showed that the scale had an acceptable internal consistency of 0.893. A CFA revealed the following:

Table 7.Factor Loadings of the Perceived Discrimination Scale Using Principal Components Analysis.

Component Matrix[a]	
	Component 1
29. At work, I feel uncomfortable when others make jokes or negative commentaries about me because of my race/gender.	.653
30. At work, I sometimes feel that my race/gender is a limitation.	.774
31. At work, many people have stereotypes about my racial group/gender and treat me as if they were true.	.784
32. At work, people think I am unsociable when in fact I have trouble communicating in English.	.470
33. At work, I sometimes feel that people actively try to stop me from advancing because of my race/gender.	.806
34. At work, it bothers me when people pressure me to assimilate.	.755
35. At work, I do not get enough recognition because I am different.	.809
36. My accent is a limitation at work.	.544
37. At work, I feel that others exclude me from their activities because of my race/gender.	.774
38. At work, people look down upon me if I practice customs of my culture.	.734
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. a. 1 components extracted.	

With a sample size of 214, a factor loading would be considered significant if it is greater than .40 (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). As shown in the table above, all factors load onto the scale. The lowest item loadings were "at work, people think I am unsociable when in fact I have trouble communicating in English" and "my accent is a limitation at work" with loadings of .47 and .54 respectively. Therefore the reliability and construct validity were at acceptable levels.

3.5. Data Analysis

Prior to any analyses, data was cleaned with participants who completed less than 75% of scales deleted from the study, that is, 28 participants were removed. In the proceeding section, data analysis will be described in conjunction to the research question it attempted to answer. However, preceding this description is a short summary of the simple statistics conducted on the demographical data obtained as well as the data analyses performed prior to the correlations and Structural Equation Modelling.

3.5.1. Simple Statistics: Demographical Data

Beginning the analyses, descriptive statistics of all variables and scales in the study was conducted on SPSS (IBM, 2011). This included descriptions of the mean, standard deviation, minimums and maximum, along with tests for skewness (using Kolmogorov- Smirnoff) and kurtosis to test normality (IBM, 2011). Guidelines to conducting data analyses were consulted (Kirkpatrick & Feeney, 2012).

3.5.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Measures of internal consistency were employed prior to Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). Internal consistency is represented by a Cronbach alpha which "shows the degree to which all the items in a test measure the same attribute" (Huysamen, 1994, p. 121). Previous studies (as mentioned earlier) had reported high internal consistencies of each of the scales, and were confirmed in the current study by conducting reliability analyses and calculating the Cronbach alpha of each scale. After the scales were considered suitable and items were selected for each scale (no items were deleted), all scales were validated in terms of construct validity using CFA. CFA is a statistical procedure that allows one to validate the construct being measured, that is, it measures the degree to which a concept is adequately measured by the items representing the concept (Hair Jr. et al., 2010; Roodt, 2009).

The widely used Principal Components Factor Analysis was chosen as recommended by Hair Jr. et al. (2010) as the primary focus was to explain the maximum amount of variance using the minimum amount of factors. In order replicate the results of the scales closest to their original forms, CFA was chosen rather than Exploratory Factor Analysis where the number of factors to extract per scale was specified (Hair Jr. et al, 2010). Furthermore, "the first factor may be viewed as the single best summary of linear relationships exhibited in the data" (Hair Jr. et al., 2010, p.108). The CFA represented the satisfaction of the a priori criterion. The Latent Root Criterion was not employed in this study due to the nature of the factor analysis employed, that is, no eigenvalues were tested for. However, the percentage of variance and Scree Test Criterions were employed (Hair Jr. et al, 2010). (See appendix H). Hair Jr. et al. (2010) states that there is no absolute perimeter when determining the cut-off point of percentage of variance explained. They recommend, however, that a 60% threshold be utilised although noting that lower thresholds may also be appropriate. The scree plot "is used to identify the optimum number of factors that can be extracted before the amount of unique

variance begins to dominate the common variance structure" (Hair Jr. et al., 2010, p.110). These criterions have been acknowledged as ambiguous but are nevertheless widely utilised.

CFA is also utilised later on as part of the Structural Equation Modelling data analysis and will be discussed under SEM accordingly.

3.5.3. Correlation

1. What is the relationship between perceived discrimination, organisational-based self-esteem and job satisfaction?

1.1. What is the relationship between perceived discrimination and OBSE?

1.2. What is the relationship between OBSE and job satisfaction?

1.3. What is the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction?

In order to answer *Q1*, correlations were utilised. In order to determine the relationships among variables, bivariate correlations were conducted between all independent and dependent variables. Correlations with Global Self-Esteem were also included to firstly, view the role of global self-esteem in the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction and secondly, to demonstrate concurrent validity as the OBSE is a variation of a measure of self-esteem and therefore OBSE and global self-esteem measures should be similar. Seven key correlations were conducted as follows: (a) perceived discrimination – OBSE, (b) OBSE – job satisfaction, (c) perceived discrimination – job satisfaction, (d) perceived discrimination – Global Self-Esteem, (e) Global Self-Esteem – job satisfaction, (f) OBSE – Global Self-Esteem, as shown in
Figure 7.

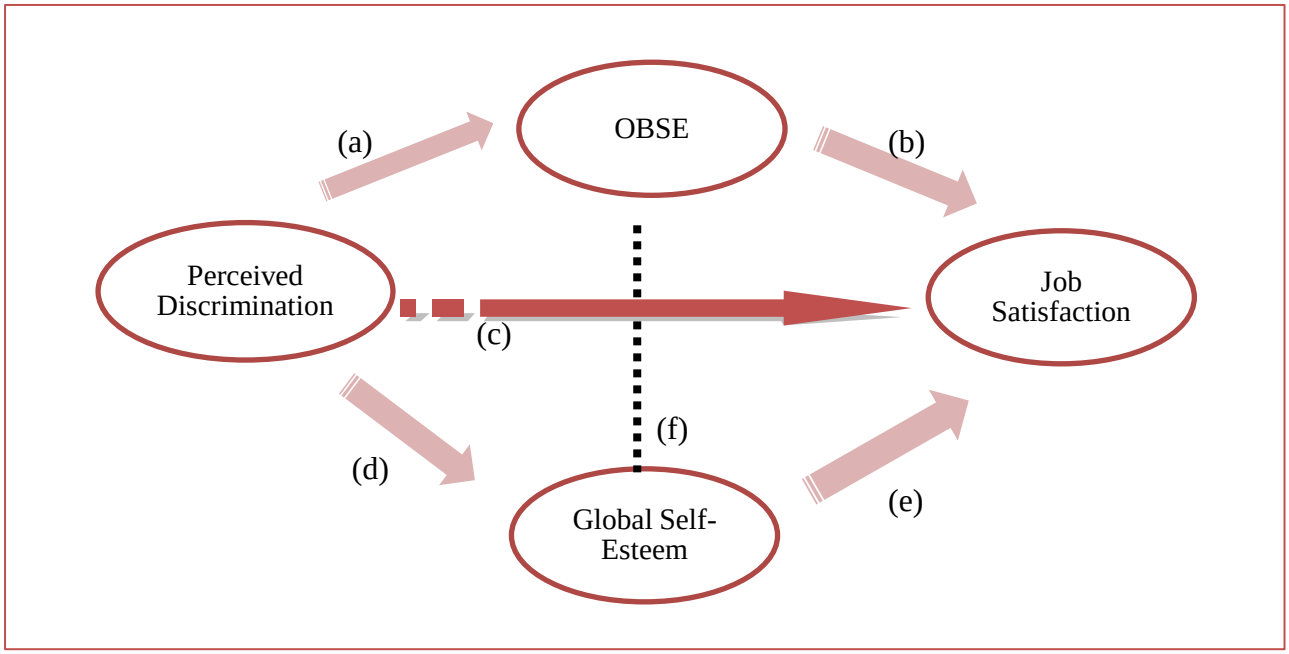


Figure 7. Diagrammatical Representation of Correlations Conducted.

A parametric Pearson's product-moment correlation was calculated as the data was quantitative in nature and each variable produced raw scores (Huck, 2009). This is a parametric test, therefore parametric assumptions had to be met. The coefficient is represented by the symbol *(r)* to numerically describe the relations hips (Huck, 2009). The coefficient *(r)* exists on a continuum from -1 to +1; where the closer the coefficient is to 1 the stronger the relationship is (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Magnitude is usually described as high (closer to one), low (closer to zero) and moderate (in the middle) (Huck, 2009). Furthermore, direction is provided by the sign of the coefficient, that is, a (+) represents a positive relationship where high scores of one variable are associated with high scores of another variable, while a (-) represents a negative relationship where high scores of one variable are associated with low scores of another variable, and a zero represents no relationship between the two variables (Huck, 2009; Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Here, a -1 would imply a perfect negative or inverse relationship and a +1 would indicate a perfect positive relationship (Huck, 2009). Huck (2009) warms about the misleading interpretations of the correlation coefficient as he states that *(r)* is often exaggerated in terms of the strength of the relationship. Therefore it is important to further examine the strength using the coefficient of determination.

The Coefficient of Determination is often used to further investigate the strength of the bivariate relationship as it explains the shared variance between the two variables or how much variance is explained in one variable by another variable. In other words, it "indicates the proportion of

variability in one variable that is associated with (or explained by) variability in the other variable" (Huck, 2009, p. 69). The coefficient of determination is represented by (r^2) as it is the square of the correlation coefficient. It produces a number between 1 and 100 and is considered and interpreted as a percentage.

Lastly, Huck (2009) recommended the examination of the scatter plot to ensure that there is linearity where all points form a path on the scatter plot; as well as ensuring that there are no outliers which may distort the data. Furthermore, it is important to note that correlation does not imply causality but merely an association between the variables (Huck, 2009).

3.5.3. Structural Equations Modelling

2. Does OBSE mediate the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction?

Data analyses took place using IBM SPSS Amos (IBM, 2011). Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was utilised to test the mediation model. A mediator is a variable that is said to account for the relationship between two variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). It is when a third variable (the mediator variable) intervenes in the relationship between the independent variable and the outcome variable. It is said to have a causal chain as depicted by paths (a) and (b) in the diagram below. The model assumes that there are two causal paths to the dependent variable, that is, the direct path (path c) and the indirect path (path a-b) (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

> A variable functions as a mediator when it meets the following conditions: (a) variations in levels of the independent variable significantly account for variations in the presumed mediator (i.e., Path a), (b) variations in the mediator significantly account for variations in the dependent variable (i.e., Path b), and (c) when Paths a and b are controlled, a previously significant relation between the independent and dependent variables is no longer significant, with the strongest demonstration of mediation occurring when Path c is zero (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1176).

In other words, the relationships (a) and (b) will be stronger than the relationship (c) (refer to Figure 8). Ideally the relationship (c) will be zero, however, this is rarely the case (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In this study it was proposed that the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction will be weaker than the relationship between perceived discrimination and OBSE and OBSE and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Global Self-Esteem, a fourth variable was included in the study as it was expected that OBSE would be a stronger predictor, that is, a stronger mediator than

Global Self-Esteem, as OBSE was considered a better predictor of workplace self-esteem. Therefore the pathway under examination is represented by Figure .

Structural Equations Modelling (SEM) is a statistical process that aims to account for the relationships among many variables (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). It is a "multivariate technique combining aspects of factor analysis and multiple regression that enables the researcher to simultaneously examine a series of interrelated *dependence relationships* among the *measured variables* and *latent constructs (variates)* as well as between several latent constructs" (Hair Jr. et al., 2010, p. 634). Latent variables are variables that are unobserved but said to be measured using indicators of those variables (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). In the present study the latent variables are perceived discrimination (PD), OBSE (OBSE), global self-esteem (GSE) and job satisfaction (JS).

SEM is used to confirm causal hypotheses and is also known as a causal modelling technique (Kelloway, 1995). SEMs are characterised by three attributes: (a) It is an "estimation of multiple and interrelated dependence relationships, [(b)], an ability to represent unobserved concepts in these relationships and account for measurement error in the estimation process, [and (c), it defines] a model to explain an entire set of relationships" (Hair Jr. et al., 2010, p.635). They are also global measures of model fit and are used to test how well a model fits the data.

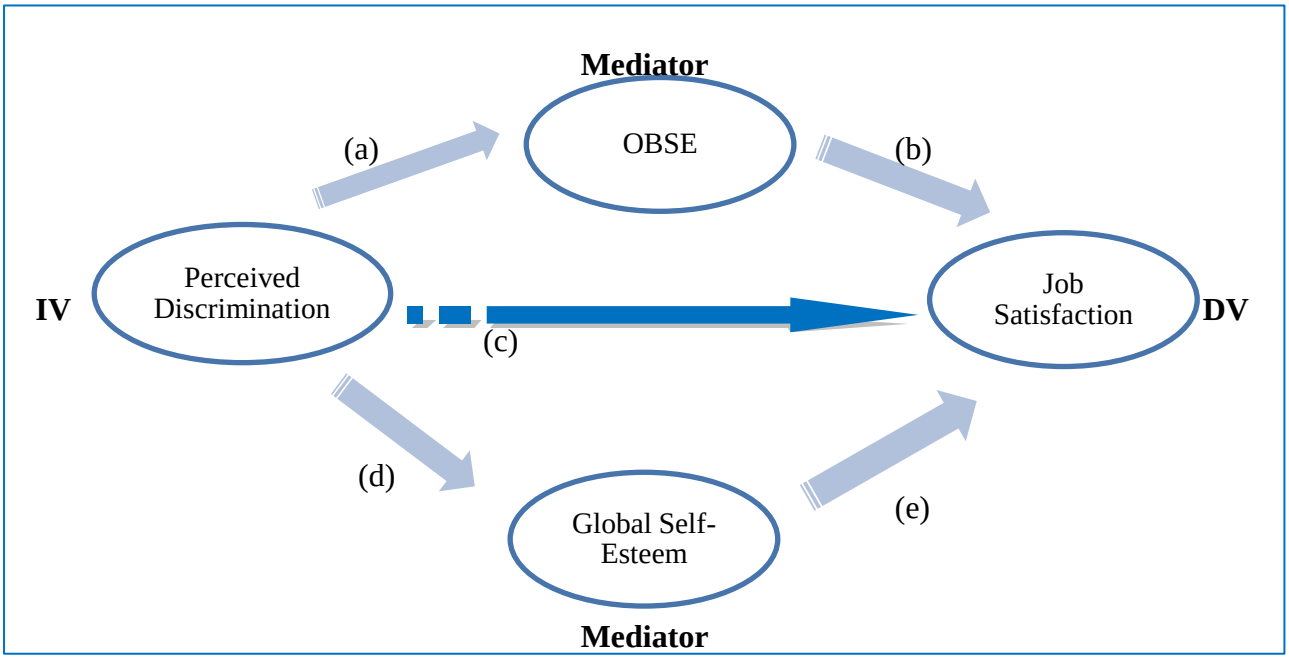


Figure 8. Diagram Showing Path Analyses

Diagram adapted from: Baron, R., & Kenny, D. (1986). The Moderator- Mediator Variable Distinction in Social Psychological Research: Conceptual, Strategic, and Statistical Considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51(6),* 1173-1182.

In the current study, SEM was used to test the mediation model fit proposed above. SEM is a statistically valid test and differs from other types of fit tests as it does not require a base model (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, Structural Equation modelling: Guidelines fo Determining Model Fit, 2008). Instead the test measures how well the model fits compared to no model at all (Hooper et al., 2008). Barrett (2007) stated that in order to run SEM, analyses must be based upon samples more than 200 in order to adequately represent the population it is trying to represent. Therefore, the sample size of the present study was appropriate for this type of statistical analysis.

This model was created and supported by literature, a crucial component of designing a model (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). In the current study, perceived discrimination is termed an exogenous variable. Exogenous variables are variables determined by factors external to those included in the model and are therefore considered independent variables (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Endogenous variables are the dependent variables of the model which are impacted by the exogenous variable. OBSE, Global self-esteem, and job satisfaction are endogenous variables. The causal path is created with the direction of flow inputted into the SEM. Exogenous variables flow to the endogenous variables as shown in Figure 9.

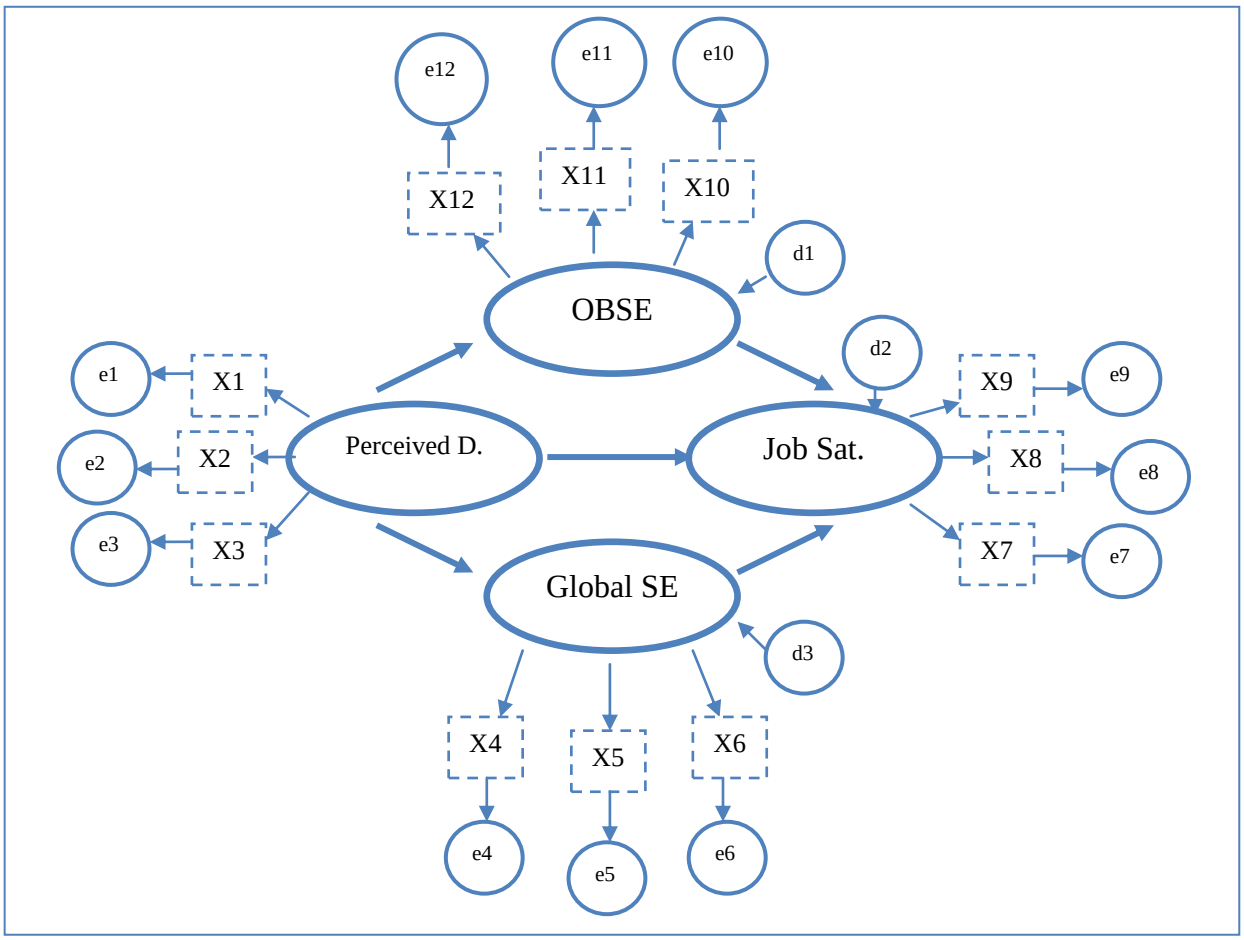


Figure 9. SEM Diagram of Latent and Manifest Variables.

SEM consists of two models, the structural model (path analyses) and the measurement model (the CFA) (Byrne B. M., 2010). Figure provides a diagrammatical representation of both the structural and measurement model. The structural model refers to the visual representation of the meditational model in the form of a diagram (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). In Figure 9, it refers to the relationships between latent variables (PS, OBSE, GSE, and JS). The measurement model refers to the inclusion of raw scores in manifest variables, that is, the indicators utilised in order to provide the latent variables with a score. In this case, it refers to the actual scales utilised to measure these constructs and are represented by the symbol $(X_{y.})$. The Amos program does not allow for less than three indicators in order to run the program (IBM, 2011). However, each latent variable had only one manifest variable, that is, one scale per construct. Therefore, scales were broken down into three subscales in order to compute the SEM into Amos. Results were not affected. Lastly, in the measurement model, every indicator has an error term (e_y), while in the structural model; every

endogenous variable has an error *(d_y)* (Byrne B. M., 2010). These error terms are included in the models to account for the residual variances not estimated by the model (Hair Jr. et al., 2010).

SEM estimates the strengths of the paths between latent variables, producing a coefficient for each path. Thereafter, the sum of each path is calculated by multiplying the coefficients of that path. It is then interpreted as correlations where the highest coefficient represents the strongest path. SEM utilises covariance coefficients rather than correlation coefficients to better estimate the strength of the relationships and produces a covariance matrix from the path of coefficients (Hair Jr. et al., 2010).

SEM determines model fit by comparing the observed covariance matrix to the estimated covariance matrix (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). The stronger the match between the two the better the model's fit. The degree of fit is compared using various Goodness of Fit indices which are tests which either accept or reject the fit. There are numerous indices, such as χ^2 Goodness of fit test, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted GFI (AGFI), Standardised Root Mean Square Residuals (SRMR), Normal Fit Index (NFI), among others are used to accept or reject the model. Each with indices has advantages and disadvantages, and therefore it was crucial to assess fit using multiple indices of Goodness of Fit (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). Hair Jr. et al. (2010) recommended considering values greater than 0.9 as significant.

Traditionally, all manifest variables must be normally distributed. However, one manifest variable of OBSE was negatively skewed with a value greater than -1. Therefore, a non-parametric SEM with a Bollen-Stein bootstrap was carried out using Amos. Significant paths were then interpreted accordingly in order to investigate the meditational role of OBSE.

3.6. Ethical Considerations

The current study had received approval from the ethics committee of the University of Witwatersrand (MORG/12/002 IH)). Thereafter, organisations were sought out and were asked for consent to access their organisation in a formal letter (as shown in appendix E) in terms of access to employees. One large organisation agreed to participate in the study. The type of access was decided by the organisation, that is, and the organisation had chosen to email the employees themselves but had carbon copied (cc'd) the researcher on the emails. Therefore the author had to assure confidentiality to the organisation by keeping the list safe ensuring that no third party had access to the list. Participants were emailed a synopsis of the study with a formal participant information letter

attached together with a link to the study. Participants were also made aware that the study was performed for the purpose of partial completion of an MA degree in Organisational Psychology at the University of Witwatersrand. (See appendix F for a copy of the participant information letter). The researcher's details were available for potential participants to contact at any stage of the process. It was further emphasised that participation was completely voluntary as individuals may choose to participate or refrain from participation. Participation or non-participation had no positive or negative consequences for employees. Furthermore, prior to completion of the questionnaire, a repetition of the formal letter together with contact details was made available above the questionnaire. Therefore, submission of the questionnaire was considered informal consent.

With reference to the email list of names, confidentiality was guaranteed as the main researcher, that is, Sarika Bhana was the only individual with access to the list. This list of names and emails has been deleted as data collection is complete and has been kept safely by encrypting documents and password protecting all data for the duration of the study. Furthermore, participants who answered the questionnaire via email link or on the website were entered into a spreadsheet directly and listed numerically with no data reflecting identification of the participant. Also, individuals cannot be removed from the data set after they have selected submit online as entries are anonymous and it cannot be determined as to which entry was entered by which participant (for those individuals who have answered from the same organisation). It is important to note that individuals from the one large organisation made up approximately 18% of the sample. The remainder of the sample was gathered through snowballing and social media broadcasting methods. The remainder of the sample can be guaranteed anonymity. However, because individuals completed demographical questions informing the researcher of where they work and what position they fill, it would be possible to track down the participants. However, as mentioned in the sample section, organisation names were removed for their protection and confidentiality will be guaranteed so that no identity is sought, leaving participants anonymous.

Lastly, the questionnaire is unobtrusive and does not probe into experiences of discrimination, thus no sensitive issues were invoked. Should the organisation or participants choose, results will be made available to them in the form of a summary post completion of the study.

Chapter Four: Results

Chapter four aims to adequately report the results of the research questions posed earlier in this report. First, the simple statistics of all scales is reported as demographical information was reported in chapter three. Thereafter, the normality of this data is discussed. Following this are the results to research questions one, two and three in terms of the correlations and SEM conducted.

4.1. Simple Statistics

4.1.1. Type of Discrimination Reported

Below is an in-depth description of the sample in terms of type of discrimination reported. This is followed by a description of the simple statistics in terms of the means, standard deviations, minimum and maximums of all fours scales are reported.

Table 8. Type of Discrimination Reported

Type_of_discrimination					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Gender Discrimination	44	18.5	38.3	38.3
	Racial Discrimination	34	14.3	29.6	67.8
	Gender and Racial Discrimination	37	15.5	32.2	100.0
	Total	115	48.3	100.0	
Missing	Unanswered*	123	51.7		
Total		238	100.0		

*These were questions left unanswered.

Question 28 of the scale asked participants to identify the type of discrimination faced in the workplace. They were offered three options, namely, gender discrimination, racial discrimination and gender and racial discrimination. Unanswered questions were categorised as unanswered. There are several possibilities as to why these questions were left unanswered, ranging from the participant felt uncomfortable commenting on the question to the participant may not have perceived discrimination as he or she was not given the option on the questionnaire.

As shown in Table 8, from a sample of n = 238, 115 participants reported that they have experienced discrimination. Of these 115 participants, 44 individuals reported gender discrimination, 34 reported racial discrimination and 37 reported having experienced both gender and racial discrimination, while 123 individuals left the question unanswered. Therefore 48% of the sample obtained reported discrimination. This is demonstrated visually in the Figure 10.

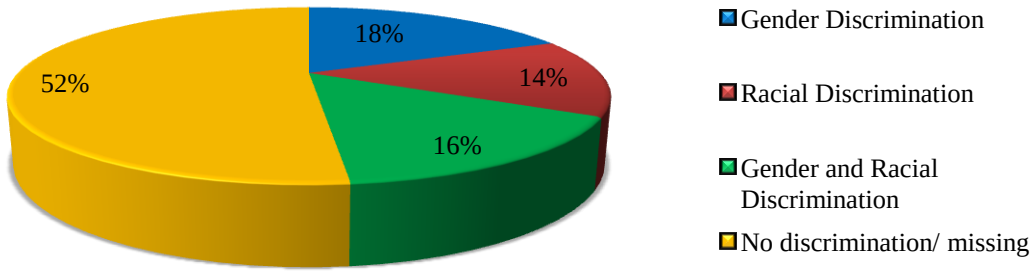


Figure 10. Type of Discrimination Reported

When cross-tabulated against race, the following data was reported.

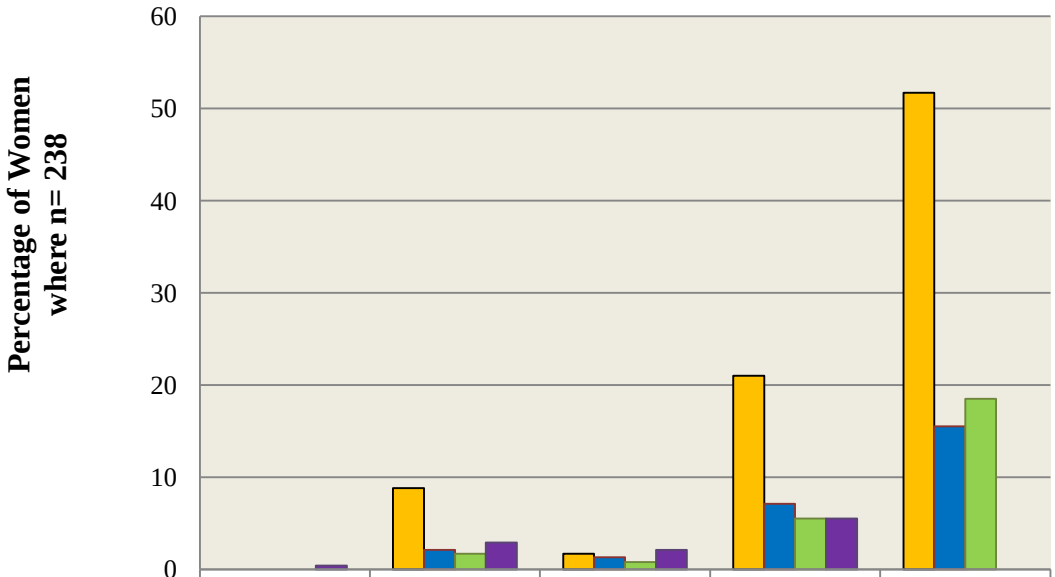
Table 9. Cross-Tabulation Displaying Frequencies of Type of Discrimination and Race

Cross-tabulation: Race * type_of_discrimination						
Count						
		Type of discrimination				Total
		Unanswered Questions	Gender and Racial Discrimination	Gender Discrimination	Racial Discrimination	
Race	Asian	0	0	0	1	1
	Black	21	5	4	7	37
	Coloured	4	3	2	5	14
	Indian	50	17	13	13	93
	White	48	12	25	8	93
Total		123	37	44	34	**238**

From Table 9, it is evident that the sample was of unequal size in each category as most responses originated from White and Indian females. The trend for each racial grouping is as follows: Asians reported racial discrimination (however, this category response rate was too low to form any type of discrimination perception baseline); 21 Black individuals left eh question unanswered while 16

reported some form of discrimination; 4 Coloured people left the question unanswered while 10 individuals reported discrimination; 50 Indian individuals did not answer the question while 43 reported some kind of discrimination. Lastly, 48 White women left the question unanswered while 45 reported discrimination of some kind. Graphically, this could be represented as:

Type of Discrimination by Racial Category in Percentages



	Asian	Black	Coloured	Indian	White
Gender Discrimination	0	8.8	1.7	21	51.7
Racial Discrimination	0	2.1	1.3	7.1	15.5
Gender and Racial Discrimination	0	1.7	0.8	5.5	18.5
No Discrimination/ missing values	0.4	2.9	2.1	5.5	

Figure 11. Graph showing Type of Discrimination by Race in Percentages

4.1.2. Interpreting Scale Data

Table 10 reports on all the descriptive data of the scales in terms of means, standard deviations and minimum and maximum values. Means were used in order to provide an indication of the distribution of data. Scale one (OBSE scale) ranged from 1 to 5 on the likert scale where one indicated a lower score whilst five indicated a higher score. OBSE had a mean of 4.03 which indicates that the average score for self-esteem was high (4). The job satisfaction scale displayed a mean of 3.67 indicating that the average job satisfaction ranged from (3) neutral to (4) satisfied. The scale ranged from 1 to 5 however, the lowest value reported was 2 while the highest was 5. Perceived

discrimination was a five point scale from 1 to 5. The highest reported number was 4 and lowest reported number was 1 with a mean of 2.03 which indicates that the most individuals did not perceived discrimination. Lastly, the global self-esteem scale was a four-point scale which ranged from 0 to 3. The lowest reported value was 1 with the highest value equal to 3 with a mean of 2.49 suggesting that the average participant reported a good global self-esteem. This indication corresponds to the high global self-esteem mean reported above.

Table 10. Descriptive Statistics of Scales Utilised in the Study

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Scale1_ OBSE	238	1	5	4.03	.733
Scale2_ Job Satisfaction	238	1	5	3.66	.619
Scale3_Perceived Discrimination	238	1	4	2.04	.830
Scale4_ Global Self-Esteem	238	1	3	2.49	.460
Missing	0				

4.2. Distribution Analysis: Normality

A distribution is said to be normal when the data follows a bell-curve shape where the majority of scores are found in the middle with a steady decrease on both side (Huck, 2009). Normality can be determined by examining plots such as histograms. (Histograms as well as means, modes, medians and QQ-plots are discussed in Appendix I: Histograms of Scales.

Scales one and two display normality while scale three and four seem slightly skew. However, histograms alone are insufficient in determining normality and therefore tests of normality must also be considered. In Table 11, the skewness and kurtosis coefficients as well as the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality are reported. Skewness represents the symmetry of the distribution in terms of width, while kurtosis examines the height of the distribution (Huck, 2009). Kurtosis is important as while data may not appear skew it may still be abnormal as there may be a higher number of scores in the centre pushing up the height of the distribution (Huck, 2009). Similarly, the height of the distribution could be unusually lower.

Table 11. Skewness and Kurtosis Coefficients of Scales

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
	Statistic	Statistic	Std Error	Statistic	Std Error	Statistic	df	Sig.
Scale1_ OBSE	238	-1.341	.158	2.955	.314	.103	238	.000
Scale2_ Job Satisfaction	238	-.522	.158	.192	.314	.079	238	.001
Scale3_ Perceived Discrimination	238	.553	.158	-.529	.314	.105	238	.000
Scale4_ Global Self-Esteem	238	-.995	.158	.831	.314	.133	238	.000
Valid N (listwise)	238							

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Distributions are considered non-normal when both skewness and kurtosis coefficients are less than -1 and greater than +1 (Huck, 2009). From the above table, all scales except for scale 1 (OBSE) display coefficients between -1 and +1 whilst scale 1 (OBSE) as it had a coefficient of -1.339. Again the OBSE scale is the single scale displaying kurtosis with a coefficient of +2.943. However, contrasting these results, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality found all scales to have skew distributions as all scales displayed a significant p-values with $p < 0.05$, where the null-hypothesis assumed normality. It must be noted that the Kolomogorov-Smirnoff test is sensitive and after reviewing collated information (histograms, etc), it was concluded that the OBSE scale was skew whilst the other scales met the criteria of normality. Therefore, because the OBSE scale displayed skew data, a non-parametric SEM using bootstrapping was necessary. Bootstrapping is a technique

> which validates a multivariable model by drawing a large number of subsamples, estimating models for each subsample, and then determining the values for the parameter estimates from the set of models by calculating the mean of each estimated coefficient across the subsamples models. This approach also does not rely on statistical assumptions to assess whether a parameter differs from zero ... Instead, it examines the actual values from the repeated samples to make this assessment (Hair et al., 2010, p. 22).

Therefore, research questions were answered using non-parametric SEM data analysis with Bollen-stein bootstrapping.

4.3. Correlation: Research Question One - What is the relationship between perceived discrimination, organisational-based self-esteem, and job satisfaction?

Research question one sought to find the association of each of the variables. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation was conducted to establish the type and strength of the relationships between the variables.

Table 12. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients for Perceived Discrimination, OBSE, Global Self Esteem and Job Satisfaction

Correlations					
		Scale1_ OBSE	Scale2_ Job Satisfaction	Scale3_ Perceived Discrimination	Scale4_ Global Self-Esteem
Scale1_ OBSE	Pearson Correlation	1	.346**	-.179**	.292**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.006	.000
	N	238	238	238	238
Scale2_ Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	.346**	1	-.257**	.369**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	238	238	238	238
Scale3_ Perceived Discrimination	Pearson Correlation	-.179**	-.257**	1	-.243**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	.000		.000
	N	238	238	238	238
Scale4_ Global Self-Esteem	Pearson Correlation	.292**	.369**	-.243**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	238	238	238	238
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

Beginning with the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction, as shown in *Table 12*, a significant negative relationship between the two factors at the 0.01 level of significance was found. These findings are consistent with the literature as while statistically significant (p = 0.00), the relationship was weak, with r = -0.257. Using the coefficient of determination (r^2 = 0.066), it could be said that 6.66% of variance in job satisfaction could be explained by perceived discrimination.

As displayed in Table 12, perceived discrimination is negatively correlated with OBSE where the presence of perceived discrimination is associated with a lower organisational- based self-esteem.

The correlation was statistically significant ($p < 0.00$) at the 1% percent level of significance. However, the relationship was weak with a strength of -0.179. Furthermore, perceived discrimination may only explain about 3.2% ($r^2 = 0.032$), a small amount, of variance in OBSE. Similarly, perceived discrimination is negatively correlated with global-self-esteem where high perceived discrimination is associated with low global self-esteem. The statistic was significant with p=0.00 at the 1% level of significance. The strength of this relationship can be represented by r = -0.243 where the variance in global self-esteem can be explained by 5.9% (0.059).

OBSE is positively correlated with job satisfaction where a high OBSE is associated with a high job satisfaction. The strength of the relationship was weak as reflected in the statistic r = 0.346 but was nevertheless statistically significant (p = 0.00) at the 0.01 level of significance. OBSE may explain 11.97% ($r^2 = 0.119$) of variance in job satisfaction. Global self-esteem also reflected a significant positive correlation with job satisfaction as p = 0.00 at the 0.01 level of significance. The correlation demonstrated a weak association as r = 0.369. Accordingly, global self-esteem was associated with explaining 13.61% ($r^2 = 0.136$) of variance in job satisfaction, a moderate percentage of variance explained.

The relationship between global self-esteem and OBSE, as expected, was a significant positive relationship. However, the strength of the relationship was weak, with the r =0.292. Therefore, high levels of OBSE are associated with high levels of global self-esteem. OBSE may explain 8.52% (r^2= 0.08) of variance in global self-esteem, a moderate percentage of variance explained.

4.4. SEM: Research Question Two - Does OBSE mediate the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction?

4.4.1. Evaluating Estimates and Fit Indices

An SEM was employed to investigate the hypothesis where OBSE served as a mediator between the perceived discrimination – job satisfaction relationship. In order to evaluate the fit of the proposed meditational model, the initial step required the examination of significant paths in the model. Table 13 shows the maximum likelihood estimates using the default model. As shown below, all paths were significant with estimates above the value of 2, except for the perceived discrimination – job satisfaction relationship which had an estimate of -0.134. Also, the perceived discrimination – OBSE relationship, while displaying an estimate of 0.210, did not reflect as significant as p = 0.05.

Table 13. Table Showing the Default Model with Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
GSE	<---	PD	-.238	.054	-4.382	***	G13
OBSE	<---	PD	-.210	.075	-2.786	.005	G11
JS	<---	GSE	.342	.089	3.849	***	G31
JS	<---	OBSE	.207	.053	3.889	***	G21
JS	<---	PD	-.134	.065	-2.058	.040	G12
S3_PercD1_aftermissing	<---	PD	1.000				
S3_PercD2_aftermissing	<---	PD	1.229	.066	18.500	***	a2
S3_PercD3_aftermissing	<---	PD	1.325	.068	19.415	***	a3
S1_OBSE1_aftermissing	<---	OBSE	1.000				
S1_OBSE2_aftermissing	<---	OBSE	.957	.032	30.329	***	a5
S1_OBSE3_aftermissing	<---	OBSE	.890	.033	27.376	***	a6
S2_JobS1_aftermissing	<---	JS	1.000				
S2_JobS2_aftermissing	<---	JS	.810	.051	15.906	***	a11
S2_JobS3_aftermissing	<---	JS	.983	.057	17.172	***	a12
S4_Global3_aftermissing	<---	GSE	.836	.073	11.474	***	a9
S4_Global2_aftermissing	<---	GSE	.595	.066	9.012	***	a8
S4_Global1_aftermissing	<---	GSE	1.000				

Thereafter, fit indices as prescribed by Hair et al. (2010), Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen (2008), Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2013) and MacCallum and Austin (2000) were examined. Fit indices are crucial to the determination of good levels of model fit which provides evidence to the construct validity of the model. There are three types of fit indices, namely absolute indices (χ^2, RMSEA, ECVI), incremental fit indices (NFI, NNFI, CFI) and parsimony fit indices (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). It is generally recommended that at least one of each type of fit index be conducted to provide a holistic view the model fit. Table 14 displays a summary of the fit indices. The desired results column is based on the recommendations of Hair Jr. et al. (2010) and is discussed further below.

Table 14. Summary of Fit Statistics for Meditational Model

Indicator	Index Type	Desired	Outcome	Model Fit
χ^2 (DF)	Absolute	p > 0.05	$\chi^2_{(49)}$ = 102.526 p = 0.00	Lack of fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	Absolute	RMSEA < 0.08 With CFI = 0.97 or higher	p = 0.068; Upper 90% limit = 0.86; Lower 90% limit = 0.49 PCLOSE= .056	p < 0.08, best guess suggests that model fits, however, the upper Confidence Interval is slightly above 0.8 and PCLOSE is low
Expected Cross Validation Index (ECVI)	Absolute	EVCI < EVCI (saturated model)	.779 not < .759 Upper 90% limit = 0.918; Lower 90% limit = 0.672	p > 0.05, best guess suggests that model does not fit
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	Incremental	> 0.9	.954	Good fit
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) (Tucker Lewis Index (TLI))	Incremental	> .90	.966	Good fit
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	Incremental	> .97	.975	Good Fit
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	Parsimony	Highest statistic represent model of best fit. > 0.50	.708	Acceptable fit

Absolute fit indices are measures of how well the model fits when compared to no model at all (Hooper et al., 2008). The chi-square fit index is a traditional measure of model fit as it "assesses the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariances matrices" (Hu & Bentler, 1992, p.2, as cited in Hooper et al., 2008, p.53). When *p* is less than the stated alpha (0.05) such as the result displayed in the table above, the model is said to lack fit. However, there are two limitations to the use of the chi-square index, firstly, the test assumes normality of the variables and deviations from normality may cause the model to reject fit. Secondly, the index is sensitive to sample size and almost always rejects the model when large samples are utilised. For both these reasons, it is possible that the chi-square demonstrated a lack of fit result. Therefore, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was conducted as it accommodates for sample size.

The next absolute index utilised was the Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) which looks at how well a solution developed from one sample is likely to fit an independent sample (MacCallum & Austin, 2000). This index is "useful for comparison of alternative models, especially when sample size is not large, [where large is $n \geq 500$,] providing an indication of which model yields a solution with greatest generalisability" (MacCallum & Austin, 2000, p. 212). It is in an index which is not sensitive to sample size. This index was included to account for sampling effects with regards to the individuals that made up the sample (MacCallum & Austin, 2000). Here the model was said to lack fit because the EVCI of the saturated model (0.759) < the EVCI statistic (0.779). Furthermore, the upper confidence interval (UCI) suggests that the statistic is likely to be significant as the UCI = .90. Therefore, the model is said to lack fit.

Last of the absolute indices is the RMSEA. It measures "how well the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter estimates would fit the population's covariance matrix" (Hooper et al., 2008, p.54). It is best utilised as a confirmatory measure of models such as the model presented in the current study. The cut-off point generally ranges from 0.05 to .08 as an absolute cut-off point is not recommended for this index. However, Hair Jr. et al. (2010) recommended that for a sample size less than 250 with less than 12 variables, the recommended cut-off point was 0.80. Therefore, the model is an acceptable fit even though the Upper Confidence Interval (UCI) is slightly above the cut-off point (UCI= 0.84). It was recommended that the RMSEA be considered in conjunction with the CFI index. This is further expanded on in the proceeding paragraphs.

As shown in Table 14, the NFI, NNFI and CFI are incremental fit indices (Hooper et al., 2008). The indices compare model fit to a baseline model created using the chi-square value (Hooper et al., 2008). The NFI assesses model fit by comparing the "χ^2 value of the model to the χ^2 value of the null model" (Hooper et al., 2008, p. 55). While Hair Jr. et al. (2010) follows the more traditional cut-off points of .90, Hooper et al. (2008) recommend a cut-off point of $p \geq 0.95$. Following both these cut-offs, the NFI index suggests that the model is a good fit with NFI= 0.954. However, it is important to note that the NFI is sensitive to sample size and tends to underestimate samples with $n < 200$. Fortunately, the present study had a large enough sample size with n= 238. Nevertheless, the NNFI was employed as it is an index which is better suited to simpler models. Similarly, it is also known for its sensitivity to sample size and may underestimate model fit in smaller samples. The NNFI cut-off point, as recommended by Hooper et al. (2008) was ≥ 0.95 with the statistic demonstrating a 0.966. Therefore both indices suggest a good model fit.

The CFI is revised from the NFI where the CFI accounts for sample size and is seen as a better estimate than the NFI. It assumes that all variables are not correlated with one another thereby create an independent model/ null model (Hooper et al., 2008). It then compares the sample covariance matrix with the independent model. Values closer to 1 indicate a good fit with the cut-off point, as recommended by Hooper et al. (2008), as ≥ 0.95 and Hair Jr. et al. (2010) as ≥ 0.97. The CFI index showed that the model was a good fit with $p = 0.975$. As mentioned earlier, the CFI is usually taken together with the RMSEA to establish whether the model fits. As demonstrated, the two indices in conjunction advocate that the model display a good fit.

Lastly, a parsimony fit index was included because indices of this type are "designed to specifically provide information about which model among a set of competing models is best, considering its fit to its complexity" (Hair Jr. et al., 2010, p.669). This was appropriate as global self-esteem and OBSE were two variables that were compared as mediators between the job satisfaction – perceived discrimination relationship. A widely used index is the parsimony normed fit index (PNFI). The PNFI aims to simplify models, however, this is likely to oversimplify complex models, causing a loss of valuable data. This leads to consequences of substantially lower indices. It is important to note that these indices are better suited to compare two or more models and the index must be used as a comparison with the higher statistic representing the better fit. However, the SEM conducted here produced one index, and as Hooper et al. (2008) states, a good fit is occurs when the statistic > 0.50. Therefore, it could be argued that the model is of an acceptable fit.

Therefore, while the absolute fit indices suggest lack of fit, the incremental and parsimonious fit indices suggest an acceptable model fit.

4.4.2. Calculating Path Coefficients

The meditational role of OBSE and global self-esteem was evaluated by comparing the indirect paths (IV→MED→DV) to the direct path (perceived discrimination- job satisfaction). Indirect paths are calculated by multiplying the coefficients of each path (IV→MED and MED→DV) (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). The results should indicate a stronger indirect path to indicate a mediator as the proportion of variance explained will be greater through the mediator than by the IV. Figure 12 displays the results of SEM diagrammatically.

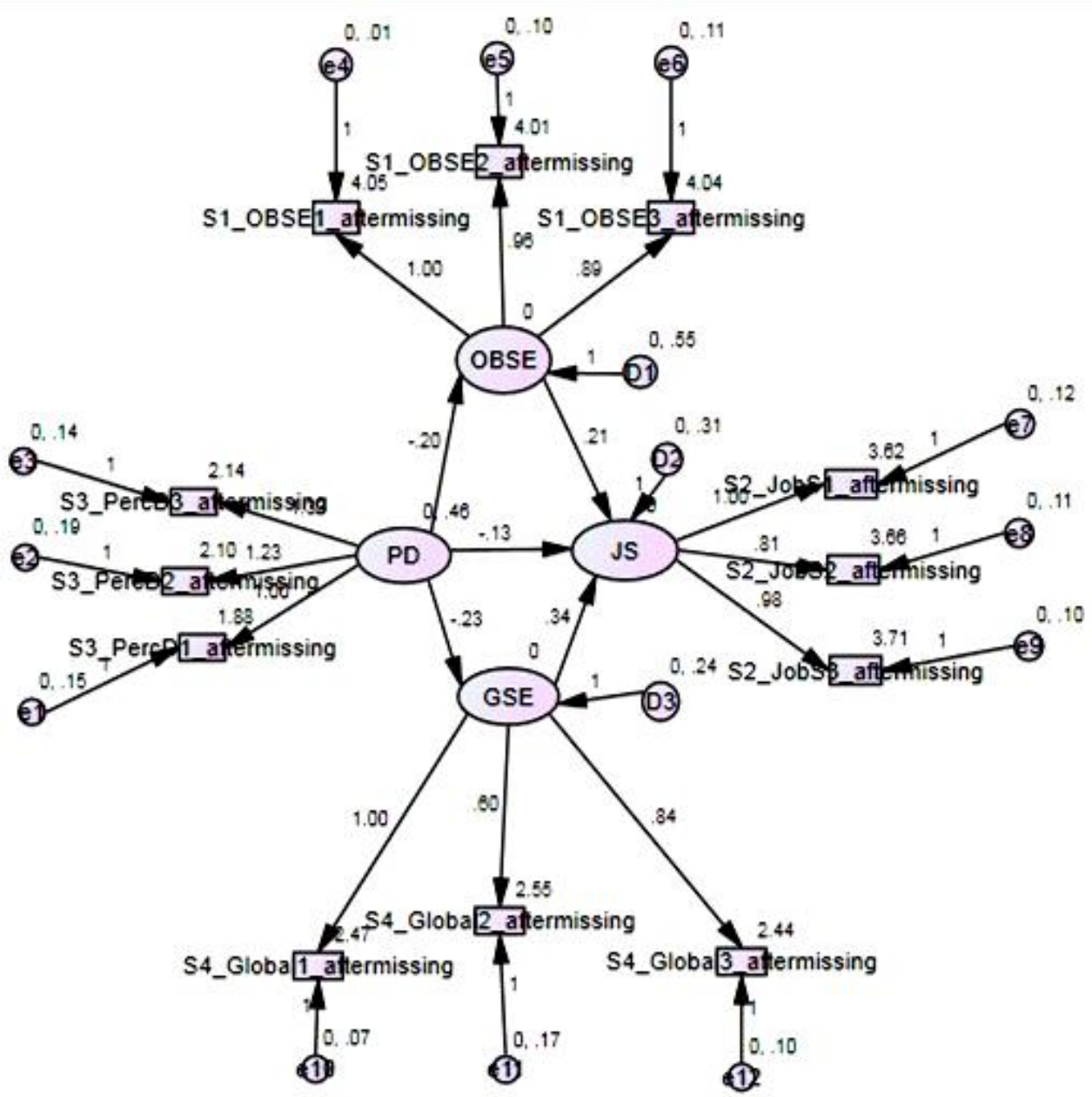


Figure 12. Measurement and Structural Model Correlations

Using the correlations presented in Figure 12, direct and indirect paths were calculated and are displayed in ***Table 15***.

Table 15. Table Showing Calculated Indirect Paths Coefficients and Direct Path Coefficients

Path	**Calculated Coefficient (r^2)**
Perceived Discrimination - Job Satisfaction	= -0.13
Perceived Discrimination - OBSE – Job Satisfaction	-0.20*0.21= -0.042
Perceived Discrimination – Global SE – Job Satisfaction	-0.23*0.34= -0.078

From the table above, perceived discrimination explains a total of 13% of variance in job satisfaction. This was greater than both meditational paths as the path through OBSE explained 4% of variance in job satisfaction while the path through global self-esteem explained 7.8% of variance in job satisfaction. This then supports the hypothesis that the model lacks fit as not all paths were significant (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). However, since direct path of PD – JS, and the indirect path following PD – OBSE – JS were not significant, and the PD – global SE – JS path was found significant in the direction predicted, it can be concluded that global SE mediates the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction. Since the significant indirect path accounted for less variance than the insignificant direct path, following the recommendation from Hair Jr et al. (2010), a step-by-step multiple regression should be conducted to verify the relationships amongst the variables. However, this could not be conducted as regression analyses must be run on normalised data and the data of this study is skew. The OBSE scale data was transformed for this purpose. Despite this, the data became extremely skewed reflecting that it was not skew enough to undergo transformations and did not meet the criteria for normality either. Furthermore, the Lagrange Multiplier could not be produced using this data and the AMOS program. However, it is unlikely that any theoretically sound paths may have been added or removed to the model presented.

The implications of the results will be discussed further in the next chapter.

Chapter Five: Discussion

The presence of perceived discrimination is highly likely in women in South Africa. This poses as problematic when organisations try to keep their employees performing optimally as perceived discrimination is associated negatively with workplace attitudes such as job satisfaction, job commitment, and organisational attachment (Ensher, Grant-Vallone, & Donaldson, 2001; Triana, Garcia, & Colella, 2010; Stainback & Irvin, 2012; Özer & Günlük, 2010). It also impacts upon employee well-being in terms of depression and increased anxiety (Deitch et al., 2003; Noh & Kaspar, 2003). The currently study proposed that an individual's Organisational-based Self Esteem (OBSE), is likely to mediate the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction. The argument follows that perceived discrimination in the workplace is likely to affect one's organisational-based self-esteem because OBSE is based on social, environmental cues, and personal experiences (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). It will thereby be shaped by perceived discrimination; however, one's feelings of self-worth in the workplace is likely to exert an influence and reduce the effect of perceived discrimination should OBSE be high, or enhance the effects of perceived discrimination should OBSE be low (Pierce et al., 1989). Therefore, the study aimed to determine the relationship between perceived discrimination, OBSE and job satisfaction. More importantly, this study aimed to evaluate whether or not OBSE mediated the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction. As a secondary aim, the study also sought to examine whether or not global self-esteem mediated the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction, partially because it allows these alternative meditational models could be compared. The proceeding paragraphs will discuss the implications of the findings in accordance with the above statements.

5.1. Research Question One - What is the relationship between perceived discrimination, organisational-based self-esteem, and job satisfaction?

In addressing these aims, several analyses were conducted. The first of these were the correlations. These were conducted in order to get a broad understanding of the relationships that exist between variables. A visual representation of the results of the correlations conducted is presented below:

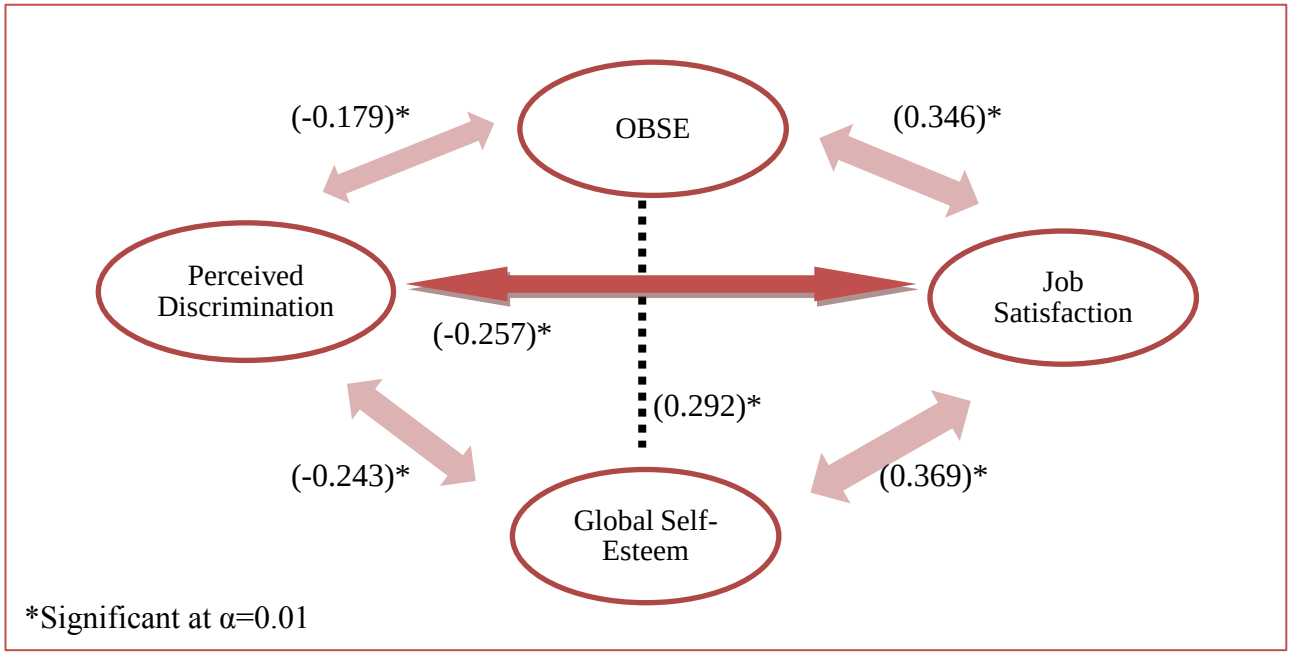


Figure 13. Correlations between Variables

The results reflected a weak to moderate, yet significant negative association between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction with r = -0.257 and p <0.00 at the 1% level of significance. Thus, an increase in perceived discrimination is associated with a decrease in job satisfaction. However, this weak correlation was sought after as Baron and Kenny (1986) stated that the ideal relationship between the IV and the DV should be zero. However, the attainment of a correlation of zero is not always feasible, and therefore it is emphasised that to prove a meditation path, the meditation path has to be stronger than the direct path from the IV and DV. Therefore, these results were acceptable for the meditational path analyses (SEM). Sanchez & Brock (1996) reported a similar finding as their study found a significant negative relationship at the 1% level of significance where r = -0.28. Therefore, the presence or increase of the perception that one has been discriminated against is associated with a decrease in job satisfaction. This means that individuals who perceive unfairness in the workplace are likely to experience low satisfaction of the overall job because the workplace is associated with unfair practices or people (DelCampo & Rogers, 2010; Ensher et al., 2001).

Furthermore, perceived discrimination could be experienced in a variety of ways, for example, an individual may perceive unfairness in the manner in which feedback is given, or how much feedback is given *relative* to the quality and quantity of feedback given to peers; and, feedback is linked to one of the five job characteristics of the JCM (Odendaal, 2009). Similarly, individuals may have perceived discrimination in any of the other aspects of the JCM such as skill variety where an employee may perceive discrimination if he or she is provided with less opportunity to showcase

different skills or responsibilities. In the case of task identity it is possible that individuals do not receive opportunities to complete tasks or may even complete what the individual may deem as an insignificant task. In addition, micro-management may also create feelings of discrepancy in terms of how much autonomy one is awarded in the workplace. Furthermore, ones affective disposition may influence one's perception of discrimination either worsening or brightening any perceived discrepancy between acts such that resemble overt or informal discrimination (Özer & Günlük, 2010; Odendaal, 2009).

Before investigating if OBSE or global SE could mediate the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction, it was crucial to test if a relationship existed between perceived discrimination and OBSE and perceived discrimination and global SE, as well as how strong these relationships were. Ragins and Cornwell (2001, as cited in Pierce & Gardner, 2004) found a significant negative relationship between perceived sexual orientation discrimination and OBSE (r = -0.41). In contrary, Wei et al. (2008) and Harris-Brit, Valrie, & Kurtz-Costes (2007) both reported a weak negative association between perceived discrimination and global SE which was not found significant with r = -0.08 while Verkuyten (1998) reported a significant negative association between personal discrimination and personal self-esteem with r = -0.33. It was thus expected that the relationship between gender and/or racial discrimination perceived and OBSE would display similar findings, while clarifying the relationship between perceived discrimination and global SE. As expected, there was a significant negative association between perceived discrimination and OBSE (r = -0.179) as well as perceived discrimination and global SE (r = -0.243). Therefore, the perception of discrimination is likely associated with a decrease in both OBSE and global SE as in line with previous research. Although the perceived discrimination scale looked at discrimination in the workplace context, the small yet significant impact on global SE was stronger than its impact on OBSE. This may hint towards the effects of discrimination being *associated* with an individual's global self-esteem rather than OBSE.

The third set of relationships was that of OBSE and job satisfaction. Pierce and Gardner (2004), based their range of prediction from many studies (e.g. Bowden, 2002; Carson, Carson, Yallapragada, Landford & Roe, 1998; Stark, Thomas & Poppler, 2000; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; Riordan, Weatherly, Vandenberg & Self, 2001) suggesting a relatively wide range in the correlation between OBSE and job satisfaction (as it ranges from 0.23 to 0.70). Judge et al. (1998) conducted two studies examining the correlations of self-esteem and overall job satisfaction and found r = and .49 and r = .35 where p was significant at the 1% level of chance for both studies. Judge et al. (1998)

also confirmed that self-esteem and emotional stability were found to be the most consistent correlation associations with job satisfaction. This was then confirmed in the current study as both OBSE and global SE both had significant positive associations with job satisfaction with $r = 0.346$ and $r = 0.369$ respectively, at the 1% level of significance. These correlations confirmed the significant associations as expected; however, the strength of the correlation was weak to moderate. Observing the strength of both relationships, one could see that the difference was minute, however, the global self-esteem – job satisfaction relationship was slightly stronger. This finding contradicts the previous literature found on these variables (Pierce et al., 1989; Bowling, Eschleman, Wang, Kirkendall, & Alarcon, 2010; Lee & Peccei, 2007). This was unexpected as OBSE occurs in the context of the workplace and has been argued to display more predictive efficacy, and it was anticipated that the correlational association would reflect this. Possible reasons for this will be explored later on in research question two.

The final correlation investigated, as an initial examination of the relationships between the variables of interest, was that between OBSE and global SE. Since OBSE is considered as an aspect which is part of Global SE, but yet still a separate construct, it would then be logical that OBSE is positively related to Global SE (Pierce et al., 1989; Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Bowling et al., 2010). Therefore it would've been logical to anticipate a correlation of around 0.5 – 0.7. Bowling et al. (2010) reported $r = 0.49$ suggesting a moderate relationship between OBSE and general self-esteem. However, the current study found that OBSE is positively correlated with Global SE at $r = 0.292$. This could be because the constructs, while linked as they are measures of different levels of the same construct of self-esteem, are statistically diverse measures. Therefore, many researchers would advocate the use of one construct over the other, for example, the use of OBSE in a workplace context at it is associated with greater predicative efficacy for workplace attitudes (Bowling et al., 2010).

Therefore, all correlations revealed significant associations between all variables under consideration and, while these correlations are weak to moderate, they are all significant at the 1% level of significance. These associations allowed for a broad understanding of the relationships under consideration.

5.2. Research Question Two - Does OBSE mediate the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction?

In addressing the specific research question of whether OBSE and global SE mediated the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction, a SEM was conducted. The

results of the present study reflect that the model, as a whole, tends to lack fit, as some paths were found as insignificant. Upon examination of fit indices, one out of three absolute indices suggests fit: Chi-squared indicated lack of fit with $\chi^2_{(49)} = 102.526$ and $p = 0.00$; RMSEA indicated fit with $p < 0.08$, and ECVI indicated lack of fit as the saturated model was less than the default model. Of the incremental indices, all three suggested good fit with NFI > 0.9, NNFI > 0.9 and CFI > 0.97. Lastly, the Parsimony fit index indicated acceptable fit as PNFI > 0.50. Therefore, to conclude mediation, one must examine each path as it is through path analyses that one could "determine direct and indirect causal effects among observed variables and test the meaningfulness of these effects" (Özer & Günlük, 2010, p. 1505). In the proceeding paragraphs, each path will be examined and it will be demonstrated as to why and how the global SE meditational model displayed acceptable fit.

Previous research reports that a negative, significant relationship was found between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction (Corning, 2002, Deitch, et al., 2003; Sanchez & Brock, 1996; Bourguignon et al., 2006; Deitch et al., 2003). Özer and Günlük (2010) found evidence suggesting a causal pathway between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction exists where an increase in perceived discrimination will result in a decrease in job satisfaction. The current study demonstrated findings that contradict past research which reflect that while there was a negative path, the path was insignificant. Despite the fact that there was significant negative association between PD and JS, these findings suggest that there is no causal linkage between the two. Furthermore, Baron and Kenny (1986) suggested that in order to test a mediational effect, the desired relationship between an IV (perceived discrimination) and a DV (job satisfaction) must be zero or less than the mediational paths under consideration. Therefore, these results were desired in order to account for a mediational relationship through either OBSE or global SE. Corning (2002) emphasised that the "relationships between discrimination and distress may not be apparent until the moderating influence of self-esteem is examined" (p. 123).

Below is a visual summary of the SEM results found in the current study:

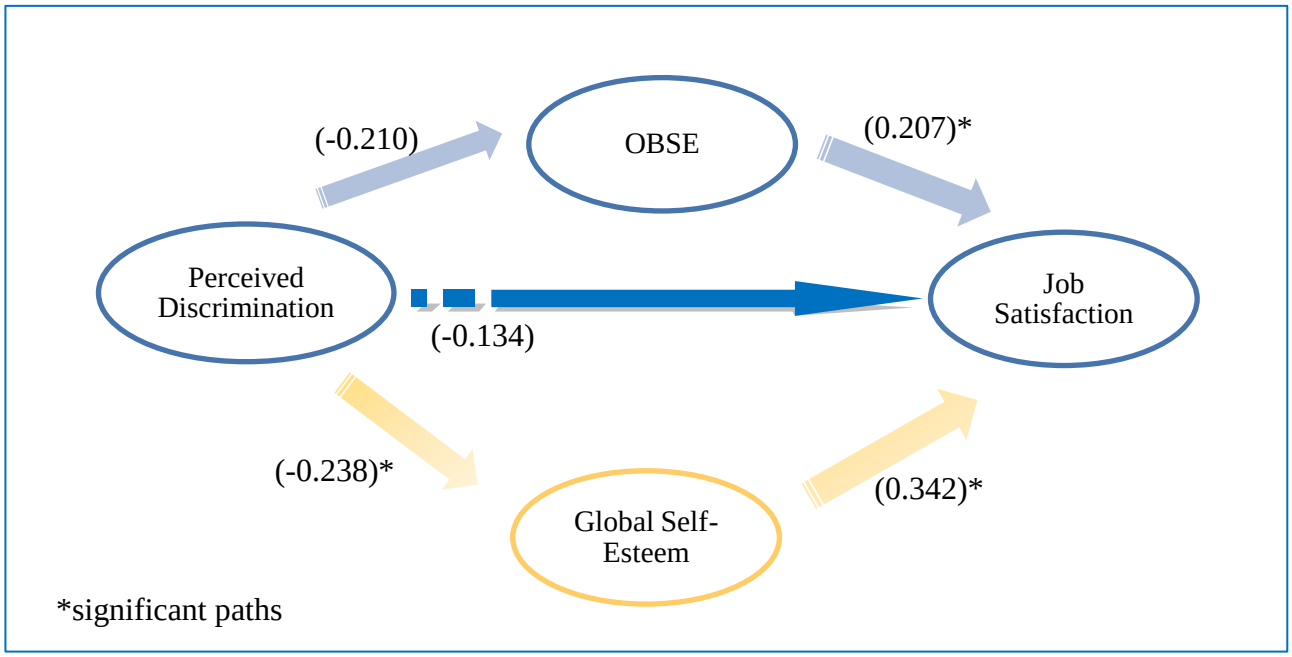


Figure 14. Diagram Showing SEM Results

The expectation was one that would confirm a significant negative relationship between perceived discrimination and OBSE. By linking the literature and providing a logical sequential argument, it was expected that social cues (such as exclusion or gossiping from colleagues), environmental cues (job characteristics of the work environments such as pay and autonomy of the job) and personal experiences (the style one uses to interact with colleagues) would influence the manner in which a person evaluates his or her self-esteem. As a result, it was an assumption that a strong causal relationship would exist as the literature demonstrated that perceived mistreatment and discrimination has negative consequences for one's psychological well-being including self-esteem (e.g. Jackson et al., 1996; Kessler et al., 1999; Kessler & Neighbors, 1986; Noh et al., 1999; Radhakrishnan, 1998; Schneider et al., 2000; D. Williams et al., 1997, as cited in Deitch et al., 1993). However, this was not the case.

A possible explanation of the current results is considering the level of identification that the individual identifies discrimination with. Bourguignon et al.'s (2006) study found that the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction was moderated by the level of identification recognised by the perceptor. They found that the type of identification played a role in determining the relationship of perceived discrimination and self-esteem. The study revealed that individuals reported lower self-esteem when the discrimination perceived was at a personal level, in

contrary to when the individual perceived discrimination at a group level as this seemed to correlate positively with self-esteem. These results were then interpreted through the lens of social identity theory, as

> discriminated people react to unjust behaviour [(the perception of discrimination)] by increasing their feelings of identification with their in-group [(in this case the minority group)] and that this identification should have a positive effect on self-esteem. … these ideas suggest that the impact of discrimination is likely buffered by increased identification, counteracting the ill effects of discrimination on self-esteem (Bourguignon et al. 2006, p.775).

Therefore, as women were identified as the group most likely to perceive discrimination due to phenomena such as the glass ceiling effect amongst other more overt forms of discrimination (April et al., 2007; Bierema, 2001; Morgan, 2006); these exclusionary acts could lead individuals to identify with others at a group level. However, a positive effect on both OBSE and global SE was not reported, thereby calling into the question the scale used to measure perceived discrimination as the level of identification was not considered when the study was carried out. This could be problematic as when the scale items are evaluated, while some statements specifically refer to an aspect around race or gender, other statements such as "at work, it bothers me when people pressure me to assimilate" appear more focussed on personal identification (see Appendix D). The scale displayed a potential two-factor solution, however, due to its theoretical backing; a one factor solution was adopted (see Appendix H). Consequently, the scale choice may have impacted the results of the SEM, undermining both the relationship between PD and OBSE and PD and global SE. This is further emphasised by the weak correlation between personal self-esteem and collective self-esteem (Verkuyten, 1998). Therefore, had level of identification been considered as a factor earlier on, clearer results could have possibly been obtained.

Corning's (2002) study had found that self-esteem significantly and negatively moderated the relationship between perceived discrimination and factors of well-being such as depression and anxiety. The current study reported that the perceived discrimination - global SE path was found significant with an r^2= -0.23. Therefore, perceived discrimination could be said to explain 23% of variance in global self-esteem. While this is a relatively low amount of variance explained, it is statistically significant suggesting causality, therefore emphasising the importance of the concept of global SE in comparison to the role of OBSE in the workplace. This means that individuals who perceive discrimination in some manner through social cues, environmental cues or personal experiences, be it less opportunity to show their skills, being given very little autonomy, being provided with limited feedback, or being excluded and treated differently from other colleagues; are likely to experience an impact one's global self-esteem, exhibiting either lower confidence or

reporting lower levels of self-competence. Thereby suggesting that an increased in perceived discrimination would likely result in a reduction of global SE.

On a similar note, the global SE – job satisfaction path was found to be statistically significant, with r^2= 0.342, suggesting that global SE accounts for 34% of variance in job satisfaction. Job satisfaction, according to the JCM, is said to be influenced by five characteristics, in terms of opportunities to display skills (skill variety), opportunities to perform tasks that one identifies with (task identity and task significance) as well as how much independence one is given on the job (autonomy) and the quality of feedback received (feedback). These characteristics, by definition, are impacted upon by OBSE and global SE determinants such as social cues, environmental cues and personal experiences. Therefore, it was expected that OBSE and global SE would have strong relationships with job satisfaction (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2002; Milner, 2009). Furthermore, OBSE was anticipated to have a stronger association because of its predictive efficacy (Bowling et al., 2010). However, OBSE has shown to be less valuable than global SE and this is again reflected here where global SE has demonstrated a stronger path with job satisfaction than the OBSE- JS path. Therefore, global SE mediated the relationship between perceived discrimination and global SE. This suggests that the perception of discrimination in the workplace may not only affect one's self-esteem in the workplace per se, but rather the global self-esteem of an individual as workplace dynamics may affect a person as a whole rather than just their self-appraisal in the workplace as originally conceptualised prior to the application of OBSE (Pierce et al., 1989; Pierce & Gardner, 2004). To support this, Williams, Neighbors, & Jackson (2003) conducted a meta-analysis and reported that discrimination significantly impacts psychological well-being in terms of happiness, life satisfaction and self-esteem. Thus, it is plausible that the effects of perceived discrimination extend past the workplace onto general self-esteem. The implications for this would suggest that the global SE is more crucial concept than the OBSE, especially with regards to perceived discrimination and its impact on the workplace. Research has shown that OBSE mediates the impacts on many workplace attitudes and individual well-being such as organisational commitment, depression, anxiety, and performance (e.g. Sanchez & Brock, 1996; Pierce & Gardner, 2004; Bowling, 2007; Uçar & Ötken, 2010). Therefore, the implication of perceived discrimination in the workplace is that it is likely to impact one's core self-evaluation at a global level.

Lastly, the path between OBSE and job satisfaction was found to be significant. With an r^2 = 0.207, it can be said that OBSE explains 20% of variance in job satisfaction. This suggests that the self-appraisal held around one's competence in the workplace context, and aspects such as interpersonal

relations with others, autonomy, fairness in pay, and access to resources is likely to affect one's job satisfaction where an increase or improvement in one area will likely result in an increase n job satisfaction. However, since the PD-OBSE path was found insignificant, the role of OBSE in the PD - JS relationship is likely to be a moderational one as it is likely to impact job satisfaction but not necessarily be impacted by perceived discrimination. This was similar to the findings reported by Corning (2002).While the literature argues that OBSE is a state-based trait that is influenced by social cues, environmental cues and personal experiences, its insignificance here, could suggest that it is more a trait-based construct and that once it has been formed, external events in the environment have very little impact upon the degree of OBSE reported by an individual (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Therefore, lower self-esteem should result in lowered job-satisfaction whilst high self-esteem should result in high job satisfaction. This means that one's self-evaluation of the himself or herself in the workplace will affect his or her level of job satisfaction accordingly as the impact of the trait-like OBSE would be similar to that of positive or negative affectivity (Fisher et al., 2003).

Overall, the indirect path through global SE showed evidence for a meditational effect as it was the only significant path. Therefore it could be summed up that OBSE contradicted past research providing implications towards a moderator role as opposed to a meditational role in the context of examining perceived discrimination and its impact upon workplace attitude. Global self-esteem displayed better predictor qualities in mediating the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction. Furthermore, the impact of OBSE on the relationship of between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction was (a) refuted, and (b) brought about many questions around the conceptualisation and testing of the concepts perceived discrimination as PD may have implications for self-esteem at a global level.

Chapter Six: Limitations

Every study has limitations which one must acknowledge in order to gain a better understanding on how similar studies could be performed better in the future. It is also crucial to recognise and bear in mind these limitations when contextualising the study. Below are the limitations of the present study.

Firstly, the study intended on gaining its sample through formalised channels such as through organisations. Due to the lack of participation, the author had to engage in snowball sampling. Snowball sampling is associated with many negatives such as the sample was not taken at random thereby jeopardising representativeness of the population. This was seen with the unusually high number of responses from the Indian population group. It is also an important consideration when conducting parametric tests as it is a key assumption. However, non-parametric tests were performed in this study.

Secondly, the study aimed to measure and compare statistically the role that organisation type played in shaping environmental cues which determined OBSE. However, due to lack of organisation participation, and the large response pool of 126 different organisations, organisational type could not be measured and compared as large enough samples from each organisation was not collected in order to complete this comparison. Thereby limiting the study in the measurement of the influence of environmental cues such as organisational structure on OBSE. However, this setback was not large enough to impact the main aims of this study. On the other hand, the large sample of organisations provided variety and could possibly indicate a fair representivity of organisational types in South Africa.

Thirdly, social cues and personal experiences were not delved into as it did not suit the quantitative nature of this study. A qualitative study would be useful to gain insight into the personal experiences, social cues and environmental cues of an organisation to provide insight into employee OBSE.

Fourthly, as mentioned in previous chapters, an EM Algorithm was used to complete the missing values of the dataset used in SEM. While this is a common and acceptable approach to inputting missing values, there are a few problems with the approach. Alison (2003, p. 549) states that "the errors reported by SEM software using [the EM Algorithm method] will not be consistent estimates of the true standard errors." Consequently, it is advised that *p*-values and confidence intervals produced from those standard errors are to be treated with caution.

Lastly, a moderator model could not be tested to see the impact of OBSE on the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction because the data was skew and regressions could not be run. Transformations were run on the data, however, it severely skewed the data either left or right, suggesting that the data was not skew enough to undergo transformations but not normal enough to undergo parametric testing. Similarly, multiple regressions confirming the meditational effect of global SE could not be conducted in order to ensure consistency in the results.

Chapter Seven: Recommendations

7.1. Theoretical Implications

The present study revealed results that contradicted much of the literature proposed on OBSE, thereby contributing to the body of knowledge available around OBSE and global self-esteem. Whilst it was accepted that OBSE does not mediate the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction, it is quite likely that it supports the literature suggesting OBSE is a moderator. More importantly, is the role of global SE in workplace attitudes and well-being. It appears that even though discrimination may appear in the workplace, it affects one's global perception of himself or herself rather than the contextualised construct (OBSE). Since it has been demonstrated that OBSE mediates many relationships impacting workplace attitudes and well-being, there is cause to examine the impact of perceived discrimination in the workplace. Therefore, there is a need to place more emphasis on the importance of perceived discrimination and global SE and this could be done through further investigation of the construct in a work context.

7.2. Future Research

It is evident that OBSE does not mediate the relationship between perceived discrimination and job satisfaction; however, it could nevertheless affect the relationship as a moderator. Alternatively, there may be other variable such as level of identification that undermined the effect of perceived discrimination on OBSE. It could be worth-while to explore the nature of OBSE by qualitatively exploring the components that theoretically make up OBSE, namely, environmental cues, social cues and personal experiences in order to gauge the impact of these factors on OBSE. Since this study could not test the moderating effect of OBSE, it could be performed in future to further investigate the role of OBSE with these variables. Furthermore, while global self-esteem appears as a mediator, these results should be replicated to ensure consistency and consistency for future implications. In addition, the concept of perceived discrimination and the manner in which it is tested requires more consistency and clarity, and uniformity in the manner in which it is measured, thereby producing a need for more research on this construct.

Chapter Eight: Conclusion

The study aimed to determine what the relationship was between perceived discrimination, Organisational-Based Self-Esteem and job satisfaction. It sought to confirm the role of OBSE as a mediator as well as prove its use in the context of the workplace by demonstrating its strong predictability in work-attitudes such as job satisfaction. However, the mediation lacked fit, where surprisingly, OBSE did not demonstrate a significant relationship with perceived discrimination. This contradicts past literature which allows for growth in this body of knowledge. The role of global SE, surprisingly, demonstrated a meditational role in the perceived discrimination – job satisfaction relationship. The implications for such a finding suggest that the impact of perceived discrimination in the workplace may have larger consequences as it impacts self-esteem at a global level rather than context-specific level. Therefore, the present study brings to light new theoretical implications and points of that self-esteem and perceived discrimination are much deeper concepts than originally thought of. There is a clear need to engage more with this literature to build upon and confirm constructs whilst clarifying the relationships amongst the variables even further.

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Appendix A: National Economically Active Population by Race and Gender

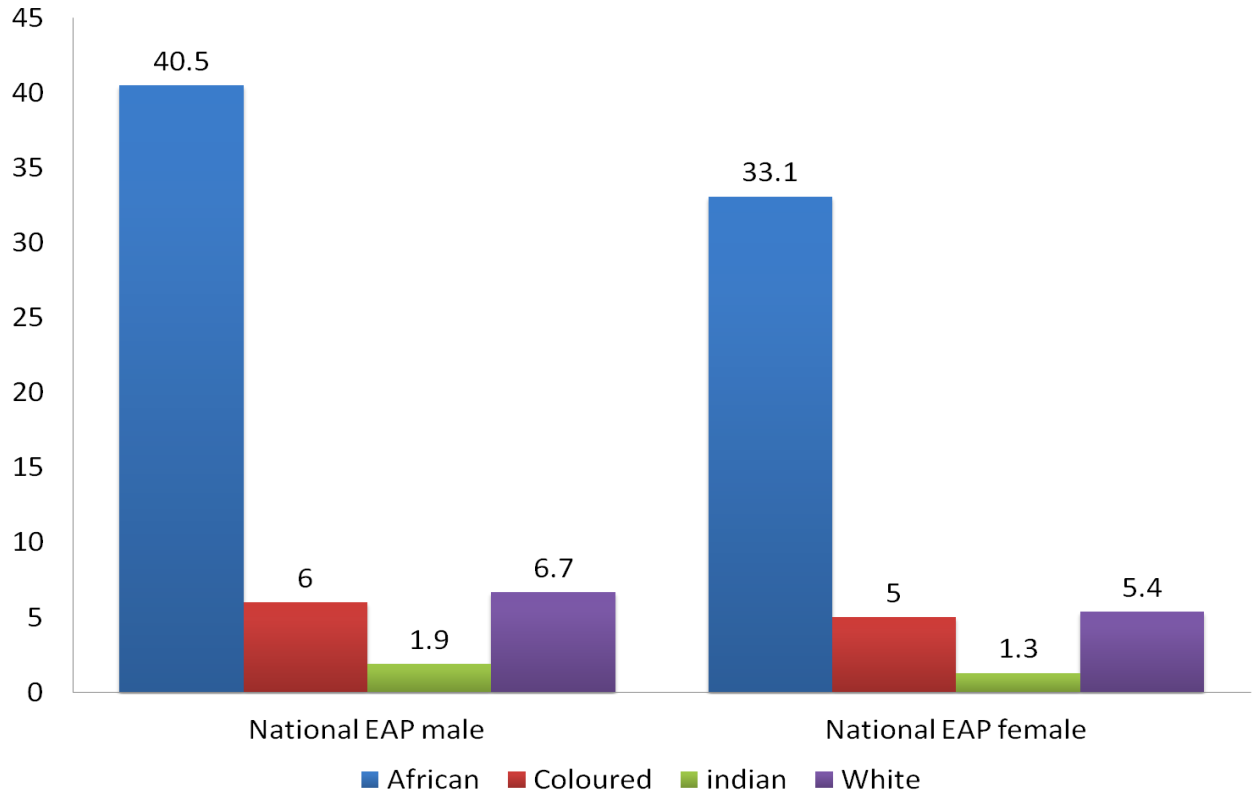


Figure 5. National Economically Active Population by Race and Gender

Data taken from:

Department of Labour: Republic of South Africa. (2011, August 03). *Commission for Employment Equity Report 2010 - 2011*. Retrieved 04 22, 2012, from Department of Labour: Republic of South Africa: http://www.labour.gov.za/documents/annual-reports/Commission%20for%20Employment%20 Equity%20Report/2010-2011/commission-for-employment-equity-report-2010-2011

Appendix B: Trends of Top Management from 2006-2010 by Race

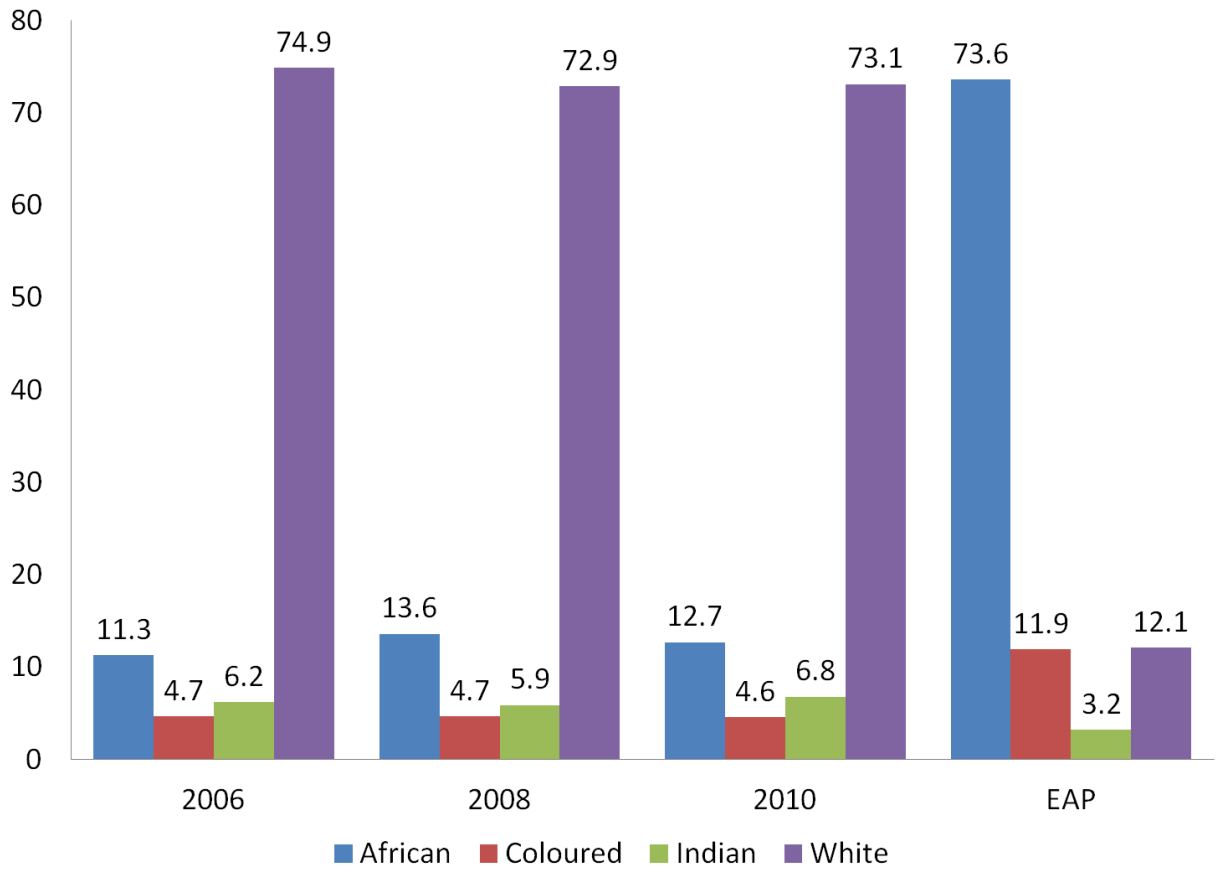


Figure 6. Trends of Top Management from 2006-2010 by Race

Data taken from:

Department of Labour: Republic of South Africa. (2011, August 03). *Commission for Employment Equity Report 2010 - 2011*. Retrieved 04 22, 2012, from Department of Labour: Republic of South Africa: http://www.labour.gov.za/documents/annual-reports/Commission%20for%20Employment%20 Equity%20Report/2010-2011/commission-for-employment-equity-report-2010-2011

Appendix C: Census Trend Pyramids

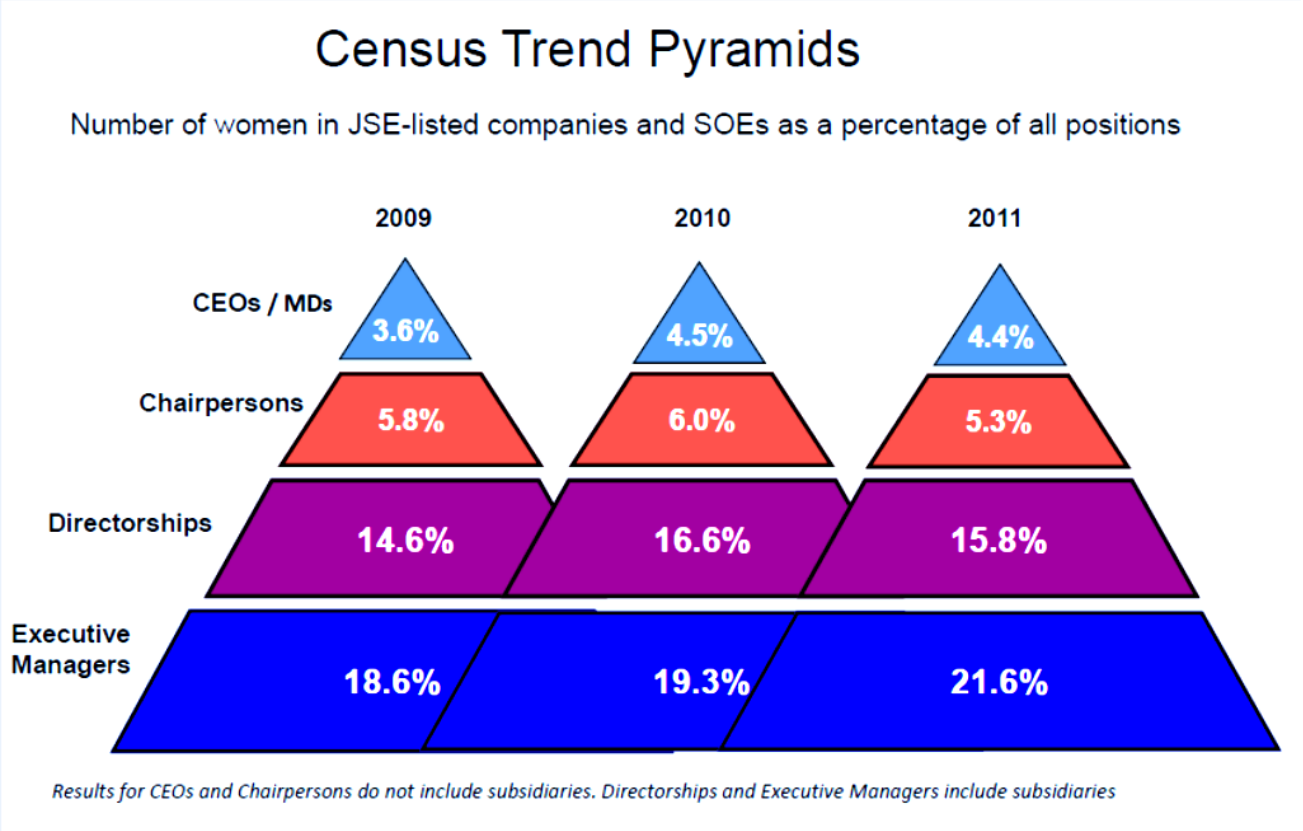


Figure 7. Census Trend Pyramids

Image taken from BWASA Presentation:

Businesswomen's Association of South Africa (BWASA) (2011, 03 25). *BWA South African Women in Leadership Census 2011*. Retrieved 04 20, 2012, from Businesswomen's Association of South Africa (BWASA): http://www.bwasa.co.za/Census/2011CensusResults/tabid/14840/Default.aspx

Appendix D: Questionnaire Completed by Participants

Section A

Age: _____

Race: White ❑ Black ❑ Indian ❑ Asian ❑ Coloured ❑

How long have you been working? _____

Which organisations (company) do you work for? _____

How long have you been working for your current organisation? _____

What is your current job positions (manager, team leader, etc) _____

How long have you held your current position _____

Section B

Instructions:

For the following 10 items, select your responses from one of the following:

1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neutral
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

1. I count in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am taken seriously in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am important in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am trusted in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
5. There is faith in me in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
6. I can make a difference in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am valuable in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am helpful in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am efficient in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
10. I am cooperative in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5

Section C

Instructions:

For items 11 to 30, select your responses from one of the following:

1 = Very dissatisfied
2 = Dissatisfied
3 = I can't decide whether I am satisfied or not
4 = Satisfied
5 = Very Satisfied

<u>On my present job, this is how I feel about:</u>

11. Being able to keep busy all the time	1	2	3	4	5
12. The chance to work alone on the job	1	2	3	4	5

13. The chance to do different things from time to time	1	2	3	4	5
14. The chance to be "somebody" in the community	1	2	3	4	5
15. The way my boss handles his/her workers	1	2	3	4	5
16. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	1	2	3	4	5
17. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	1	2	3	4	5
18. The way my job provides for steady employment	1	2	3	4	5
19. The chance to do things for other people	1	2	3	4	5
20. The chance to tell people what to do	1	2	3	4	5
21. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	1	2	3	4	5
22. The way company policies are put into practice	1	2	3	4	5
23. My pay and the amount of work I do	1	2	3	4	5
24. The chances to try my own methods of doing my job	1	2	3	4	5
25. The working conditions	1	2	3	4	5
26. The way my co-workers get along with each other	1	2	3	4	5
27. The praise I get for doing a good job	1	2	3	4	5

Section D

28. Please indicate whether you have been experienced the discrimination of the following kind:
    Gender discrimination ❑
    Racial discrimination ❑
    Gender and Racial discrimination ❑

Instructions:
Please answer the following questions based on the answer provided above. For items 29- 38, select your responses from one of the following:

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neutral
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

29. At work, I feel uncomfortable when others make jokes or negative commentaries about me because of my race/gender.

    1 2 3 4 5

30. At work, I sometimes feel that my race/gender is a limitation.

    1 2 3 4 5

31. At work, many people have stereotypes about my racial group/gender and treat me as if they were true.

    1 2 3 4 5

32. At work, people think I am unsociable when in fact I have trouble communicating in English.

    1 2 3 4 5

33. At work, I sometimes feel that people actively try to stop me from advancing because of my race/gender.

    1 2 3 4 5

34. At work, it bothers me when people pressure me to assimilate.

    1 2 3 4 5

35. At work, I do not get enough recognition because I am different.

    1 2 3 4 5

36. My accent is a limitation at work.

    1 2 3 4 5

37. At work, I feel that others exclude me from their activities because of my race/gender.

    1 2 3 4 5

38. At work, people look down upon me if I practice customs of my culture.

    1 2 3 4 5

Section E

Instructions:

Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement.

0 = Strongly disagree
1 = Disagree
2 = Agree
3 = Strongly Agree

39. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others

0 1 2 3

40. I feel that I have a number of good qualities

0 1 2 3

41. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure

0 1 2 3

42. I am able to do things as well as most other people

0 1 2 3

43. I feel I do not have much to be proud of

0 1 2 3

44. I take a positive attitude toward myself

0 1 2 3

45. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself

0 1 2 3

46. I certainly feel useless at times

0 1 2 3

47. At times I think I am no good at all

0 1 2 3

The OBSE scale makes up items 1-10, and, is taken from:

Pierce, J. L., Gardner, D. G., Cummings, L. L., & Dunham, R. B. (1989). Organization-Based Self-Esteem: Construct Definition, Measurement, And Validation. *The Academy of Management Journal, 32(3),* 622-648.

The job satisfaction scale makes up items 11-27. Items for intrinsic satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction and global satisfaction is as follows:

Intrinsic Satisfaction Items: 1 2 3 4 7 8 9 10 11
Extrinsic Satisfaction Items: 5 6 12 13 14 19
General Satisfaction Items: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 17 18 19

The job satisfaction scale was taken from:

Weiss, D. J., Dawis, R. V., England, G. W., & Lofquist, L. H. (1967). *Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire.* Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Industrial Relations Center.

Items 28-38 of the perceived discrimination scale was adapted from:

Sanchez, J. I., & Brock, P. (1996). Outcomes of Perceived Discrimination Among Hispanic Employees: Is Diversity Management A Luxury or A Necessity? *The Academy of Management Journal, 39(3)*, 704-719.

Items 39-47 of the global self-esteem scale was taken from:

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Appendix E: Organisation Information Sheet and Access Request

ı & Community Development
Witwatersrand
ITS, 2050
00 Fax: (011) 717 4559

Dear Sir or Madam

I am a student completing my Masters Degree in Organisational Psychology at the University of Witwatersrand. I am conducting research as part of my Masters course. The research focuses on the relationship between perceived discrimination, organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) and job satisfaction among women.

OBSE is an employee's evaluation of his or her personal adequacy and worthiness as an organisational member and is based on the experiences of the employee in the organisation. Studies have shown a higher correlation between OBSE and job satisfaction, as compared to a correlation between job satisfaction and global self-esteem. There is possibility that this relationship is mediated by perceived discrimination. Thus, this study seeks to look at the impact of perceived discrimination on OBSE and job satisfaction.

Your organisation and members of your organisation would be of great value to me should you be able to participate in this research. I would be sincerely grateful if you would authorise access to invite your the female employees to participate in the study by filling out a questionnaire online. The organisation will not be named and thus anonymity of the organisation will be maintained.

Access will entail permission to approach your female employees via email, or alternatively the forwarding of this email to all your female employees via the HR department should the organisation wish to keep participants completely anonymous. All those willing to participate will be asked to follow a link and complete the questionnaire online. The questionnaire will take between 15 – 30 minutes to complete. Participation in the study is voluntary and participants are under no obligation to consent to participate. Participants will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way with regards to participation in the study. Participants can withdraw from the study at any point before submitting the questionnaire. Thus, submission of the questionnaire will be taken as consent to

participate. Anonymity is guaranteed as the questionnaires will be answered anonymously online and confidentiality will be guaranteed as only myself and my supervisor will have access to the raw data. Data will be analysed at group level and should you wish, feedback can be offered in the form of a summary of the group trends found in the study.

Should you have any queries in this regard, please do not hesitate to contact me on +27 73 284 1394 or sarikabhana@gmail.com. Should you agree to participate, please formally accept by completing the form attached.

Regards,

Sarika Bhana
Organisational Psychology Masters Student

Ian Siemers
Supervisor

Psy
Sch nmunity Development
Uni /atersrand
Priv 50
Tel: : (011) 717 4559

Consent Letter:

I_____, fully understand the conditions attached to the research and provide consent for my organisation to participate in the research project carried out by Sarika Bhana.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Appendix F: Participant Information Letter

Psy
Sch nmunity Development
Uni /atersrand
Priv 50
Tel: : (011) 717 4559

Dear Madam

I am a student completing my Masters Degree in Organisational Psychology at the University of Witwatersrand. I am conducting research as part completion of my Masters course. The research focuses on the relationship between perceived discrimination, organisation-based self-esteem (OBSE) and job satisfaction among women.

I would like to invite you to participate in my research.

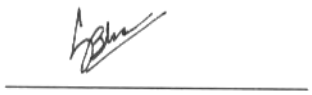
I would be sincerely grateful if you would participate in the study by filling out a questionnaire online. Participation will involve completing a questionnaire that will take between 15 – 30 minutes to complete. Participation in the study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participate. The submission of the questionnaire will be taken as your consent to participate. You will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way with regards to participation in the study. You can withdraw from the study at any point before submitting the questionnaire. Your honesty would be greatly appreciated.

Please note that the questionnaire is completely anonymous as the online questionnaire is designed such that it does not record who answered the survey and no names or any identifying information will be asked for. Thus, anonymity is guaranteed. The responses will only be viewed by myself and my supervisor, Ian Siemers, thus confidentiality of responses is also guaranteed. The data will be analysed as a group and any feedback given to the organisation will be in the form of a summary on group trends across the study.

Should you wish to participate, please follow the link in the email to complete the questionnaire. You would be of great value to me should you be able to participate in this research.

Should you have any queries, please do not hesitate to contact me on +27 73 284 1394 or sarikabhana@gmail.com.

Regards,



Sarika Bhana

Organisational Psychology Masters Student



Ian Siemers

Supervisor

Appendix G: List of Reported Positions

Table 16. Positions Reported in Present Study

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		1	.4	.4	.4
	accountant	2	.8	.8	1.3
	Actuarial assistant	1	.4	.4	1.7
	Administrative Assistant	1	.4	.4	2.1
	Administrator	8	3.4	3.4	5.5
	Administrator (academic)	1	.4	.4	5.9
	Administrator (Assistant Admin Officer)	1	.4	.4	6.3
	Administrator (assistant)	1	.4	.4	6.7
	Administrator (General Accounts)	1	.4	.4	7.1
	Administrator (Office)	1	.4	.4	7.6
	Administrator (Sales Stats)	1	.4	.4	8.0
	Administrator (Senior)	1	.4	.4	8.4
	Aeronautical Engineer	1	.4	.4	8.8
	Analyst	4	1.7	1.7	10.5
	Ar	1	.4	.4	10.9
	Architectural Technologist	1	.4	.4	11.3
	Assistant & PA to I.C.T. National Manager	1	.4	.4	11.8
	assistant planner	1	.4	.4	12.2
	Associate or Attorney	1	.4	.4	12.6
	Associate Professor	1	.4	.4	13.0
	Audit Admin Compliance Manager	1	.4	.4	13.4
	Audit Partner	1	.4	.4	13.9
	Audit Senior	2	.8	.8	14.7
	Bookkeeper	2	.8	.8	15.5
	Business Analyst	1	.4	.4	16.0
	Business Analytics Consultant	1	.4	.4	16.4
	call centre agent	3	1.3	1.3	17.6
	Candidate Civil engineer	1	.4	.4	18.1

	Candidate Quantity Surveyor	1	.4	.4	18.5
	clerk	3	1.3	1.3	19.7
	Client Executive	1	.4	.4	20.2
	Client Liason	1	.4	.4	20.6
	co coordinator	1	.4	.4	21.0
	Community service dentist	1	.4	.4	21.4
	Consultant	12	5.0	5.0	26.5
	Consultant (Junior)	1	.4	.4	26.9
	Consultant (Managing)	1	.4	.4	27.3
	Consultant (Marketing)	1	.4	.4	27.7
	Consultant (Recruitment)	1	.4	.4	28.2
	Consultant (Senior Pre Sales)	1	.4	.4	28.6
	Consultant (Senior)	2	.8	.8	29.4
	Consultant (TPA)	2	.8	.8	30.3
	Consultant (voice)	1	.4	.4	30.7
	Consultant (Voice)	1	.4	.4	31.1
	Consultant Developer	1	.4	.4	31.5
	Consultant Engineer	1	.4	.4	31.9
	Cost analyst	1	.4	.4	32.4
	Cost and management accountant	1	.4	.4	32.8
	Creditors Clerk	1	.4	.4	33.2
	Debt collector	1	.4	.4	33.6
	Deputy Principal	1	.4	.4	34.0
	Director	1	.4	.4	34.5
	Educator	4	1.7	1.7	36.1
	Educator (Middle Management)	1	.4	.4	36.6
	Executive	2	.8	.8	37.4
	Executive (Sales)	1	.4	.4	37.8
	Executive Assistant	1	.4	.4	38.2
	Executive Consultant	1	.4	.4	38.7
	Facilitator	1	.4	.4	39.1
	Finance Associate	1	.4	.4	39.5
	Finance Clerk	1	.4	.4	39.9
	Financial Adviser	1	.4	.4	40.3
	Geotechnical Lead	1	.4	.4	40.8

	Global Learning and Development Associate Director	1	.4	.4	41.2
	Grade I Speech Therapist and Audiologist	1	.4	.4	41.6
	Graphic Designer, senior position	1	.4	.4	42.0
	Group Financial Accountant	1	.4	.4	42.4
	Guest Relations Officer	1	.4	.4	42.9
	Head of Information Technology (IT) dept	1	.4	.4	43.3
	HR	1	.4	.4	43.7
	HR Administrator	1	.4	.4	44.1
	HR Business Partner (Executive)	1	.4	.4	44.5
	HR Consultant	1	.4	.4	45.0
	HR Coordinator	1	.4	.4	45.4
	HR Manager	1	.4	.4	45.8
	HR Officer	3	1.3	1.3	47.1
	Industrial Psychologist	1	.4	.4	47.5
	Industrial Psychologist (intern)	1	.4	.4	47.9
	Internal auditor	1	.4	.4	48.3
	IT Developer	1	.4	.4	48.7
	IT support	1	.4	.4	49.2
	Junior architectural technologist	1	.4	.4	49.6
	Junior Business Process Developer	1	.4	.4	50.0
	Junior Electrical Engineer	1	.4	.4	50.4
	Junior Engineer	1	.4	.4	50.8
	Junior lecturer	2	.8	.8	51.7
	Junior Quantity Surveyor	1	.4	.4	52.1
	Lab Controller	1	.4	.4	52.5
	Lead & Referral Generator (Telemarketing Representative)	1	.4	.4	52.9
	Manager	25	10.5	10.5	63.4
	Manager (Corporate Tax)	1	.4	.4	63.9

	Manager (Customer Services)	1	.4	.4	64.3
	Manager (General)	1	.4	.4	64.7
	Manager (HR)	3	1.3	1.3	66.0
	Manager (IT)	1	.4	.4	66.4
	Manager (Junior)	1	.4	.4	66.8
	Manager (Marketing)	2	.8	.8	67.6
	Marketing / Events Coordinator	1	.4	.4	68.1
	Marketing Coordinator	1	.4	.4	68.5
	MD	1	.4	.4	68.9
	National Chairperson	1	.4	.4	69.3
	Owner	7	2.9	2.9	72.3
	Personal Assistant	4	1.7	1.7	73.9
	planning analyst	1	.4	.4	74.4
	planner	1	.4	.4	74.8
	Private banker	1	.4	.4	75.2
	Product Specialist	1	.4	.4	75.6
	Professional Nurse	1	.4	.4	76.1
	Professional specialist	1	.4	.4	76.5
	Project Accountant	1	.4	.4	76.9
	Project Control Analyst	1	.4	.4	77.3
	Project coordinator	1	.4	.4	77.7
	project engineer	1	.4	.4	78.2
	project leader	1	.4	.4	78.6
	Project officer	1	.4	.4	79.0
	Quantity Surveyor	1	.4	.4	79.4
	Raw Material Analyst	1	.4	.4	79.8
	Receptionist	3	1.3	1.3	81.1
	Recruiting coordinator	1	.4	.4	81.5
	Research Associate	1	.4	.4	81.9
	sales coordinator	1	.4	.4	82.4
	school counsellor	1	.4	.4	82.8
	Senior Advisor	1	.4	.4	83.2
	Senior Associate	1	.4	.4	83.6
	Senior Auditor	1	.4	.4	84.0
	Senior dealer	1	.4	.4	84.5
	Senior Manager	1	.4	.4	84.9

	Senior Researcher	1	.4	.4	85.3
	Senior Trainee	1	.4	.4	85.7
	Skills Development Facilitator and Recruitment adviser	1	.4	.4	86.1
	specialist	1	.4	.4	86.6
	Specialist	1	.4	.4	87.0
	specialist planner (junior management position)	1	.4	.4	87.4
	Specialist: Performance & Talent Management	1	.4	.4	87.8
	Speech therapist	1	.4	.4	88.2
	sport officer	1	.4	.4	88.7
	stock controller	1	.4	.4	89.1
	Supervisor	2	.8	.8	89.9
	Support worker	1	.4	.4	90.3
	Talent Management Advisor	1	.4	.4	90.8
	Talent Manager	1	.4	.4	91.2
	Tax Compliance	1	.4	.4	91.6
	Team Leader	8	3.4	3.4	95.0
	team member	1	.4	.4	95.4
	Technical Director	1	.4	.4	95.8
	Trainee	2	.8	.8	96.6
	Trainee accountant	2	.8	.8	97.5
	Trainee: Audit	1	.4	.4	97.9
	Trainee: money market dealer	1	.4	.4	98.3
	Training coordinator	1	.4	.4	98.7
	tutor, demonstrator	1	.4	.4	99.2
	Wellness Practitioner	1	.4	.4	99.6
	Youth Worker (deputy head)	1	.4	.4	100.0
	Total	238	100.0	100.0	

Appendix H: Psychometric Properties of the Scales

H. 1. Psychometric Properties of OBSE Scale

H.1.1. Reliability Analysis:

Case Processing Summary			
		N	%
Cases	Valid	214	89.9
	Excluded[a]	24	10.1
	Total	238	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.929	.929	10

As tabulated above, the reliability of the ten-item scale is good as it reports an α= .929.

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
1. I count in the workplace	36.50	40.486	.753	.671	.920
2. I am taken seriously in the workplace	36.63	40.910	.695	.658	.923
3. I am important in the workplace	36.55	41.085	.705	.662	.922
4. I am trusted in the workplace	36.25	40.499	.800	.766	.917
5. There is faith in me in the workplace	36.36	40.787	.802	.783	.917
6. I can make a difference in the workplace	36.25	41.805	.691	.622	.923
7. I am valuable in the workplace	36.41	40.562	.790	.713	.918
8. I am helpful in the workplace	36.10	41.582	.748	.752	.920

9. I am efficient in the workplace	36.16	43.054	.637	.646	.926
10. I am cooperative in the workplace	36.12	43.183	.607	.639	.927

As tabulated above, the alpha is at its highest when all ten-items are included, however, it would not significantly decreased had any items been removed.

H.1.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis:

Table 17. Table Showing Inter-item Correlation of OBSE Scale

Correlation Matrix										
		1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10
Correlation	1. I count in the workplace	1.000	.709	.717	.602	.665	.596	.604	.511	.435	.415
	2. I am taken seriously in the workplace	.709	1.000	.699	.657	.724	.432	.564	.416	.334	.334
	3. I am important in the workplace	.717	.699	1.000	.628	.658	.520	.658	.418	.316	.307
	4. I am trusted in the workplace	.602	.657	.628	1.000	.848	.543	.630	.637	.526	.508
	5. There is faith in me in the workplace	.665	.724	.658	.848	1.000	.536	.651	.570	.455	.457
	6. I can make a difference in the workplace	.596	.432	.520	.543	.536	1.000	.742	.594	.523	.413
	7. I am valuable in the workplace	.604	.564	.658	.630	.651	.742	1.000	.657	.523	.490
	8. I am helpful in the workplace	.511	.416	.418	.637	.570	.594	.657	1.000	.760	.759
	9. I am efficient in the workplace	.435	.334	.316	.526	.455	.523	.523	.760	1.000	.727
	10. I am cooperative in the workplace	.415	.334	.307	.508	.457	.413	.490	.759	.727	1.000

Table 18. Table Showing Total Variance Explained for Items of the OBSE Scale

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.121	61.211	61.211	6.121	61.211	61.211
2	1.374	13.744	74.955			
3	.679	6.794	81.749			
4	.465	4.651	86.400			
5	.329	3.293	89.693			
6	.264	2.641	92.334			
7	.260	2.596	94.930			
8	.200	2.000	96.931			
9	.178	1.784	98.715			
10	.129	1.285	100.000			
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						

From the percentage of variance explained criterion, it is evident that the OBSE scale satisfies the conditions laid out by Hair Jr. et al. (2010) as one factor explains 60% of the variance. In the figure below, however, the scree plot suggests that there are two factors underlying the OBSE scale. Nevertheless, the literature supports the one-factor solution and therefore the one-factor solution was accepted.

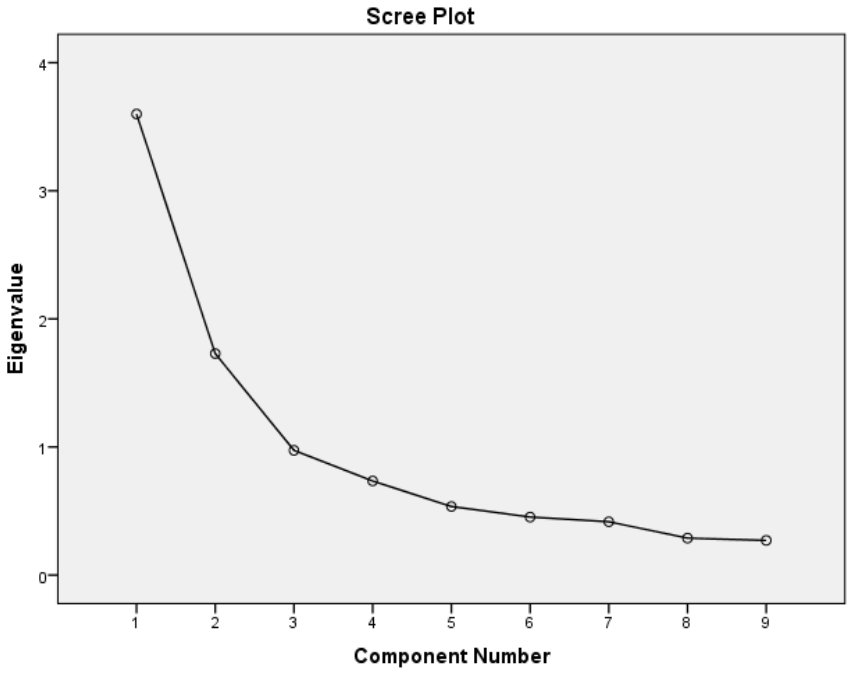


Figure 18. Scree Plot for OBSE Scale

H.2. Global Self-Esteem Scale

H.2.1. Reliability Analyses:

Case Processing Summary			
		N	%
Cases	Valid	226	95.0
	Excluded[a]	12	5.0
	Total	238	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.804	.810	9

As reported above, the Global Self-esteem scale had a good internal consistency of 0.804.

Furthermore, the alpha would have decreased to .79 and lower. Therefore, all items were included.

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
39. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others	19.78	14.517	.411	.390	.795
40. I feel that I have a number of good qualities	19.63	15.115	.390	.424	.798
R41.All in all, I am inclined to feel like a failure	19.85	13.595	.497	.389	.785
42. I am able to do things as well as most other people	19.77	14.420	.473	.390	.789
R43 I feel I do not have much to be proud of	19.87	13.143	.474	.335	.790
44. I take a positive attitude toward myself	19.84	13.752	.596	.561	.775
45. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself	19.95	13.393	.546	.509	.778
R46 I certainly feel useless at times	20.33	12.692	.521	.532	.783
R47. At times I think I'm no good at all	20.07	12.267	.614	.562	.768

H.2.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis:

Table 19. Inter-Item Correlation of Global Self-Esteem Scale

Correlation Matrix									
		39.	40.	R41.	42.	R43	44.	45.	R46	R47.
Correlation	39. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others	1.000	.573	.116	.470	.223	.344	.332	.103	.197
	40. I feel that I have a number of good qualities	.573	1.000	.054	.504	.219	.375	.293	.051	.156
	R41.All in all, I am inclined to feel like a failure	.116	.054	1.000	.143	.511	.301	.268	.456	.462
	42. I am able to do things as well as most other people	.470	.504	.143	1.000	.255	.476	.378	.176	.217
	R43 I feel I do not have much to be proud of	.223	.219	.511	.255	1.000	.231	.211	.320	.400
	44. I take a positive attitude toward myself	.344	.375	.301	.476	.231	1.000	.695	.301	.363
	45. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself	.332	.293	.268	.378	.211	.695	1.000	.316	.364
	R46 I certainly feel useless at times	.103	.051	.456	.176	.320	.301	.316	1.000	.708
	R47. At times I think I'm no good at all	.197	.156	.462	.217	.400	.363	.364	.708	1.000

Table 20. Table Showing Total Variance Explained for Items of the Global Self-Esteem Scale

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.599	39.992	39.992	3.599	39.992	39.992
2	1.729	19.214	59.206			
3	.974	10.819	70.025			
4	.735	8.161	78.187			
5	.535	5.948	84.135			
6	.453	5.030	89.165			
7	.416	4.624	93.788			
8	.288	3.205	96.993			
9	.271	3.007	100.000			
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						

From the above solution, it is clear that the one-factor solution does not qualify as Hair Jr. et al. (2010) suggested. However, Gorsuch, Factor Analysis (1974) states that .40 is also an acceptable level. According to the scree plot criterion, two factors are suggested. However, due to the scale's

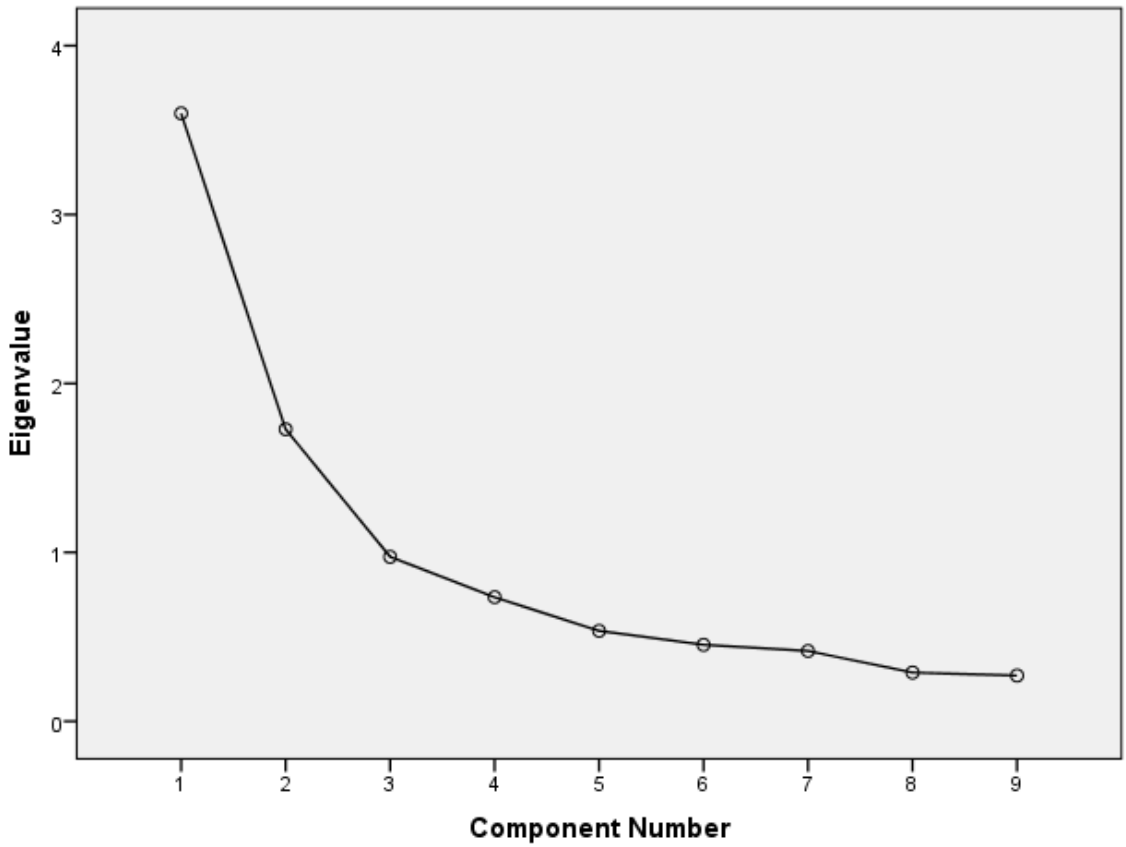


Figure 18. Scree Plot for Global Self-Esteem Scale

theoretical backing and wide usage, it was considered acceptable for use in the present study. Furthermore, there has been some controversy around the scale's one-factor usage (Tomas & Oliver, 1999). Tomas and Oliver (1999) attempted to to clarify this controversy and concluded that the scale is a single factor solution.

H.3. Psychometric Properties of the Job Satisfaction Scale

H.3.1. Reliability Analyses:

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	204	85.7
	Excluded[a]	34	14.3
	Total	238	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.885	.884	17

As tabulated above, the scale reported a good alpha of 0.885.

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
11. Being able to keep busy all the time	3.93	.987	204
12. The chance to work alone on the job	4.00	.896	204
13. The chance to do different things from time to time	3.74	1.117	204
14. The chance to be "somebody" in the community	3.63	1.086	204
15. The way my boss handles his/her workers	3.43	1.149	204
16. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	3.62	1.110	204
17. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	4.08	.969	204
18. The way my job provides for steady employment	3.93	.960	204
19. The chance to do things for other people	3.97	.904	204
20. The chance to tell people what to do	3.53	.901	204
21. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	3.81	1.113	204
22. The way company policies are put into practice	3.20	1.060	204
23. My pay and the amount of work I do	3.03	1.207	204
24. The chances to try my own methods of doing my job	3.65	1.057	204

25. The working conditions	3.68	1.083	204
26. The way my co-workers get along with each other	3.73	.948	204
27. The praise I get for doing a good job	3.54	1.057	204

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
11. Being able to keep busy all the time	58.56	99.498	.477	.414	.880
12. The chance to work alone on the job	58.49	100.231	.492	.411	.880
13. The chance to do different things from time to time	58.75	95.499	.601	.488	.875
14. The chance to be "somebody" in the community	58.86	97.926	.501	.430	.879
15. The way my boss handles his/her workers	59.06	96.267	.545	.548	.878
16. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	58.87	97.008	.532	.527	.878
17. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	58.41	101.948	.357	.166	.884
18. The way my job provides for steady employment	58.56	101.637	.378	.243	.884
19. The chance to do things for other people	58.52	99.138	.551	.402	.878
20. The chance to tell people what to do	58.96	99.313	.543	.411	.878
21. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	58.68	94.721	.642	.595	.874
22. The way company policies are put into practice	59.29	97.322	.546	.469	.878
23. My pay and the amount of work I do	59.46	97.462	.459	.342	.882
24. The chances to try my own methods of doing my job	58.84	94.576	.690	.527	.872
25. The working conditions	58.81	94.579	.670	.548	.873
26. The way my co-workers get along with each other	58.76	101.915	.368	.201	.884
27. The praise I get for doing a good job	58.95	97.337	.547	.376	.878

H.3.2. Confirmatory Factor Analyses:

Table 21. Correlation Matrix of CFA for Job Satisfaction Scale

		11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
Correlation	11. Being able to keep busy all the time	1.000	.496	.456	.351	.119	.199	.114	.244	.307	.404	.467	.211	.171	.386	.310	.189	.194
	12. The chance to work alone on the job	.496	1.000	.474	.341	.242	.170	.221	.138	.389	.351	.332	.165	.237	.418	.372	.181	.200
	13. The chance to do different things from time to time	.456	.474	1.000	.498	.313	.273	.210	.144	.427	.403	.562	.339	.236	.485	.420	.207	.257
	14. The chance to be “somebody” in the community	.351	.341	.498	1.000	.166	.132	.205	.122	.506	.408	.532	.230	.230	.423	.281	.160	.238
	15. The way my boss handles his/her workers	.119	.242	.313	.166	1.000	.669	.226	.308	.292	.231	.291	.372	.240	.376	.502	.316	.475
	16. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	.199	.170	.273	.132	.669	1.000	.229	.313	.278	.191	.275	.349	.262	.405	.459	.363	.437
	17. Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience	.114	.221	.210	.205	.226	.229	1.000	.223	.261	.206	.169	.205	.259	.268	.287	.152	.213
	18. The way my job provides for steady employment	.244	.138	.144	.122	.308	.313	.223	1.000	.219	.191	.306	.188	.240	.263	.273	.120	.328
	19. The chance to do things for other people	.307	.389	.427	.506	.292	.278	.261	.219	1.000	.443	.464	.207	.227	.391	.337	.226	.280
	20. The chance to tell people what to do	.404	.351	.403	.408	.231	.191	.206	.191	.443	1.000	.569	.282	.239	.406	.362	.184	.306
	21. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	.467	.332	.562	.532	.291	.275	.169	.306	.464	.569	1.000	.408	.242	.529	.341	.230	.360
	22. The way company policies are put into practice	.211	.165	.339	.230	.372	.349	.205	.188	.207	.282	.408	1.000	.500	.467	.531	.201	.428

23. My pay and the amount of work I do	.171	.237	.236	.230	.240	.262	.259	.240	.227	.239	.242	.500	1.000	.402	.403	.140	.358
24. The chances to try my own methods of doing my job	.386	.418	.485	.423	.376	.405	.268	.263	.391	.406	.529	.467	.402	1.000	.586	.247	.379
25. The working conditions	.310	.372	.420	.281	.502	.459	.287	.273	.337	.362	.341	.531	.403	.586	1.000	.360	.430
26. The way my co-workers get along with each other	.189	.181	.207	.160	.316	.363	.152	.120	.226	.184	.230	.201	.140	.247	.360	1.000	.261
27. The praise I get for doing a good job	.194	.200	.257	.238	.475	.437	.213	.328	.280	.306	.360	.428	.358	.379	.430	.261	1.000

Table 22. Total Variance Explained of Job Satisfaction Items

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.108	35.928	35.928	6.108	35.928	35.928
2	1.805	10.619	46.547			
3	1.078	6.340	52.887			
4	.957	5.632	58.519			
5	.920	5.412	63.931			
6	.869	5.113	69.045			
7	.739	4.346	73.391			
8	.633	3.725	77.116			
9	.620	3.644	80.760			
10	.553	3.251	84.012			
11	.502	2.952	86.964			
12	.463	2.722	89.686			
13	.441	2.592	92.279			
14	.406	2.389	94.668			
15	.376	2.213	96.881			
16	.275	1.618	98.499			
17	.255	1.501	100.000			
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						

The table above indicates that this one-factor solution accounts for 35.928% of variance explained. Due to past validations and theoretical underpinning, this was considered an acceptable level of variance. According to the scree plot pictured below, 17 factors demonstrate an eigenvalue greater than one. However, this is not a plausible solution. If one had to consider the eigenvalues above two eigenvalue mark, or examine the curvature of the plot, one could argue that the plot displays a one-factor or two-factor solution. Therefore, a one-factor solution was chosen.

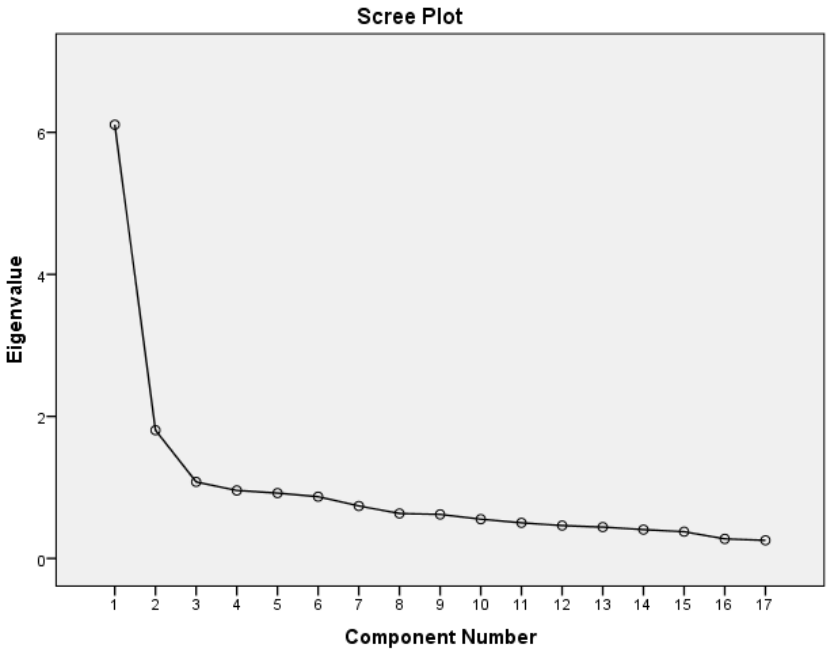


Figure 9. Scree Plot of Items of Job Satisfaction Scale.

H.4. Psychometric Properties of Perceived Discrimination Scale

H.4.1. Reliability Analyses

Case Processing Summary			
		N	%
Cases	Valid	214	89.9
	Excluded[a]	24	10.1
	Total	238	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.893	.892	10

As tabulated above, the internal consistency of the perceived discrimination scale is good with an alpha of 0.893.

Item Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
29. At work, I feel uncomfortable when others make jokes or negative commentaries about me because of my race/gender.	2.50	1.387	214
30. At work, I sometimes feel that my race/gender is a limitation.	2.71	1.377	214
31. At work, many people have stereotypes about my racial group/gender and treat me as if they were true.	2.38	1.279	214
32. At work, people think I am unsociable when in fact I have trouble communicating in English.	1.38	.759	214
33. At work, I sometimes feel that people actively try to stop me from advancing because of my race/gender.	2.15	1.304	214
34. At work, it bothers me when people pressure me to assimilate.	2.22	1.189	214
35. At work, I do not get enough recognition because I am different.	2.07	1.206	214
36. My accent is a limitation at work.	1.48	.854	214
37. At work, I feel that others exclude me from their activities because of my race/gender.	1.87	1.159	214
38. At work, people look down upon me if I practice customs of my culture.	1.64	.922	214

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
29. At work, I feel uncomfortable when others make jokes or negative commentaries about me because of my race/gender.	17.93	55.159	.574	.407	.888
30. At work, I sometimes feel that my race/gender is a limitation.	17.71	52.826	.709	.624	.877
31. At work, many people have stereotypes about my racial group/gender and treat me as if they were true.	18.04	53.712	.723	.628	.876
32. At work, people think I am unsociable when in fact I have trouble communicating in English.	19.04	63.693	.384	.342	.896

33. At work, I sometimes feel that people actively try to stop me from advancing because of my race/gender.	18.27	53.147	.740	.635	.875
34. At work, it bothers me when people pressure me to assimilate.	18.20	55.420	.682	.512	.879
35. At work, I do not get enough recognition because I am different.	18.36	54.277	.742	.595	.875
36. My accent is a limitation at work.	18.94	62.110	.451	.389	.893
37. At work, I feel that others exclude me from their activities because of my race/gender.	18.56	55.619	.691	.558	.879
38. At work, people look down upon me if I practice customs of my culture.	18.78	58.858	.651	.536	.883

As tabulated above, it was suggested that item 32 could be removed, however, this would result in an increase of 0.03, an insignificant increase in reliability. Therefore, all items were included in the current study.

H.4.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis:

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.167	51.671	51.671	5.167	51.671	51.671
2	1.274	12.743	64.414			
3	.679	6.788	71.202			
4	.618	6.179	77.382			
5	.559	5.593	82.975			
6	.520	5.199	88.174			
7	.369	3.689	91.863			
8	.328	3.278	95.141			
9	.268	2.681	97.822			
10	.218	2.178	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

As tabulated above, 51.671 of variance is explained. According to Gorsuch (1974), this is an

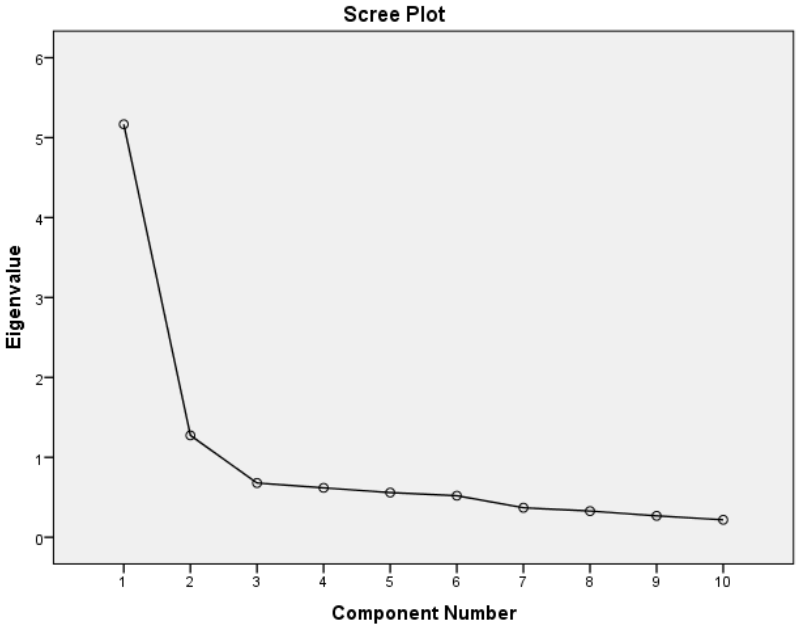


Figure 21. Scree Plot of Items of Perceived Discrimination Scale

acceptable level of variance explained suggesting a one-factor solution. According to the scree plot pictured above, the criterion suggests a two-factor solution. However, due to theoretical underpinnings, a one-factor solution was chosen.

Correlation Matrix										
		29.	30.	31.	32.	33.	34.	35.	36.	37.	38.
Correlation	29. At work, I feel uncomfortable when others make jokes or negative commentaries about me because of my race/gender.	1.000	.513	.577	.187	.458	.498	.462	.200	.350	.386
	30. At work, I sometimes feel that my race/gender is a limitation.	.513	1.000	.713	.226	.653	.484	.569	.285	.550	.397
	31. At work, many people have stereotypes about my racial group/gender and treat me as if they were true.	.577	.713	1.000	.172	.575	.523	.585	.294	.515	.502
	32. At work, people think I am unsociable when in fact I have trouble communicating in English.	.187	.226	.172	1.000	.310	.310	.248	.468	.319	.464
	33. At work, I sometimes feel that people actively try to stop me from advancing because of my race/gender.	.458	.653	.575	.310	1.000	.626	.659	.245	.594	.491
	34. At work, it bothers me when people pressure me to assimilate.	.498	.484	.523	.310	.626	1.000	.611	.328	.478	.467
	35. At work, I do not get enough recognition because I am different.	.462	.569	.585	.248	.659	.611	1.000	.418	.601	.504
	36. My accent is a limitation at work.	.200	.285	.294	.468	.245	.328	.418	1.000	.438	.468
	37. At work, I feel that others exclude me from their activities because of my race/gender.	.350	.550	.515	.319	.594	.478	.601	.438	1.000	.615
	38. At work, people look down upon me if I practice customs of my culture.	.386	.397	.502	.464	.491	.467	.504	.468	.615	1.000

Appendix I: Histograms of Scales

The following section acts as a supplement to chapter 4 section 2, the Distribution Analysis. The following figures demonstrate normality as judged by the histogram and measures of central tendency (Huck, 2009). The black line represents the distribution of a normal curve. Means (μ), Medians (*Mdn*) and Modes (*Mo*) are also described. A true normal distribution is when μ= *Mdn* =*Mo*. Skewness coefficients greater than 1 and less than -1 represent skewed distributions.

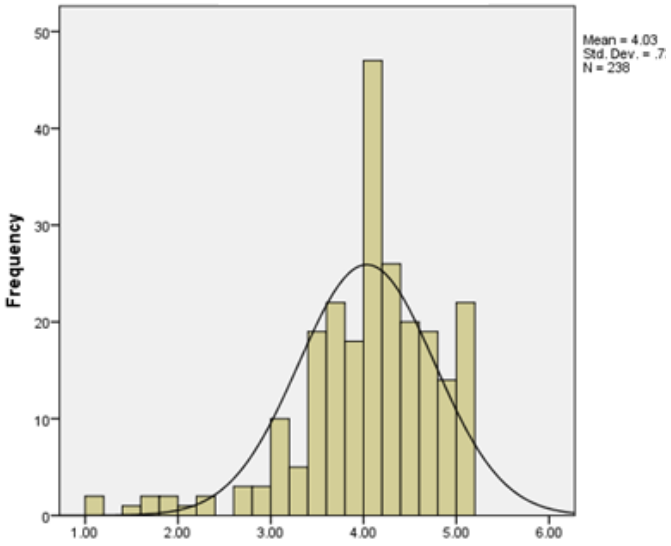


Figure 22. Histogram of OBSE Scale

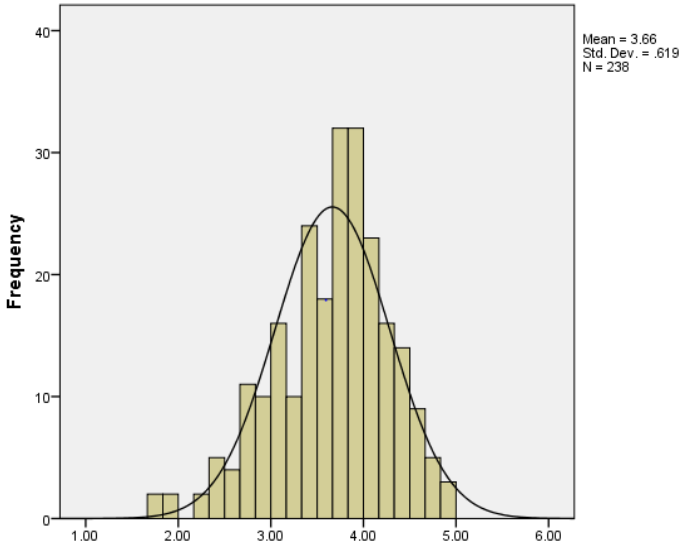


Figure 23. Histogram of Job Satisfaction Scale

In Figure , the OBSE scale appears slightly skewed to the left, or negatively skewed. The μ = 4.03, *Mdn*= 4.11 and *Mo*= 4. Since these figures are very close together, normality is suggested. However, the skewness coefficient is -1.341. Further emphasising this is the kurtosis = 2.955. This suggests that the data is skew.

In Figure 23, the histogram matches the shape of the normality curve as the outline is similar to that of a bell-curve. Accordingly, the job satisfaction scale could be said to have a normal distribution. Furthermore, the μ = 3.66, *Mdn*= 3.77 and *Mo*= 4. While these figures are further apart than the ones in Figure , the histogram suggests normality. The skewness coefficient is -.522 which further emphasises normality as it falls within the range of -1 and 1.

In Figure 24, the curve is flatter and longer, and appears skewed to the right. The μ = 2.03, *Mdn*= 1.91 and *Mo*= 1. The skewness coefficient is .553 which correlates with the data reported above and suggests normality.

Figure 25 also has a flatter curve, and appears slightly skewed to the left (negatively skewed). The μ = 2.49, *Mdn*= 2.56 and *Mo*= 3. Their closeness could suggest normality. The skewness coefficient

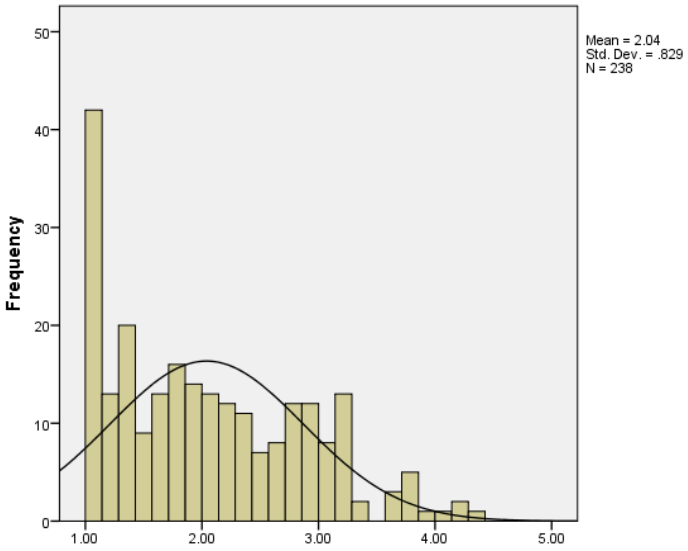


Figure 24. Histogram of Global Self-Esteem Scale

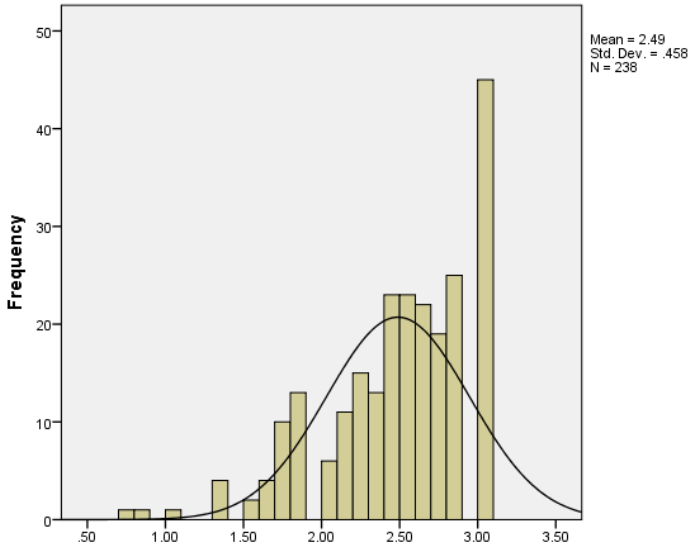


Figure 25. Histogram of Perceived Discrimination Scale

is -.995 which is borderline between normality and skewness. However, the kurtosis figure (= .831) indicates that the distribution could still be normal. Furthermore, QQ plots were also examined to clarify on this matter:

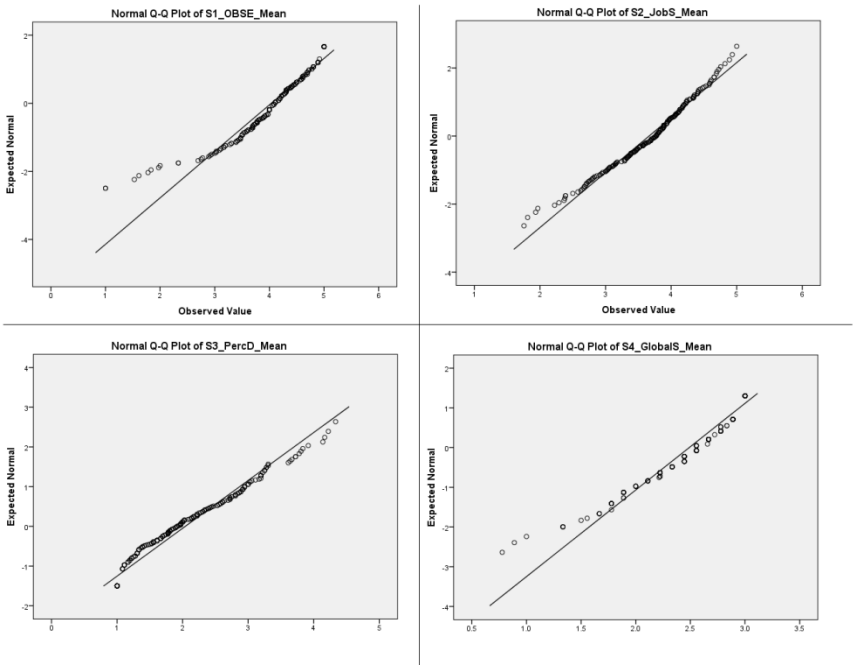


Figure 26. QQ Plots of Normality For All Scales.

In Figure 6, the QQ plots of all four scales are presented. All data seems to follow a path and demonstrate linearity. However the plots for scale one and scale four show sores which are more dispersed and while they may follow a path, they are a bit curved and distant from the trendline. Normality could be argued for. However, all the above results were contradicted by the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test as it indicated that ***all*** scales were not normally distributed.