

8-2009

ANTECEDENTS AND OUTCOMES OF WORKPLACE DISCRIMINATION AS PERCEIVED BY EMPLOYEES WITH DISABILITIES

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ANTECEDENTS AND OUTCOMES OF WORKPLACE DISCRIMINATION AS
PERCEIVED BY EMPLOYEES WITH DISABILITIES

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Graduate School of
Clemson University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy
Industrial – Organizational Psychology

by
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August 2009

Accepted by:
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ABSTRACT

Even since the enactment of the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) in 1990, employment is still a challenge for the millions of Americans living with disabilities. The unemployment rate for those with disabilities (13.7%) is much higher than that for adults without disabilities (8.9%; Bureau of Labor Statistics, May 2009). In addition to the challenge of obtaining a job, individuals with disabilities can face discrimination and poor treatment once on the job. The current study is the first to empirically examine those factors that may influence perceptions of discrimination in the workplace for individuals with disabilities and predicts how organizational outcomes may be impacted.

Specifically, a model is presented and tested that depicts how different characteristics associated with disabilities, individual experiences of those with disabilities, and organizational factors relating to disabilities impact the organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions and intentions to file a discrimination claim for those individuals with a disability. The model also specifies that these effects are mediated by the individuals' perceptions of workplace discrimination.

One hundred and forty employed adults with disabilities completed an online survey measuring the variables introduced above. These individuals were contacted primarily through their membership in organizations for persons with disabilities. The results of a structural equation model indicate that several characteristics of disabilities (e.g., onset controllability, visibility and predictability of a disability) are related to perceptions of workplace discrimination. Additionally, self perceptions regarding the familiarity of one's disability was found to directly impact job satisfaction, and self-

perceptions of the predictability of one's disability had a significant direct relationship with ratings of organizational commitment. Only one individual experience variable (knowledge of the ADA) was a significant predictor of perceptions of workplace discrimination.

Two of the organizational factors (supervisor knowledge of the ADA and disability-friendly climate perceptions) hypothesized to impact discrimination perceptions, were significant. Also, perceptions of climate were negatively related to intentions to file a discrimination claim. These findings provide important information for organizations wanting to reduce perceptions of discrimination and impact other critical outcomes (e.g., intentions to file a discrimination claim).

A second model was presented and analyzed in this paper focusing on one's likelihood to request an accommodation. Several variables were found to significantly predict one's likelihood to request an accommodation (disclosing one's disability, the usefulness of the accommodation and the perceptions of the organization's compliance with the request). This provides novel information to researchers in this field as this is the first empirical study to examine accommodation request likelihood.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my husband, Scott Westby-Gibson. His support, encouragement and love helped me to complete graduate school and achieve my goal of obtaining my PhD. For his patience and willingness to take on all household chores during arduous times, I will be forever grateful.

I also dedicate this work to my family and friends for all of their love and encouragement as I faced obstacles in completing this research. Thank you for helping me persevere.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation is a reflection of the wonderful guidance and support I received from many individuals. First, I would like to thank Dr. Michael Horvath who acted as my teacher, mentor, and friend throughout graduate school by providing guidance, encouragement and when needed, a shoulder to lean on. He helped me realize that I had the capabilities to successfully make it through graduate school in one piece. I also owe much gratitude to my dissertation advisor, Dr. Patrick Raymark. As a wonderful teacher, mentor and advisor, he provided sound suggestions on how to improve my work while allowing me the flexibility to make my research my own. He also went above and beyond by supporting me through the process of completing my dissertation from a distance.

I would like to thank my dissertation committee members: Dr. Cynthia Pury for her unique perspective and innovative ideas, Dr. Mary Anne Taylor for her great attention to detail and supportive words of encouragement, and Dr. Tracey Tafero for her constructive input and creative ideas. Additionally, I thank Dr. DeWayne Moore who provided invaluable patience and guidance as I worked through the quantitative analyses within this paper.

I also would like to acknowledge the organizations that helped me collect data through surveying their members. This dissertation would not have been possible without their help.

Lastly, I want to recognize all of my friends and family who provided endless encouragement while I journeyed through graduate school. Thank you!

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Individuals who have been discriminated against on the basis of race, color, sex, national origin, religion or age have had the opportunity to use legal recourse since the enactment of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. However, those who experience discrimination related to disabilities have not been so fortunate. Until the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) was established in 1990, individuals with disabilities were not guaranteed the same rights and privileges as other groups of individuals in this country. Even since this Act has been created, stigma toward disabilities and discrimination toward individuals with disabilities still occurs (e.g., Brown & Bradley, 2002; Colella & Varma, 1999; Hebl & Kleck, 2002). Approximately 86.3% of working age adults with disabilities are currently employed compared to 91.1% of working age adults without disabilities (Bureau of Labor Statistics, May 2009). This is just one piece of evidence demonstrating that an employment setback exists for individuals with disabilities.

The ADA has been perceived by some as being geared toward reducing one kind of workplace discrimination called access discrimination, which refers to barriers that prevent individuals from gaining employment. However, treatment discrimination, referring to unfair discrimination encountered on the job, may be more difficult to address (G.E. Jones, 1997) and there is little systematic information about the conditions and opportunities employees with disabilities encounter once they are hired (Yelin & Cisternas, 1996). This study aims to shed light on the current perceptions of workers with disabilities and their attitudes regarding treatment discrimination. If organizations can

understand what individual and organizational factors influence perceptions of discrimination in the workplace, they may be able to create a more enjoyable and discrimination-free workplace. Specifically, with this insight, suggestions can be made to employers regarding ways to retain employees with disabilities and methods to increase job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Additionally, the information gathered from the current research can be used to design interventions to address discriminatory behavior toward persons with disabilities in the workplace.

This research will explore what factors influence perceptions of discrimination reported by workers with disabilities and how important organizational perceptions (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions and intentions to file a discrimination claim) are impacted. There is a lack of research on discrimination within the workplace and particularly of research focusing on the perceptions of employees with disabilities. As more and more individuals with disabilities attain gainful employment, it will become essential for companies to be aware of how each employee (including those with disabilities) perceives their organizational climate and how individuals' reactions impact organizational behaviors. Also, gaining a better understanding of how employees with disabilities feel in the workplace may help to offer solutions for the unemployment problem. Currently, there is no framework with which to predict which individual and organizational factors may influence the discrimination perceptions of employees with disabilities. This study aims to bridge this gap in research by proposing a model containing antecedents of subjective discrimination and explaining how organizational

commitment, job satisfaction and behavioral intentions may be influenced by these perceptions of discrimination.

Below, the ADA legislation is explained in more detail to ensure the reader is familiar with and has basic knowledge of the Act. After this, the paper will present predictions regarding how stereotypes toward those with disabilities impact perceptions of discrimination in the workplace. Then, a typology developed by the author is introduced to describe how individuals with distinct disabilities may have different perceptions based on characteristics of their disability. Subsequently, the impact of individual and organizational factors on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intentions to turnover and intentions to file a discrimination claim will be proposed. Lastly, the literature on workplace accommodations will be reviewed and hypotheses regarding which individual factors and characteristics of accommodations may influence an employee's likelihood of requesting an accommodation in the future will be presented.

Americans with Disabilities Act

There are 5 titles within the ADA that were designed to remove barriers in the following areas: (Title I) employment, (Title II) state and local government, (Title III) private and public accommodations, (Title IV) telecommunications, (Title V) and other miscellaneous areas, such as non-protection for those actively using illegal drugs (Hernandez, Keys, Balcazar, & Drum, 1998). The current research focuses on individuals with disabilities protected by Title 1. According to the EEOC, to be protected an individual must have a physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities, have a record of such impairment or be regarded as having

such impairment (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2009). Examples of these major life activities included in the original Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 are: hearing, seeing, speaking, walking, breathing, performing manual tasks, caring for oneself, learning and working. The Americans with Disabilities Act Amendments Act of 2008 made several slight modifications to the definition of a disability. Additional life activities that may be impacted to define a disability include: reading, bending, communicating, as well as functions of the immune system, normal cell growth, digestive, bowel, bladder, neurological, brain, respiratory, circulatory, endocrine, and reproductive functions (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission).

Title 1 of the ADA prohibits employers (with 15 or more employees) from discriminating against qualified individuals in job application procedures, hiring, firing, advancement, compensation, job training, and other terms, conditions and privileges of employment. A qualified individual is defined as one who satisfies the prerequisites for the position (e.g., educational background, experience, skills, licenses, etc.) and can perform the essential functions of the job with or without a reasonable accommodation. Additionally, if an applicant or employee needs it, a reasonable accommodation may be provided to the individual. Examples of such reasonable accommodations are: making existing facilities used by employees readily accessible to and usable by persons with disabilities, job restructuring, modifying work schedules or creating reassignments to a vacant position, acquiring or modifying equipment or devices, adjusting or modifying examinations, training materials, or policies, and providing qualified readers or interpreters. (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2009)

The law also states that while employers are required to make accommodations if requested by an employee with a disability, this requirement is null if the accommodation results in “undue hardship” for the company. Undue hardship constitutes an “action requiring significant difficulty or expense” that is determined on a case-by-case basis (and depends on factors such as, an employer’s size, financial resources, and the nature and structure of its operation; U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission).

Due to the broad coverage of the ADA, the guidelines make it difficult to: 1. determine who is protected by the act, 2. understand exactly how they are protected, 3. know what an individual needs to do to be protected, and 4. know what an organization needs to do to be protected. Consequently, while having the ADA is a step in the right direction, it cannot have the intended effect without proper implementation and unfortunately, it is not always properly implemented. Below the history behind stereotypes is presented and the manner in which stereotypes lead to workplace discrimination for employees with disabilities is discussed.

Stereotypes and Stigma

Even with the legal protection introduced decades ago, unemployment is still a problem for individuals with disabilities. One potential cause for the high rate of unemployment is negative attitudes held by members of society toward those with disabilities. Persons with disabilities are frequently stereotyped and discriminated against due to stigmas associated with their disabilities (Brown & Bradley, 2002; Livneh, 1982). As evidence of this, in 2005, it was estimated that 25% of Americans living with mental

illness would not seek mental health services because of the stigma attached to the illness (Center for Mental Health Services, 2005).

Originally the word stereotype, which was coined by a French printer, Didot, in 1878, referred to a printing process (Ashmore & Del Boca, 1981). About a century later, psychiatrists began to use the word “stereotypy” but not in reference to printing. Instead they used it to describe a pathological condition with behaviors that were repetitive and consistent. In the 1920s, Lippmann, a social scientist, concluded that each individual created a representation of their environment, called a “pseudo-environment” and he assumed that reality was too complex to be fully represented in one’s pseudo-environment. As a result, stereotypes served to simplify people’s perception and cognition. According to Ashmore and Del Boca, research in the 1930s claimed that stereotypes existed when perceivers were correct more often than would be expected by chance. Yet stereotypes were not recognized as being negative until Katz and Braly suggested they were related to prejudice in 1933.

One theory behind stereotypes related to Lippman’s conceptualization above, suggests that stereotypic beliefs are a reflection of the culture or social environment that has shaped an individual’s experience (Hamilton, 1979) and that we use stereotypes to understand and organize the events that we experience. Consequently, stereotypes can initially help us assimilate complex stimuli within our environment but can lead an individual to maintain negative perceptions of groups of people. Stigma, which is similar to stereotypes, is commonly used to describe biases against others. Originating from ancient Greece, stigma is derived from a word meaning to mark someone (Brown &

Bradley, 2002) and was used as a mark of disgrace or reproach. The stigma associated with disabilities and the stereotypes developed toward individuals with disabilities do not exist in a silo. Instead they can and do lead to discrimination throughout many facets of an individual's life, including the workplace.

While the ADA was developed to break down barriers for those with disabilities and decrease discrimination, stereotypes held by employers and coworkers can impact the way the ADA is implemented and used in practice. Organizational policies impact the treatment of employees, which then may affect not only how an employee perceives an organization and its members but can influence one's perception of oneself and in turn, one's behaviors (Ilgen & Youtz, 1986). If an organization has negative attitudes toward those with disabilities and low expectations, it can lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy, whereby those employees behave in the way predicted (Schur, Kruse, Blasi, & Blanck, 2006). Relatedly, if employees feel stigmatized or discriminated against, they may fail to work to their full potential and/or may be unwilling to ask for an accommodation that would aid their performance (Baldrige & Veiga, 2001, 2006; Braddock & Bachelder, 1994; Cleveland, Barnes-Farrell, & Ratz, 1997). Mowry and Anderson (1993) found support for the self-fulfilling prophecy in the manner of engaging in self-limiting behaviors. They found that career advancement was a common complaint by employees who were deaf. Still, they found that many of the individuals asserted themselves less in obtaining training and promotional opportunities because they perceived themselves to be limited due to their disability.

Previous research has found that on average, workers with disabilities perform as well as or better than other workers (Greenwood & Johnson, 1987) and they report higher levels of satisfaction and exhibit lower levels of turnover (Bressler & Lacy, 1980; Greenwood & Johnson) than their non-disabled counterparts. This research suggests that because employees with disabilities can and do perform successfully, more employers should consider hiring and even promoting individuals with disabilities. Colella and Varma (1999) also found results that appeared to be positive; employee performance appraisals were not negatively influenced by stereotypes about fit or by disabilities. However, supervisors' expectations concerning future performance and recommendations for future positions were lower for individuals with disabilities than for those without disabilities. This suggests that the performance of those employees with disabilities may not be poorer than other employees without disabilities. Also, supervisors may not be directly or knowingly discriminating against employees with disabilities through giving poor performance evaluations. However, one might argue that stereotypes are still negatively influencing supervisors' perceptions of those with disabilities indirectly as evidenced by having lower performance expectations and recommendations for employees with disabilities.

To further support the above argument, reviews of related research have found that when global attitudes toward workers with disabilities are assessed, they are generally positive (e.g. Christman & Slaten, 1991; J.M. Levy, Jessop, Rimmerman, Francis, & P.H. Levy, 1993). However, when more specific attitudes (e.g., hypothetical hiring decisions) are examined, they are more negative (e.g. Diksa & Rogers, 1996;

Millington, Szymanski, & Hanley-Maxwell, 1994). Hernandez, Keyes and Balcazar (2000) suggest that it has become socially appropriate for employers to demonstrate positive global attitudes toward individuals with disabilities, but in response to survey items and hypothetical scenarios, employers are less likely to endorse hiring people with disabilities than those without disabilities. This might signify that their acceptance is artificial and in an effort to appear politically correct but not indicative of their actual hiring behaviors. Additionally, employers have shown concern over associated costs of hiring someone with a disability (Matkin, 1983) and have been found to be reluctant to hire anyone they perceive to be a safety risk, which includes those with disabilities (Brown & McDaniel, 1987). Work habits of disabled employees have also reportedly been a concern of employers (Florian, 1978) and supervisors have indicated a belief that those with disabilities are absent more, work less rapidly, are less prompt, and are less productive than the non-disabled (Williams, 1972). These findings together assert that while some general attitudes toward disabilities may have improved, those original stereotypes toward individuals with disabilities have carried over into the workplace and have led to negative expectations of employers resulting in lower rates of employment.

Employment of Individuals with Disabilities

Unemployment can be a problem for any adult in the U.S., but can be particularly challenging for those living with disabilities. As presented earlier, the unemployment rate for adults with disabilities is 13.7% (Bureau of Labor Statistics, May 2009) and stereotypes toward those with disabilities still exist in the workplace and may be affecting

hiring (Hernandez et al., 2000), performance expectations and recommendations of individuals with disabilities (Collela & Varma, 1999).

Objective Discrimination

Research has demonstrated that even when individuals with disabilities do obtain jobs, they are frequently not of the same quality and offer the same perks (i.e., pay and benefits) as those employees without disabilities obtain. These applicants are frequently placed in readily available, entry level, unskilled positions (Bennefield & McNeil, 1989), where they are paid less and are less likely to receive benefits such as employer provided health insurance than non-disabled employees (Schur, 2002). Additionally, employees with disabilities are more likely to be in production and service jobs and less likely to have professional, technical or managerial jobs (Hale, Hayghe, & McNeil, 1998; Schur et al., 2006). Based on this information, one could argue that stereotypes impact the jobs that individuals with disabilities are able to obtain, not to mention the treatment they may receive once on the job.

In 1992 (the year the ADA went into effect), there were an average of 1,157 allegations of discrimination filed with the EEOC. Only 12.7% of those involved hiring or access discrimination (Braddock & Bachelder, 1994). The remaining allegations involved treatment discrimination, including: discharge, failure to provide a reasonable accommodation, harassment, discipline, layoff, rehire, benefits, promotion and wage differences (Braddock & Bachelder). According to one survey in 2002 (research conducted for the National Organization on Disability, Balser), of those participants who were full-time employees with disabilities, 30% claimed to have encountered job

discrimination due to their disability. This is evidence that treatment discrimination does exist for employees with disabilities. However, Schur (2002) found that individuals with disabilities who decided to challenge employers in a legal battle to improve their workplace opportunities rarely won their cases. Therefore, while the ADA may be improving the situations for those with disabilities, the battle is an ongoing and uphill fight. The current research aims to better understand the specific individual and organizational factors that impact perceptions of discrimination, in the hopes of providing insight to employers and individuals with disabilities to further improve this situation.

Subjective Discrimination

Much of the research surrounding the ADA has examined actual discrimination toward individuals with disabilities by reviewing discrimination claims. However, subjective perceptions of discrimination are arguably equally important if not more so. The research that has examined perceptions of discrimination has found that individuals with disabilities have reported being more closely supervised, feeling less job security, having lower levels of participation in department decisions, and receiving less formal training than their non-disabled counterparts (Schur et al., 2006). Also, according to a survey conducted for the National Organization on Disability in 1994, 47% of full-time employees with disabilities believed that their jobs did not require them to use their full talents or abilities (Balsler, 2002).

Subjective perceptions are important because an individual's own perception of whether they are being discriminated against should be more strongly related to their subsequent perceptions (i.e., organizational commitment, job satisfaction and intention to

turnover) and their behaviors, than an objective indicator of discrimination. Similarly, an individual will not be likely to file a claim of discrimination unless they perceive discrimination. Research suggests that one's own interpretation will guide later behavior in an organization which can have consequences for the employee and the organization (Gutek, Cohen, & Tsui, 1996; Kanter, 1977). For example, one study found that female employees who perceived workplace discrimination on the basis of sex were significantly more likely to plan on leaving their job in the near future (Naff, 1994). Because the current research is examining perceptions and behavioral intentions as outcomes, the predictors measured are also subjective perceptions.

Requesting Accommodations

An additional obstacle for individuals with disabilities in their effort to obtain a job is the ambiguity of the ADA and its guidelines around accommodations. Specific guidance is not given to employers on how to provide equal opportunities for those with disabilities. Furthermore, few instructions exist for individuals with disabilities to use in gaining employment and none of these relate to requesting an accommodation. Consequently, most individuals with disabilities may not know the best way to request an accommodation, if they are aware that they can request one at all.

Research has shown that there are few jobs that a qualified person with a disability cannot perform when accommodated properly (Bolick & Nestleroth, 1998). However, there is no specific definition or description of what an accommodation is or what one should look like. It is up to employees to give suggestions of what may work and an employer has to decide if it would cause undue hardship or not. It can be difficult

for an individual to determine what type of accommodation will help them and what would be acceptable to request. It may also be complicated for an employer to determine whether an accommodation would cause undue hardship. Consequently, this ambiguity may deter individuals with disabilities from requesting accommodations and even from pursuing employment.

According to a survey conducted in the mid 1990s, persons with disabilities who were working and those not working reported a need for similar types of accommodations. Some of the most common were: accessible parking or a public transit stop nearby (19%), an elevator (17%), adaptations to the work station (15%), special work arrangements (e.g., reduction in work hours, job redesign, etc., 12%), handrails or ramps (10%), specific office supplies (4%), and Braille, enlarged print, special lighting or audiotape (3%) (Loprest & Maag, 2001). Another study surveyed private sector and federal organizations on accommodations they provided and found the most commonly reported accommodations to be: modifying facilities to make them accessible, being flexible in the implementation of HR policies, restructuring jobs and work hours, modifying the work environment and making transportation accommodations (Bruyere, Erickson, & Ferrentino, 2003). Additional research has suggested other accommodations for those with disabilities, such as: exchanging computer keyboards for one with Braille letters, stationing someone in an office or cubicle closer to an exit, adding a screen to a telephone (Younes, 2001), using different equipment (computer software, phone amplifiers, etc.), switching marginal tasks with others to accommodate the disability, and

taking short breaks and leaving a little early or arriving a little later (due to transportation; Mitchell, Alliger, & Morfopoulos, 1997).

Most of the accommodations listed above would not cause undue hardship for the majority of organizations that must adhere to the ADA. However, research shows that organizations are typically afraid of accommodations and believe they will be much more expensive and timely than they truly are (e.g. Lee, 1996; Braddock & Bachelder, 1994). One study surveyed a large number of employers and found that of those respondents who had hired someone with a disability (43% of organizations), 51% said the accommodation they provided was additional supervision or training, and 49% reported that workers simply needed a part-time or modified schedule (Lee). Another important aspect of this study was the examination of accommodation costs. Although this can be a large fear for many employers, 38% of these companies reported the most expensive accommodation they had made cost \$0.00, and another 24% reported spending under \$500 for their most costly accommodation.

The current study investigates the issues surrounding accommodations further by asking employees with disabilities the number of accommodations they have requested and received, the type of accommodations they have received and the approximate employer-related costs for these accommodations. The goal is to provide a more realistic picture, at least from the perspective of employees with disabilities, about which accommodations are granted and how much employers pay for them. Additionally, the current study will investigate variables that may influence an individual's decision to

request an accommodation in the future. Expected predictors of the likelihood to make this request will be discussed in detail in future sections of the paper.

The current paper has presented past research on stereotypes toward individuals with disabilities and demonstrated how these stereotypes can evolve into direct or indirect workplace discrimination and lowered expectations for employees with disabilities. In the next section, research is described that suggests that stereotypes and discrimination may be stronger for individuals with particular types of disabilities (e.g., Fuqua, Rathbun, & Gade, 1983; Gilbride, Stensrud, Ehlers, Evans, & Peterson, 2000).

Typology of Disability Characteristics

Research has shown that individuals without disabilities sometimes avoid interacting with disabled persons by choosing other options of activities (i.e., attending a different movie with a non-disabled person; Snyder, Kleck, & Strenta, 1979). Also, research has found that people prefer more personal space when interacting with a stranger who is believed to have a disability than a stranger without a disability (Kleck, Ono, & Hastorf, 1966). More importantly, researchers have found stronger negative reactions toward individuals with disabilities that have particular characteristics (e.g., Hartlage, Roland, & Taraba, 1971; Menec & Perry, 1995, Weiner, Perry, & Magnusson, 1988) suggesting that all disabilities are not perceived as equivalent (Gouvier, Steiner, Jackson, Schlater, & Rain, 1991). The preceding research in this area has examined different characteristics of disabilities separately but up to this point these attributes have not been put together in order to create a means of categorizing them and a structure to study them. Below a typology of disability characteristics is introduced and rationale

provided for why particular characteristics have been associated with stronger negative reactions and may therefore be related to increased perceived discrimination in the workplace.

Onset Controllability

Specifically, individuals tend to act more prejudiced toward those with a disability when the disability appears to have possibly been “caused” by the person him/herself (e.g., Hebl & Kleck, 2002; G.E. Jones, 1997). This is commonly referred to as “onset controllability.” Menec and Perry (1995) gave vignettes to study participants describing individuals with disabilities and attributed these disabilities to controllable or uncontrollable factors. When the disability was ascribed to an uncontrollable factor, the participants reported less anger, more pity and a greater willingness to help the individual than when the disability was described as being onset-controllable. Other research found that participants reported having more compassion and a greater tendency toward helping others when a disability was uncontrollable (arthritis) than when it was viewed as controllable (substance abuse; Weiner et al., 1988). Similar results have been found in research conducted in the workplace (Florey & Harrison, 2000). Specifically, managers received a vignette describing an individual with a hearing disability and were asked their attitude toward an accommodation and intention to give the individual an accommodation. Onset controllability of the disability was manipulated such that in one condition the onset of the disability was perceived to be the fault of the employee and in the other condition it was uncontrollable. This influenced managers’ perceptions of the

requested accommodation. When the onset of the disability was perceived to be the fault of the employee, managers viewed the accommodation request more negatively.

Visibility

Additional research has examined the visibility of disabilities and one study found that participants were more willing to interact with a person with a visible disability (e.g., leg amputation) versus a person with an invisible disability – the prosthesis in this condition was hidden (Cacciapaglia, Beauchamp, & Howells, 2004). However, other research has found that individuals with hidden disabilities (e.g., high blood pressure, diabetes, heart disease, asthma) were rated more favorably (Gouvier et al., 1991) and were perceived to be the most comfortable to work with, compared to those with mental and visible disabilities (G.E. Jones & D.L. Stone, 1995). The latter research involved longer interactions between participants and used simulated or actual workplace experiences, whereas the first study discussed examined only a brief interaction on the street between strangers. Accordingly, the current study proposes that individuals with visible disabilities will perceive more discrimination in the workplace than those with disabilities that are not visible.

Attractiveness

Physical attractiveness has been found to work in the favor of some individuals in the workplace and in life in general (Tartaglia, McMahon, West, & Belongia, 2005). Attractive people have been perceived as having positive personality traits such as social acceptability and popularity, competence, intelligence, mental health and social adjustment (Dion, Berscheid, & Walster, 1972; Feingold, 1992). E.F. Stone, D.L. Stone

and Dipboye (1992) reported that unattractive people are disadvantaged with respect to employee selection, performance evaluations, promotions and economic success. Related research found that physical attractiveness correlated strongly with impressions regarding an interviewee's drive, leadership and teamwork skills (Burnett & Motowidlo, 1998). Even when physical attractiveness has been found to not be the most important factor in employment decisions, it has been used as the deciding factor when equally qualified employees are competing for a promotion (Hosoda, Stone-Romero, & Coats, 2003). Physical disabilities (e.g., amputations) as well as some mental disabilities (e.g., stroke) may affect one's level of attractiveness negatively. This lowered attractiveness resulting from the disability may lead to an increase in perceived workplace discrimination.

Familiarity

Disabilities that are less understood or that the public has less knowledge of may also be viewed more negatively (e.g., Gouvier, Sytsma-Jordan, & Mayville, 2003). Disabilities fitting into this category of being less well-known may primarily be mental-behavioral disabilities and these disabilities may have a stronger impact on how individuals are treated within a workplace setting. As Schott (1999, pp 161) stated, "Though our knowledge of mental disorders has greatly increased over the past few decades, managers' understanding and acceptance of the pervasiveness, treatment, and impact on organizational life has lagged behind." One research study (Gouvier et al.) asked participants to rate applicants with varying disabilities on their suitability for low complexity or high complexity jobs. A physically disabled applicant with back pain was rated the highest overall and suggested to be hired for the high complexity job. The

applicant with mental illness was rated the lowest and suggested last for a low complexity job. Back pain may be one of the most common and most familiar disabilities, while mental illness seems to be a disability that is consistently less well understood (Schott).

The difference between a disability being well-known or not could be more than whether it is physical or mental-behavioral. For instance, one research study found that elementary aged children were more positive about engaging in recreational activities (e.g., going to the movies) with a child using a wheelchair or one without a disability than with a child with an arm amputation (Woodard, 1995). A large portion of research has examined perceptions of disabilities using individuals in a wheelchair (Weiner et al., 1988), and the depiction of people with disabilities in the mainstream media is often of someone in a wheelchair. For example, popular television shows, such as Barney, have included characters in wheelchairs and some popular children's dolls, such as Barbie, have had friends in wheelchairs. There do not seem to be any dolls or television shows geared toward children with characters who have had amputations. This suggests that American adults and children are more familiar with disabilities involving the use of a wheelchair than other disabilities and may be more comfortable with those that are more familiar. While there is not an overwhelming amount of direct research on this, employees with a less familiar disability may perceive increased discrimination in the workplace than those with a more familiar or common disability.

Predictability

Employers have indicated a preference for employees who have physical impairments (e.g., paraplegia) over those with mental disorders (e.g., mentally retarded;

Hartlage & Taraba, 1971). It has been suggested that the cause of this distinction is one of predictability or stability (Fuqua et al., 1983; Weiner et al., 1988). Those with physical disabilities are seen as more consistent and their behaviors are more predictable than those with mental disorders. Weiner and colleagues also suggested that unstable disabilities (mental-behavioral) are viewed as reversible while stable disabilities (physical) are viewed as irreversible. Individuals who were mentally retarded were found to encounter the greatest amount of employer discrimination in one study (Fuqua et al., 1983), while those individuals who were epileptic or had undergone an amputation were perceived most favorably. In another study, employers' expectations of job success and ratings of fundamental and advanced skills were negatively affected by labeling an applicant with mental retardation (Millington et al., 1994; Schloss & Soda, 1989).

Relatedly, persons with mental disabilities (e.g. drug addiction, mental illness, alcoholism and mental retardation) were viewed as the least comfortable to work with (G.E. Jones & D.L. Stone, 1995) and have been found to earn lower wages than those with physical disabilities (Johnson & Lambrinos, 1987). Mental disabilities are typically perceived as being less stable and predictable than physical disabilities and consequently, individuals with these disabilities may perceive more discrimination.

Model of Perceived Workplace Discrimination

The first model presented in this paper describes how characteristics associated with one's disability, as well as other individual experiences and organizational factors will impact perceptions of workplace discrimination and how those perceptions will affect behavioral attitudes and intentions. Figure 1 visually depicts all of the relationships

hypothesized in this model. Specifically, the typology of disability characteristics and several individual and organizational characteristics are predicted to impact employees' perceptions of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions and intentions to file a discrimination claim through their impact on perceptions of discrimination.

At a broad level, a disabled individual's perception of their disability would be expected to impact their attitudes and behavioral intentions throughout their entire life. In the current model, these disability perceptions are proposed to influence organizationally relevant attitudes and intentions via the disabled individual's perception of workplace discrimination. Similarly, various disability-related individual experiences are expected to be related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions, but it is also expected that these relations will be mediated by perceived workplace discrimination. Finally, perceptions of the organizational environment relevant for disabilities are expected to be related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Again, the model predicts that the majority of the impact of these organizational factors on the outcome variables will be mediated by how much workplace discrimination an individual perceives. Below, the rationale for the relationships between each category of antecedents (e.g., the disability characteristics, individual factors, and organizational factors) and perceptions of workplace discrimination is outlined.

Typology of Disability Characteristics

Research presented above supports the framework that the extent of unfair treatment toward workers with disabilities may be influenced by type of disability (G.E.

Jones, 1997; G.E. Jones & D.L. Stone, 1995; D.L. Stone & Colella, 1996). This unfair treatment may be caused by perceptions of disabilities according to their characteristics. Specifically, factors such as the amount of onset-controllability of a disability, the visibility of it, the attractiveness of the person resulting from the disability, perceived familiarity that the general public has with the disability and the self perceived predictability of the disability will influence individual's perceptions of workplace discrimination.

H1: Employees with disabilities that have particular self perceived characteristics associated with them will be more likely to perceive workplace discrimination than those with disabilities that are not perceived by the individual to have those characteristics (detailed below).

Onset-Controllability. Disabilities viewed as “under one’s control” or “self-caused” are viewed more negatively by the public (Hebl & Kleck, 2002) and may lead to discriminatory behaviors due to the associated stigma of the cause of the disability. These are typically psychological or emotional disabilities, but depending on the injury and source sometimes physical disabilities are viewed in this way. An individual with a disability that is reportedly more “self-caused” is likely to report greater perceptions of discrimination.

H1a: Employees with disabilities that are self perceived to be “under their control” will be more likely to perceive workplace discrimination than those with disabilities they perceive are not under their control.

Visibility. Another factor to consider is that some disabilities are invisible or can be easily hidden from others while some are obvious. For example, someone in a wheelchair has an obvious disability, but an individual who has depression has an invisible disability. On the other hand, people who wear prosthetics can either let it be seen (i.e., wear shorts) or cover it (i.e., wear pants). Individuals with obvious disabilities may feel more “stigmatized” and therefore report feeling more unfair treatment than those with invisible or hidden disabilities.

H1b: Employees with disabilities that they report are visible to others will be more likely to perceive workplace discrimination than those with disabilities they report as less visible.

Attractiveness. Some physical and mental disabilities may affect the way one looks and their level of attractiveness. Not only might this influence the individual’s level of self-confidence but it can impact others’ perceptions of their competence (Dion et al., 1972) and can influence workplace decisions (E.F. Stone et al., 1992). Therefore, one’s level of attractiveness is likely to negatively influence perceptions of discrimination.

H1c: Employees with disabilities that do not affect their self perceived level of attractiveness (or affect it positively) will be less likely to perceive workplace discrimination than those with disabilities they perceive to negatively influence their level of attractiveness.

Familiarity. The nature of a disability affects its salience and so does the likely exposure that a supervisor or coworker has had with a particular disability (Colella, DeNisi & Varma, 1997). Some disabilities may be more common than others, and

therefore the non-disabled public is more comfortable with it because they understand it better and consequently view it more positively. Mental illnesses and retardation would more than likely fall in the category of being less common and of the public being less familiar, while someone in a wheelchair may be perceived as having a common disability and would as a result perceive less discrimination.

H1d: Employees with disabilities they report as being common or familiar to the general public will be less likely to perceive workplace discrimination than those who consider their disability to be uncommon or not well-known to the general public.

Predictability. Individuals with disabilities that are perceived as unstable or unpredictable are viewed more negatively than those whose disabilities are seen as predictable and consistent (Fuqua et al., 1983; Weiner et al., 1988). As Gouvier et al. (1991, p. 126) stated, “In effect, when a candidate has a simple amputation, ‘what you see is what you’ve got,’ whereas a candidate with a head injury who appears to be physically robust, may leave the potential employer with uncertainties about what behaviors and limitations are associated with this condition.” Consequently, employees who have disabilities perceived as unpredictable will report higher levels of discrimination.

H1e: Employees with disabilities they perceive as being predictable or stable will be less likely to perceive workplace discrimination than those with a disability they report as being unpredictable or unstable.

Individual Factors

The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 authorized a variety of vocational rehabilitation (VR) services for people with disabilities (Goldberg, Killeen, & O’Day, 2005). Usually these systems are state or federally funded and cost little to nothing for the users. Services provided (commonly called supported employment) can be anything from job training to career counseling to on-the-job coaching. Limited research has been conducted to examine the success of these programs and it has found that while some participants are satisfied with using VR services, others express dissatisfaction (Goldberg et al.). Despite the mixed evidence on the effectiveness of using VR, because VR counselors can and sometimes will meet with prospective employers to discuss working conditions and potential accommodations, individuals using these services may obtain employment with organizations who are more aware of the ADA and the individual’s situation, resulting in a lowered perception of workplace discrimination. Furthermore, with the help of a trained professional to find an accommodating organization, these individuals are more likely to find work with employers that are more supportive and are perceived to engage in lower levels of discrimination toward workers with disabilities.

H2: Employees with disabilities who used Vocational Rehabilitation Services to find their current employment will be less likely to perceive workplace discrimination than those who did not use VR services.

In general, it is assumed that individuals with a higher education are more productive and research has found a positive correlation between level of education and earnings (Marini, 1989). Experts on disabilities have suggested that the ADA is more beneficial for individuals with better job skills because they have the necessary resources

to counteract negative workplace consequences that result from having a disability (Burkhauser & Daly, 1996). Furthermore, research has found that the discrepancy in pay between non-disabled and disabled employees decreases as education increases (Burkhauser & Daly; Burkhauser, Haveman, & Wolfe, 1993). Additionally, educated individuals have been significantly more likely to receive an accommodation than employees with lower levels of education (Burkauser & Daly, 1996).

H3: Employees with disabilities who have completed higher levels of education will be less likely to perceive workplace discrimination than less educated employees.

Some individuals with a disability may be more familiar and knowledgeable regarding the legislation created to protect them. However, research has found that many individuals with disabilities have no knowledge of the ADA (Goldberg et al., 2005). One study found that 86% of the individuals with psychiatric disabilities participating in focus groups were unfamiliar with ADA rights to accommodations (Granger, 2000). Additional research found that of those individuals who were aware of the ADA, none of them received any information on the law from employers; instead they learned about the ADA from mental health professionals, friends and the media (Gioia & Brekke, 2003). Furthermore, the participants with no ADA knowledge had the lowest work functioning and more negative symptoms than the group of employees who had knowledge of the ADA and used its protection (by disclosing their disability and requesting accommodations; Gioia & Brekke).

Individuals with greater knowledge of the ADA may be more likely to judge or criticize an organization that does not have ADA policies or that does not treat individuals with disabilities fairly. These individuals will understand that all private employers, state and local governments and educational institutions that employ over 15 individuals (U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2009) must adhere to the guidelines of the ADA. If a company is not fulfilling these obligations, these individuals will feel wronged and discriminated against.

On the other hand, for individuals not familiar with the act, they may not realize that their organization should be complying with ADA guidelines by providing accommodations and making organizational decisions based on employee performance of essential components of the job (with or without the help of an accommodation). Employees who are not aware that the ADA protects them against discrimination in the workplace may be more lenient in their evaluations of their treatment at work.

H4: Employees with disabilities who report having greater knowledge of the ADA will be more likely to perceive workplace discrimination than those with less self reported knowledge of the ADA.

The ADA only protects those individuals with a disability who disclose the disability to their employer (Goldberg et al., 2005). Furthermore, an employee who has not disclosed previously cannot expect an accommodation and cannot use their disability as a negotiating tool after receiving a poor performance review (Gioia & Brekke, 2003). A claim of discrimination cannot be filed unless an employer is aware of an employee's disability and in turn knowingly discriminated against them (e.g., by not selecting, not

promoting or firing the individual, etc.). Limited exploration into the reasons for concealing a disability has indicated a few potential causes, such as: to preserve one's self-esteem, to avoid emotionally hurtful responses, to circumvent negative employer attitudes, and to avoid clashing with a cultural norm of not complaining (S. Allen & Carlson, 2003). Other factors found to impact one's decision to disclose are: knowledge of the ADA, experience with stigma and prejudice, and beliefs about one's job abilities (O'Day & Killeen, 2002).

This may seem irrelevant for individuals with obvious physical disabilities but for those with "invisible" disabilities, the choice of whether or not to disclose one's disability can be difficult. Even for those with physical disabilities, the choice to acknowledge their disability can influence perceptions in an interview setting (Hastorf, Wildfogel, & Cassman, 1979). Hastorf and colleagues found that when an individual with a physical disability (e.g., paraplegia) acknowledged their disability in an interview, they were perceived more positively than when there was no acknowledgement.

H5: Employees who have disclosed their disability to their employer will be less likely to perceive workplace discrimination than those who have not disclosed.

Individuals with disabilities who have been accommodated previously have more knowledge of which accommodations are appropriate for them and those that an organization is required to provide. Additionally, these individuals may understand how affordable accommodations can be and realize that their request will not cause undue hardship for their company and is likely to be granted (if the organization treats them

without discrimination). Therefore, these individuals will more critically evaluate their treatment than those employees who have no previous experience receiving an accommodation. Without this prior experience and related knowledge, employees may expect less from their organization when they have not been accommodated previously.

H6: Employees with disabilities who have previous experience receiving an accommodation will be more likely to perceive workplace discrimination than those who have not previously experienced receiving an accommodation.

Organizational Factors

There are characteristics of an organization or subunit within an organization that may influence an employee's perception of discrimination. For instance, one's perception of the climate of their organization and how friendly or open it is to those with disabilities will impact how they view the company. The knowledge that one's supervisor has of the ADA and their appropriate guidelines may impact how an employee with a disability feels they are treated by their supervisor. Additionally, the diversity of an organization or more specifically, the subunit within one works can impact perceptions of how one is treated. The manner in which these factors are predicted to impact workplace discrimination is explained below.

The idea of organizational climate was introduced in the 1960s but was based on earlier work by Lewin (1951; Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). Organizational culture became popular in the 1980s (Trice & Beyer, 1993). Some researchers, particularly culture researchers, argue that climate and culture are distinct concepts (Ostroff, Kinicki,

& Tamkins, 2003). However, many other professionals consider them to be interrelated constructs that emphasize how organizational participants experience and make sense of organizations (Schneider, 2000). Climate has been described as being employees' perceptions of what an organization is like in terms of practices, policies, procedures, routines and rewards (e.g., A.P. Jones & James, 1979). Culture has been explained as the "why" of climate. Culture is the assumptions employees have about what happens in an organization (Schein, 2000; Schneider, 2000). For the purposes of the current research, subjective perceptions of climate will be assessed; however, some of the constructs explored may be arguably related to culture as well as climate. Specifically, this research is examining employee perceptions of a disability-friendly climate.

An organization's climate and culture can impact how individual employees feel. Gilbride, Stensrud, Vandergoot, and Golden (2003) conducted a qualitative study to identify characteristics of organizations that are open to hiring and accommodating employees with disabilities. They surveyed employers, employees with disabilities and rehabilitation placement professionals and found some indicators of a supportive or what they referred to as a "disability friendly" culture. Specifically, it was reported that work cultural issues, such as having values and norms of diversity, organizational practices and policies encouraging diversity and focusing on workers' performance instead of disabilities was reflective of more open organizations.

A disability-friendly climate should be related to lowered perceptions of workplace discrimination and consequently, increased organizational commitment, job satisfaction, lower intentions to turnover and lower intentions to file a discrimination

claim. A recent study examining perceptions held by employees with disabilities found climate to have an impact on attitudes and behavioral intentions. Schur and colleagues (2006) compared two organizations on their corporate climate and examined differences between workers with and without disabilities. Perceptions of fairness were aggregated to classify the two organizations as having a “good” or “bad” climate based on an overall justice climate level. When the companies were compared in terms of attitudes and treatment, they found that for the “good” (fair treatment) company, there were no significant differences of perceptions of company fairness, treatment of employees, turnover intentions, willingness to work hard and loyalty to the company between those with and without disabilities. At the company considered the “bad worksite,” perceptions of fairness were lower, and employees with disabilities reported a greater average likelihood to turnover, less loyalty and willingness to work hard and lower levels of job satisfaction. This demonstrates that the climate of an organization can be related to attitudes of workers with disabilities. The current study proposes that the influence of climate on other attitudes and behavioral intentions will be mediated by perceptions of discrimination.

H7: Employees with disabilities working in an organization with a climate that is perceived to be more disability-friendly will be less likely to perceive workplace discrimination than those in a climate they perceive to be less disability-friendly.

The demographic composition of an organization can influence reactions to diversity and this may influence employee perceptions, particularly those of minority

members. The more differences are present (disabilities in this case), and the more integrated the organization is, the more difficult it may be to establish in-groups and out-groups (Spataro, 2005). Relational demography researchers suggest that the composition of a work group and the leader subordinate dyad is important in terms of demographic similarity (Riordan & Shore, 1997; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Previous research has looked at differences in gender, age, education, tenure and other characteristics, but has not considered similarities or dissimilarities in terms of disabilities. The current research predicts a similar effect will be found for disabilities.

Kanter, who pioneered the work on “tokenism” in 1977, predicted that an individual who shares demographic similarity with coworkers and supervisors will perceive less discrimination than someone who is the “token” in the group (Ely, 1995). Further research in this area has supported Kanter’s proposition and specifically found that when a woman has token status in a work group, both men and women exaggerate sex differences based on gender-role stereotypes (Izraeli, 1983). Relatedly, persons with disabilities are typically members of the out-group and members of out-groups do not receive the same career opportunities as in-group members due to differential relationships with supervisors (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). Consequently, it should be expected that perceptions of discrimination will be less among employees with disabilities who have coworkers or a supervisor with a disability in their work-group or department and are therefore not considered the “token” of the group.

H8: Employees with disabilities who are in a work group or department where others (coworkers or supervisors) have a disability will be less likely to

perceive workplace discrimination than those who are the token member of their group or department.

If supervisors are more knowledgeable regarding disabilities, accommodations and the ADA, individuals with disabilities may be treated with less discrimination. Managers and front-line supervisors in particular need to be aware of the ADA and guidelines of providing accommodations as many organizations rely on managers to negotiate reasonable accommodations with their employees (Gerber & Price, 2003). For workers with disabilities whose supervisor has been trained and is aware of disabilities and the ADA, less discrimination should be reported.

H9: Employees with disabilities who report that their supervisor is knowledgeable regarding the ADA will be less likely to perceive workplace discrimination than those working with supervisors who they report are not knowledgeable of the ADA.

Perceived Workplace Discrimination

Evidence that discrimination toward individuals with disabilities exists has been given throughout this paper (e.g., Cacciapaglia et al., 2004; Hebl & Kleck, 2002; Millington et al., 1994). The impact that workplace discrimination can have on organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover should be of concern to employers and researchers. However, Schur and colleagues (2006) were among the first to examine perceptions held by individuals with disabilities in the workplace. They found that perceptions of a disability-friendly climate influenced one's likelihood to turnover, level of job satisfaction and reported willingness to work hard. The study did not explore

individual differences, such as distinctions between types of disabilities, even though evidence presented in this paper suggests that these differences may influence discrimination. More importantly, the study did not examine which specific organizational factors influence workers' perceptions of discrimination and how subjective discrimination affects other attitudes. The present research will extend our knowledge of employees with disabilities by building on the previous research and by exploring many factors that have been overlooked by researchers in the past.

In a study examining perceptions of workplace discrimination held by gay and lesbian employees (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001) it was discovered that supportive organizational policies and having coworkers who were of the same sexual orientation were negatively related to perceived discrimination. Also, Ragins and Cornwell reported that perceptions of discrimination at work were strongly related to turnover intentions, organizational commitment, career commitment, organizational self-esteem, job satisfaction, opportunities for promotion and promotion rate. This indicates the importance of examining perceived workplace discrimination and its effect on important organizational outcomes. As a result, this paper proposes that increased perceptions of discrimination will lead to lower organizational commitment, lower job satisfaction, increased intentions to turnover and increased intentions to file a claim of discrimination.

H10: Employees with disabilities who perceive greater workplace discrimination will be more likely to report negative attitudes and behavioral intentions.

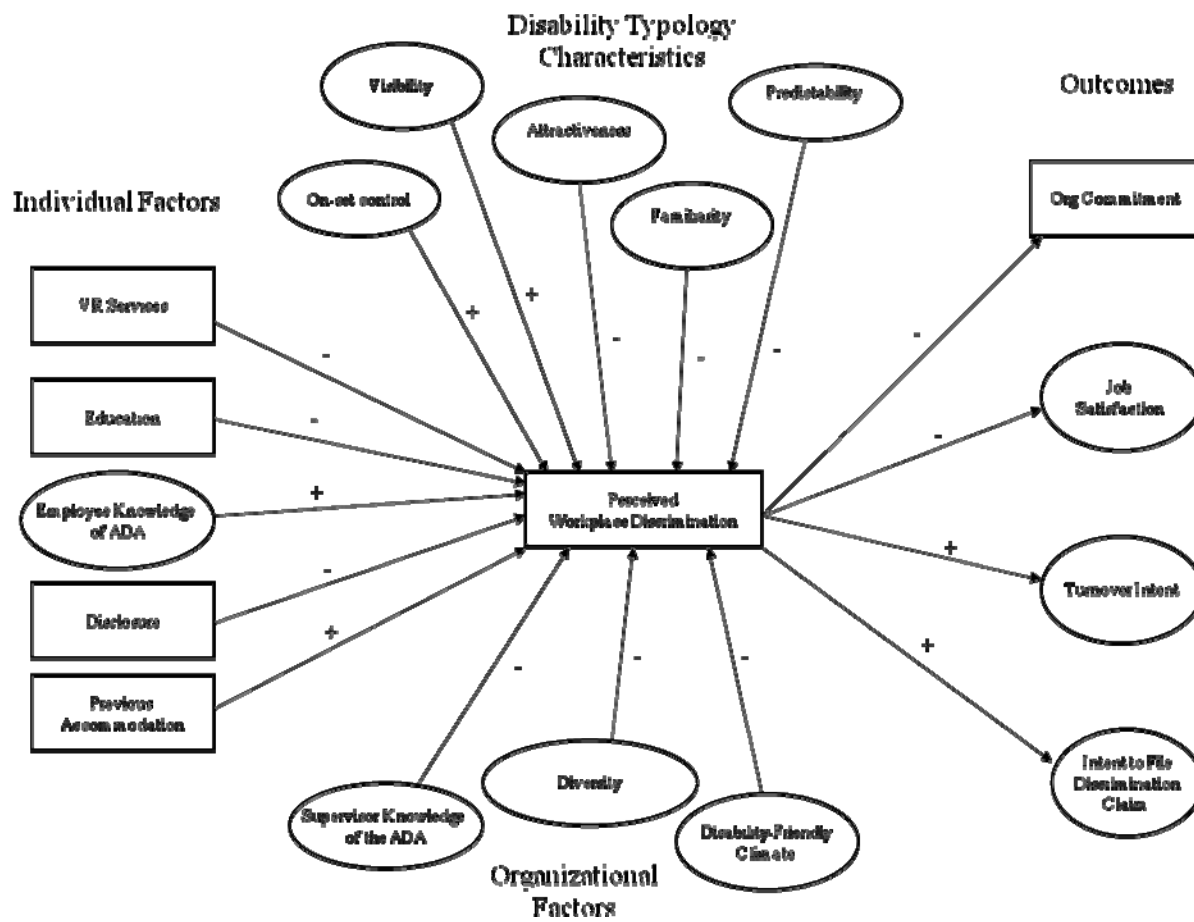
H10a: **Employees with disabilities who perceive greater workplace discrimination will be less likely to report higher levels of organizational commitment.**

H10b: **Employees with disabilities who perceive greater workplace discrimination will be less likely to report higher levels of job satisfaction.**

H10c: **Employees with disabilities who perceive greater workplace discrimination will be more likely to report greater intentions to turnover.**

H10d: **Employees with disabilities who perceive greater workplace discrimination will be more likely to report greater intentions to file a discrimination claim.**

Figure 1. Hypothesized Structural Model of Perceived Workplace Discrimination



Model of Accommodation Request Likelihood

One major factor surrounding the lack of employment of those with disabilities may be the difficulty in maintaining a job once it is obtained (Braddock & Bachelder, 1994). Adults who have disabilities do not necessarily end their employment struggles the minute they land a job. For some of them, it continues to be a daily challenge to ensure that they are able to perform adequately and keep their employment. This may be in part because many of these employees need accommodations to do their job successfully but they do not ask for accommodations either because they are not aware that they can or do not know what reasonable accommodation could help them. Another potential reason is that they are not granted those accommodations for which they ask. Therefore, one of the current research questions is to explore if there are certain individuals who are more willing to ask for an accommodation and to learn what accommodations are most frequently received.

Providing accommodations can present challenges for an organization apart from financial costs (Schur, Kruse, & Blanck, 2005). Negative reactions may result from coworkers who resent the “special treatment” that is given to those with disabilities. Coworker reactions are important considering that some accommodations may require their cooperation and support (e.g., job restructuring, shifting schedules). Colella, Paetzold and Belliveau (2004) created a model of procedures that coworkers may engage in to make inferences about the procedural justice of accommodating a worker with a disability. The model includes organizational factors such as, history of accommodations, job flexibility, norms, standardization of procedures, training on accommodations, training on the ADA

and coworker voice. Also, individual factors may be considered such as, perceived cause of the disability, personal concern for social justice, contact with persons with disabilities and perceived organizational support. Furthermore, Colella et al. (2004) suggested that coworkers consider procedural justice rules such as: voice, consistency, bias suppression, accuracy, correctability, ethicality, interactional justice and informational justice. The main downfall of this model is that it cannot easily be ethically tested in a field study.

Colella (2001) also developed a model of when and how coworkers judge the distributive justice of workplace accommodations and employees with disabilities. Basically, she suggested that coworkers consider the salience of the accommodation, the relevance (will it impact the coworker), the equity of the accommodation, and the need for the accommodation. As it is difficult, if not impossible, to obtain a sample of coworkers of employees with disabilities, the current study will explore workers with disabilities' own perceptions of when they are likely to request an accommodation.

Baldrige and Veiga (2001) proposed a model of accommodation request likelihood; they suggested that specific factors relevant to an organization, the particular disability and the situation influence how likely an employee with a disability is to request an accommodation. Specifically, they proposed that features such as the culture of the organization (if they tend to accommodate), the magnitude of the accommodation, the perceived usefulness of the accommodation, onset controllability of a disability, perceived fairness, anticipated compliance and perceived help-seeking appropriateness would influence one's likelihood of requesting an accommodation. One goal of the current research is to explore Baldrige and Veiga's model to determine if some of these

factors are related to an individual being more likely to request an accommodation. As the participants being surveyed are currently employed and may be presently receiving an accommodation, they will be asked about their perceptions of a future accommodation they may request in a future job. Due to the choice of having participants focus on a future job, organizational factors cannot be investigated. Therefore, individual variables and features of a potential accommodation are proposed to influence their likelihood of requesting an accommodation in the future. Figure 2 depicts the hypotheses for this model.

Typology of Disability Characteristics

One characteristic related to an individual's disability, onset-controllability, has been suggested in previous research (Baldrige & Veiga, 2001) to influence one's likelihood to request an accommodation. However, because other characteristics of a disability may also be related and were included in the previous model of workplace discrimination, they will also be included in this model. The hypotheses regarding the influence of these characteristics are similar to the predictions made for Model 1. However, the direction of the prediction is different for the visibility of the disability than it was in Model 1. It was previously suggested that those with a disability that is more visible will be more likely to perceive workplace discrimination. Here, it will be predicted that individuals with a disability that is more visible will be more likely (as opposed to less likely) to request an accommodation. This is because if the disability is visible it is likely the employer/manager is aware of it already and the individual may

therefore feel more comfortable asking for an accommodation because they do not have to disclose their disability as part of the request.

H11: Employees with disabilities that have particular self perceived characteristics associated with it will be more likely to request an accommodation in the future than those with disabilities that do not have the characteristics listed below.

H11a: Employees with disabilities that they perceive to be “under their control” will be less likely to request an accommodation than those with a disability not perceived to be under their control.

H11b: Employees with disabilities they report as being visible to others will be more likely to request an accommodation than those with a disability they report as being invisible to others.

H11c: Employees with disabilities that do not affect their level of self perceived attractiveness (or affect it positively) will be more likely to request an accommodation than those with a disability that negatively influences their level of self perceived attractiveness.

H11d: Employees with disabilities that they consider to be more common or familiar to the general public will be more likely to request an accommodation than those with a disability they perceive to be uncommon or less familiar to others.

H11e: **Employees with disabilities they perceive to be predictable or stable will be more likely to request an accommodation than those with a disability they perceive to be unpredictable or unstable.**

Individual Factors

The individual factors (use of VR services, level of education, knowledge of the ADA, disclosure of disability and previous experience with accommodations,) proposed previously to impact perceptions of workplace discrimination are also predicted to influence one's likelihood of requesting an accommodation.

The use of Vocational Rehabilitation Services may impact one's likelihood to request an accommodation because one aspect of a VR counselor's job can be to help determine an appropriate accommodation for a client with an organization. Consequently, it is likely that one is more willing to request an accommodation because of the knowledge and guidance they receive through using VR services.

H12: **Employees with disabilities who use VR services will be more likely to plan to request an accommodation in the future than those who have not used VR services.**

Level of education may also positively impact one's likelihood to request an accommodation. Research has found that individuals with higher levels of education are more likely to receive an accommodation than those with less education (Burkhauser & Daly, 1996) suggesting that these individuals are more willing to make the request.

H13: Employees with disabilities who have completed higher levels of education will be more likely to plan to request an accommodation in the future than those who have not completed higher levels of education.

Individuals with specific knowledge of the ADA and their protection under the law will be more likely to ask for an accommodation, as they know it is their right to do so.

H14: Employees with disabilities who have knowledge of the ADA will be more likely to plan to request an accommodation in the future than those who are largely unfamiliar with the ADA.

Employees who have disclosed their disability to their current employer should be more willing to do so in the future. If one discloses their disability, it is reasonable to assume it is done as a precursor to a request for some type of accommodation. Therefore, when one reports disclosing their disability, they will be more likely to request an accommodation in the future.

H15: Employees who have disclosed their disability will be more likely to plan to request an accommodation in the future than those who have not disclosed their disability.

Individuals who have requested and received an accommodation in the past may believe they have the need for an accommodation and will know what accommodation has worked for them previously. As a result, these individuals will be more likely to request an accommodation in the future.

H16: Employees with disabilities who have had the experience of being provided with an accommodation will be more likely to plan to request an accommodation in the future than those who have not had the experience of being provided an accommodation in the past.

Perception of Future Accommodation

Characteristics of an accommodation itself should impact how likely one is to request it (Baldrige & Veiga, 2001). First of all, an individual must have an idea of what accommodation would be helpful for them in order to consider making a request. As discussed previously, one explanation for the lack of accommodation requests may be that individuals with disabilities are not aware of what appropriate accommodations would help them in their job. Thus, employees with knowledge of an accommodation appropriate for them should be more likely to request it.

H17: Employees with disabilities who have knowledge of an appropriate accommodation for them will be more likely to plan to request an accommodation than those who do not have knowledge of an appropriate accommodation.

According to Baldrige and Veiga (2001), the magnitude and perceived usefulness of a considered accommodation should impact one's decision to request it. Specifically, an employee will be more likely to request an accommodation when they believe it is small in magnitude and will be useful to them on their job.

H18: Employees with disabilities who report needing an accommodation of a reasonable magnitude (not too large) will be more likely to plan to request an

accommodation than those who report needing an accommodation that may be considered as too large.

H19: Employees with disabilities who view an accommodation as more useful will be more likely to plan to request an accommodation than those who feel the accommodation would be relatively less useful.

Additionally, Baldrige and Veiga suggested that how others perceive the accommodation will impact an employee's decision to request it. Specifically, they proposed that anticipated compliance with the request, the perception of fairness by co-workers and the perceived help-seeking appropriateness will impact the likelihood of a request.

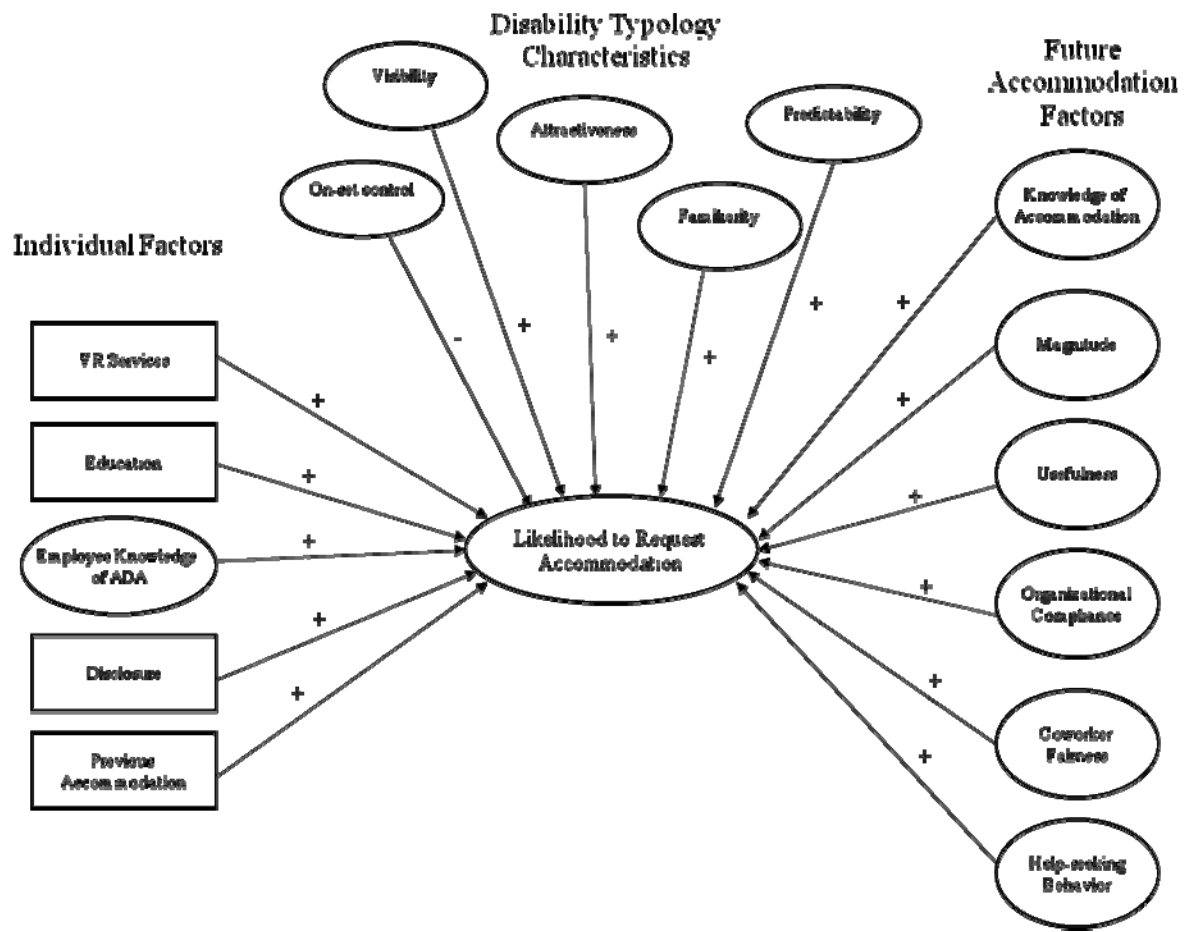
H20: Employees with disabilities who anticipate compliance from the organization (for the accommodation) will be more likely to plan to request an accommodation than if the employee does not anticipate compliance from the organization.

H21: Employees with disabilities who believe their accommodation would be perceived fairly by coworkers will be more likely to plan to request an accommodation than those who believe their accommodation would be perceived less fairly by coworkers.

H22: Employees with disabilities who believe their accommodation request would be perceived as appropriate help-seeking behavior will be more likely to plan to request an accommodation than those who do not believe that their

accommodation request would be perceived as appropriate help-seeking behavior.

Figure 2. Hypothesized Structural Model of Accommodation Request Likelihood



CHAPTER TWO

METHOD

Participants

The target sample for the current study was employed adults with disabilities. Many of these participants are members of an organized association for individuals with disabilities, such as the National Council for Support of Disability Issues or members of an organization geared toward supporting those with a specific type of disability, such as The Associated Blind, Inc., or the National Alliance on Mental Illness. Some participants were contacted by the organization of which they are a member (The Associated Blind) and were asked to complete the survey on-line, others saw the link to the survey while visiting their organization's web-site.

One hundred and sixty three participants completed all or part of the survey. The mean age of these participants was 44, with a range from 19 to 63 years. The average number of years that the participants had been diagnosed with a disability was 19, but this ranged from 1 to 60 years. The majority of participants were female (71.4%; 28.6% male), white (85.7%; 7.1% black; 0.7% Asian; 6.4% other) and of non-Hispanic origin (92.9%; 7.1% Hispanic). There was a broad range of education levels for participants, with 10.7% having completed high school, 27.1% completed some college, 25% had a college degree, 11.4% had completed some graduate work and 25.7% had an advanced degree.

Of those who reported a specific diagnosis (4 reported with no answer), 40.4% provided only 1 diagnosis; while the rest reported multiple diagnoses, with 19% reporting

3 or more diagnoses. Of those diagnoses listed, the majority can be classified as: Diseases of the Nervous System (16.0%), Musculoskeletal System and Connective Tissue Diseases (14.2%), Mood Disorders (13.5%), or Anxiety Disorders (10.1%). Those diagnoses listed least frequently and by only one individual are: Sleep Disorders, Dissociative Disorders, Diseases of the Digestive System, Diseases of the Skin and Subcutaneous Tissue, Genitourinary System Diseases and Nutritional Diseases. All of the diagnoses reported by participants were classified according to the American Psychiatric Association (DSM-IV; 2000) or the World Health Organization (ICD-10; 2007). For a listing of all diagnoses by frequency and their relevant categorizations, see Table 1.

Table 1. Diagnoses Reported and Categories of Disabilities (listed in order of frequency).

Categorization	Diagnoses Reported
Diseases of the Nervous System	Chronic Fatigue Syndrome Multiple Sclerosis Paralysis Cerebral Palsey Muscular Dystrophy Carpal Tunnel Parkinson’s Disease Seizure Disorder Stroke Syringomyelia ALS
Musculoskeletal System and Connective Tissue Diseases	Arthritis Fibromyalgia Scoliosis Sjogren's
Mood Disorders Anxiety Disorders	Mood Disorder Anxiety Disorder PTSD
Learning Disability Endocrine Diseases	Learning Disability Diabetes Hypothyroidism
Diseases of the Ear and Mastoid Process	Hearing Impairment Balance Disorder
Attention Deficit and Disruptive Behavior Disorders	ADHD
Diseases of the Eye and Adnexa	Blindness / Sight Impairment
Congenital Malformations, Deformations, and Chromosomal Abnormalities	Spina Bifida Clubfoot Ehlers Danlos Syndrome Hip Dysplasia
Substance-Related Disorders Eating Disorders	Substance Abuse Eating Disorder
Diseases of the Respiratory System	Asthma COPD
Diseases of the Circulatory System	Heart Disease Raynaud's
Pervasive Developmental Disorder	Autism / Aspergers
Schizophrenia and other Psychotic Disorders	Schizophrenia
Neoplasms	Cancer
Diseases of the Musculoskeletal System and Connective Tissue	Bursitis Dupuytren's contracture
Certain Infectious and Parasitic Diseases	Polio
Sleep Disorders	Sleep Apnea
Nutritional Diseases	Pernicious Anemia
Genitourinary System Diseases	Interstitial Cystitis
Dissociative Disorders	Dissociative Identity Disorder
Diseases of the Digestive System	IBS
Diseases of the Skin and Subcutaneous Tissue	Lupus

Of those participants who provided their job title and/or industry of employment (7 did not answer this question in a meaningful manner), the majority had occupations that can be categorized according to the US Department of Labor (O*Net Online; 2009) into the following job families: Office and Administrative Support (18%), Education, Training and Library (15.8%) or Community and Social Services (15%).

Procedure

An anonymous survey tool was created for this data collection and contained primarily multiple choice questions with a few open ended questions. Most participants in this study completed the survey after seeing the link on their organization's web-site. Some may have participated after having the link to the survey sent to them from a member of one of the above organizations or from the organization itself. The survey took approximately 20 to 45 minutes to complete. As an incentive, participants were invited to enter themselves into a pool for several drawings of \$10 by emailing the researcher after completing the study. Twenty percent of those participants who contacted the researcher regarding the drawing were selected as winners and received \$10.

Measures

All items discussed below are measured on a 5 point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree unless otherwise noted. Also, due to the lack of prior research in the area and the new constructs being assessed, most scales used in the current study were developed by the author. All items are included in the Appendix.

Typology of Disability Characteristics

Onset-controllability of the disability was measured with 3 items and a sample item is “The development of my disability is under my control.” Visibility of the disability was measured with 4 items developed by the author. A sample item is “My disability is easily visible to others.” Appearance was assessed by 2 items developed for this study and an example is “My disability has made me less physically attractive.” Familiarity of the disability was assessed by 3 items. An example is: “My disability is common.” Predictability of the disability was measured with 6 items, and a sample item is “My disability is stable over time.”

Individual Factors

Use of Vocational Rehabilitation Services was assessed with 2 dichotomous items, “Did you use Vocational Rehabilitation Services to obtain your current job?” and “Are you currently using Vocational Rehabilitation Services?” Disclosure of disability was assessed with 1 dichotomous item and 1 continuous item. They are, “I have told my current employer/manager what disability I have.” and “My employer knows what disability I have.” The responses to these two items were standardized (by converting them to z-scores) and averaged to form a composite scale. Prior experience with accommodations was measured with 1 item, “How many times have you received an accommodation?” Subjective employee knowledge of the ADA was assessed with 5 items, one being, “I understand the ADA.” Objective knowledge was also measured with a short test consisting of 6 multiple choice questions. An example question is “The ADA prohibits discrimination in ___ employment practices”. The optional responses for this question are: some, most, all, no, and 5. Percentages correct of the ADA quiz were

compared to subjective perceptions of ADA knowledge but the objective test responses were not included in the predicted model as they were not a focus of the current research.

Organizational Factors

Supervisor knowledge of the ADA was assessed with 3 items, one being, “My supervisor is knowledgeable about the ADA.” Workplace diversity was measured with 2 items. An example item is, “My supervisor and/or coworkers in my group or department have a disability.” Disability-friendly climate was assessed with 8 items developed by the author. Example items are, “My organization values diversity” and “My organization is supportive towards all employees.”

Perceived Workplace Discrimination

Subjective workplace discrimination was measured with the Workplace Prejudice / Discrimination Inventory developed by James, Lovato, and Cropanzano (1994). High reliabilities (Cronbach’s alpha = .93) and a one factor structure with high factor loadings (e.g., >.60) were reported by James et al. for this inventory. The original scale was created to measure racial and/or ethnic discrimination towards minority members; therefore some of the items were slightly modified to reflect discrimination towards individuals with disabilities. There are 15 items and an example item is, “I have sometimes been unfairly singled out because of my disability.”

Model 1 Outcomes

Organizational commitment was assessed with the Affective Commitment Scale developed by N.J. Allen and Meyer (1990). Allen and Meyer created 3 scales measuring 3 different types of organizational commitment; affective commitment, normative

commitment and continuance commitment. They define affective commitment as identification with, involvement in, and emotional attachment to the organization. Continuance commitment refers to commitment based on recognition of the costs associated with leaving the company. Normative commitment is described as commitment based on a sense of obligation to the company. Affective commitment was measured in this study as it is expected to have the most direct relationship with perceived discrimination and other organizational perceptions, as the other types of commitment may be influenced more by external forces (e.g., needing to keep a job for the salary, feeling obligated to the employer because of a family relationship, etc.) According to a meta-analysis conducted by Allen and Meyer (1996), the Affective Commitment Scale has been reported to have high reliabilities (median $r = .85$) across more than 40 employee samples and was consistently found to represent 1 factor. The Affective Commitment Scale consists of 8 items and a sample item is, "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization."

Job Satisfaction was measured with 3 items assessing overall job satisfaction (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983). A sample item is, "In general, I don't like my job." Intent to turnover was measured with 3 items developed by the author, one being, "I plan on quitting my job in the near future." Intent to file a discrimination claim was assessed with 2 items, also developed by the author, one being, "I plan to file a discrimination claim against my employer."

Accommodation Request Likelihood

Due to the lack of research on factors that influence one's likelihood to request an accommodation, the following measures were all created by the author. The knowledge of an appropriate accommodation was assessed with 2 items, one being, "I know what accommodation I would ask for in my next job." Magnitude of accommodation was measured with two items. A sample is, "The accommodation I would ask for is not too large." The usefulness of an accommodation was measured with 4 items. A sample item is, "This accommodation would be essential for me to perform my job effectively." Anticipated compliance of the organization was measured with 4 items, one being, "I am confident the organization would provide me with this accommodation." The appropriateness of the help-seeking behavior was assessed with 2 items. A sample item is, "Others in my workgroup would feel that it was appropriate of me to ask for an accommodation." The perceived fairness of the accommodation by coworkers was measured with 3 items. One item is, "This accommodation would be perceived by my coworkers as fair." Likelihood to request a future accommodation was measured with 3 items developed by the author. A sample item is, "I plan to request an accommodation for my next job."

CHAPTER THREE

DATA ANALYSIS

Structural Equation Modeling, utilizing the EQS 6.1 software, was used to analyze the models presented above. First, the measurement models for both Model 1 and Model 2 were examined and modified until appropriate fit was obtained. Next, the structural models were analyzed for which the results are described below.

Data Cleaning

Initially 163 individuals completed part or all of the survey. Twenty three of these cases were deleted for several reasons: 7 cases were deleted because the individuals reported being unemployed, and 16 cases were deleted due to having a large amount of missing data (missing at least one entire scale). Therefore, 140 cases were involved in all of the following analyses.

Outlier Analyses

First, descriptive statistics were run on all variables and z-scores were computed for all items. Skewness and kurtosis were examined and 1 item was deleted due to having high skewness (-3.39) and kurtosis (15.11). The item (My disability is temporary) was taken out of the Predictability of Disability Scale, leaving 5 items in this scale. Skewness and kurtosis for all other items were within the normal range (skewness between 3 and -3 and kurtosis lower than 3). Next, multivariate outlier analyses were conducted with all items to ensure that none had disproportionate influence on the results. This was determined by examining Mahalanobis Distance which identifies cases with patterns of responses outside of the normal range of responses. No cases were identified as outliers based on a Mahalanobis Distance critical value of 137 (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001).

Data Imputation

In order to examine the predicted models using Structural Equation Modeling, none of the cases can contain missing data. Before imputing any missing data, the standard MCAR test (Little, 1988) was conducted in EQS to determine if the missing data was missing completely at random. According to the MCAR test, [Chi Square ($df =$

7109) = 7133.5, $p = .416$] the data was missing completely at random. As a result, the Expectation Maximization (EM) method was used to impute the missing data. There were 85 variables included in the initial imputation effort with 140 cases. Three hundred twenty five data points were missing, resulting in 2.73% of the total possible data points (11,900) being imputed. After this initial imputation, descriptive statistics were examined and some variables were found to have values outside of the scale range (1-5). To be specific, 14 variables had values outside of the scale range (e.g., 0, 8, etc.) and many of these (8) were negatively worded items (e.g., In general I don't like my job). Of those 325 data points imputed, 44 (13.5%) were outside of the scale range. It was determined that the non-normal values may have been the result of participants not fully understanding the negatively worded items and responding inappropriately to those.

Due to this, only the positively worded items were included in an imputation effort (which now consisted of 56 variables and 102 missing data points resulting in 1.3% of the positive data points being imputed). Again, descriptive statistics were examined after the imputation and again 4 variables were found to have values outside of the scale range. These values were substituted with values within the scale range and the negatively worded items were then imputed. This final imputation effort consisted of the 29 remaining variables and 223 missing data points, resulting in 5.5% of the data points for negatively worded items being imputed. After this imputation, there were 64 values outside of the scale range that were substituted with values within the scale range. These cases were then tracked throughout the completion of the analyses to ensure they did not have extreme influence on the Normalized Estimate of Kurtosis for the model.

Measurement Model Fit

Model 1

The majority of constructs in Model 1 are reflective factors and thus are included in the measurement model. Those constructs not included are: education (which was measured with 1 item), VR Services (which was assessed with 2 dichotomous items), disclosure (which was assessed with 1 dichotomous item and 1 continuous item), and previous accommodation (which was measured with 1 item).

The measurement model was initially built with all those constructs identified as reflective but two of the scales (Workplace Prejudice / Discrimination Inventory and the Affective Commitment Scale) were found to present problems. Many of the items in the Workplace Prejudice / Discrimination Inventory were highly related to each other due to the wording of the items (positive or negative connotations) and a few items were highly related to items in other scales and loaded on other factors. Due to the extant research in this area reporting high reliability and a good single factor structure for this inventory, it was decided to model the Inventory as an observed score.

Many of the items in the Affective Commitment Scale were also highly related to each other due to the positive and negative wording of the questions. A two factor solution fit the data better than one factor (factor 1 comprised of negatively worded items and factor 2 positively worded items). However, there was still some cross-loading between the suggested 2 factors and one item had a very low loading. Due to the volume of research that has reported a good factor structure for this scale, it was determined to model this scale as an observed score.

The rest of the measures were modeled as single reflective latent factors. A couple of the original items were dropped due to high correlations with other items and poor wording and a few covariances were added where relationships between items existed. In the end all loadings were significant and at least moderately high in the final model (see Table 2). The Visibility of Disability Scale gave the appearance of a two factor scale due to having two of the items positively worded and two negatively worded. Dividing this scale into two factors did not make conceptual sense and adding error covariances did not improve the fit substantially, so the two negative items were dropped from the scale, leaving two items. According to the LaGrange Multiplier (LM) Test several error covariances between items were missing in the model and once they were added, fit was significantly improved. One within factor error covariance was added in the Employee Knowledge of ADA Scale and three within factor error covariances were added within the Disability-Friendly Climate Scale due to similar wording in the items. Additionally, one error covariance was added between an item in the Diversity Scale and an item in the Intent to File Scale. This cross factor error covariance was added because it caused a significant change in the Chi Square value and each factor only consisted of 2 items so the items could not be dropped from the scales.

All factor covariances were modeled. Model fit ($N=140$) was calculated with Robust estimations due to the moderate multivariate kurtosis (normalized estimate = 8.86). Model fit was at an adequate level: model Chi Square = 1148.56, with 837 degrees of freedom ($p<.001$), CFI= .92, RMSEA= .052 (90% confidence interval = .044, .059).

Table 2. Model 1 Standardized Factor Loadings and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Factor	Item Loadings (in order of survey appearance)						AVE
Disability Typology Traits							
1. Onset Controllability	.72	.46	.85				.48
2. Visibility (excluding items 2 & 3)	.95	.66					.67
3. Attractiveness	.86	.95					.82
4. Familiarity	.48	.71	.74				.43
5. Predictability (excluding item 1)	.50	.44	.64	.61	.51		.30
Individual Factors							
6. Employee Knowledge of ADA	.58	.82	.98	.96	.87		.73
Organizational Factors							
7. Diversity	.91	.88					.80
8. Supervisor Knowledge of ADA	.92	.99	.90				.88
9. Climate	.74	.80	.68	.88	.83	.88	.66
Outcome Variables							
10. Job Satisfaction	.83	.70	.88				.65
11. Turnover Intentions	.94	.73	.90				.74
12. Intent to File	.98	.60					.66

Note: All factor loadings are significant.

Model 2

Many of the scales used in Model 2 were also previously included in Model 1. The additional factors involved in this model are considered reflective latent factors and were used to build the second measurement model. Again a few of the original items were dropped due to low loadings, high correlations with other items or poor wording of the item, however, all loadings were significant and at least moderately high in the final model (see Table 3). Two of the 4 items were dropped from the Anticipated Compliance of Organization Scale due to item content. The items in the scale were functioning as two factors, but because this did not make theoretical sense the two items that seemed less relevant to the construct were dropped from the scale. According to the LM test,

covariances were needed within a couple of scales and across scales. An error covariance was added within the Employee Knowledge of the ADA Scale and within the Predictability of Disability Scale due to similar wording. Also an error covariance was added to items across the Help-Seeking Behavior Scale and Coworker Fairness Scale due to close similarity in the wording of the items. Last an error covariance was added between an item in the Magnitude of Accommodation Scale and an item in the Likelihood to Request an Accommodation Scale. While there is no strong conceptual reason for this covariance, adding it improved the fit of the model substantially.

All factor covariances were modeled. Model fit ($N=140$) was calculated with Robust estimations due to the moderate multivariate kurtosis (normalized estimate = 13.3). Model fit was at an acceptable level: model Chi Square = 761.67, with 584 degrees of freedom ($p<.001$), CFI= .92, RMSEA= .047 (90% confidence interval = .037, .056).

Table 3. Model 2 Standardized Factor Loadings and Average Variance Extracted (AVE)

Factor	Item Loadings (in order of survey appearance)					AVE
Disability Typology Traits						
1. Onset Controllability	.64	.40	.96			.49
2. Visibility (excluding items 2 & 3)	.88	.71				.64
3. Attractiveness	.85	.97				.82
4. Familiarity	.47	.73	.74			.43
5. Predictability (excluding item 1)	.79	.34	.50	.77	.42	.35
Individual Factors						
6. Employee Knowledge of ADA	.58	.82	.97	.96	.88	.73
Perception of Future Accommodation						
7. Knowledge of Accommodation	.82	.84				.69
8. Magnitude of Accommodation	.57	.48				.28
9. Usefulness of Accommodation	.85	.75	.76	.56	.90	.55
10. Organizational Compliance (excluding items 3 & 4)	.90	.80				.73
11. Coworker Fairness	.90	.82	.63			.62
12. Help-Seeking Behavior	.88	.85				.74
Outcome Variable						
13. Likelihood to Request	.77	.25	.68			.37

Note: All factor loadings are significant.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

The ranges, means, standard deviations and internal consistency reliabilities for each measure in the study are provided in Table 4. Only those items retained in the final measurement models were included. The means, standard deviations and range were calculated using the observed scores (means) for those items included within each scale. The internal consistency reliability for each scale was calculated with the Cronbach's alpha statistic.

Table 4. Range, Means, Standard Deviations and Cronbach's Alpha

Measure	Range	Mean	SD	Cronbach's Alpha
Disability Characteristics Typology				
1. Onset Controllability	1.00-5.00	2.27	.98	.71
2. Visibility	1.00-5.00	2.68	1.37	.77
3. Attractiveness	1.00-5.00	3.07	1.33	.90
4. Familiarity	1.00-5.00	2.46	.86	.66
5. Predictability	1.00-4.80	2.84	.80	.67
Individual Factors				
6. Emp. Knowledge of ADA	1.00-5.00	3.58	1.06	.93
7. Education Level*	2.00-6.00	4.14	1.36	-
8. VR Services*	1.00-2.00	1.83	.31	-
9. Disclosure*	-1.60-1.58	-.01	.40	-
10. Previous Accommodation	0.00-10.00	1.34	1.78	-
Organizational Factors				
11. Diversity	1.00-5.00	2.15	1.15	.89
12. Sup. Knowledge of ADA	1.00-5.00	2.89	1.19	.95
13. Climate	1.00-5.00	2.63	1.10	.94
Mediator				
14. Perceived Discrimination	1.00-4.73	2.63	.94	.93
Outcomes				
15. Organizational Commitment	1.00-4.88	2.67	.94	.85
16. Job Satisfaction	1.00-5.00	3.05	1.20	.85
17. Turnover Intentions	1.00-5.00	3.16	1.27	.89
18. Intent to File	1.00-5.00	2.74	1.27	.74
19. Request Likelihood	1.00-5.00	3.16	.84	.51
Perceptions of Accommodation				
20. Knowledge of Accom	1.00-5.00	3.63	1.00	.82
21. Magnitude of Accom	1.00-5.00	3.49	.79	.33
22. Usefulness of Accom	1.27-5.00	3.93	.76	.81
23. Organizational Compliance	1.00-5.00	2.81	1.15	.84
24. Perceived Fairness	1.00-5.00	3.24	.99	.83
25. Help-seeking Behavior	1.00-5.00	3.40	1.04	.85

Note: Education level was measured on a continuous scale, VR Services was measured with 2 dichotomous items and Disclosure was measured with 1 dichotomous item and 1 categorical item, the composite scale is a standardized mean of the items

The range for most variables fell within the scale range of 1-5, with the exception of those variables not measured using the Likert type scale (i.e., education level, VR Services, disclosure, previous accommodation). Most of the means were close to the midpoint of the scale. The average rating for employee knowledge of the ADA was higher than the midpoint, indicating that most of the sample felt they had adequate knowledge of the ADA. Additionally, the level of education was higher than the midpoint which means that the average respondent has completed college.

When looking at the perceptions of a future accommodation, many of the means are higher than the midpoint. This suggests that, in general individuals felt that they had knowledge of an appropriate accommodation, the magnitude of the accommodation was appropriate, the accommodation would be useful, it would be perceived fairly by coworkers and respondents believed that others would think requesting the accommodation was an appropriate help-seeking behavior. Additionally, the average likelihood to request an accommodation was higher than the midpoint and the intent to file a discrimination claim was lower. The average mean for having received a previous accommodation was lower than the midpoint, suggesting that many of the respondents have not received an accommodation before.

Most of the scales have acceptable reliability with the exception of familiarity of disability, predictability of disability, likelihood to request an accommodation and magnitude of an accommodation. The low alpha for likelihood to request and magnitude of accommodation could be due in part to the small number of items included in the scales. Additionally, all of these scales with low reliability were developed for the current

study by the author. The unreliability in these measures was corrected for by the latent variable modeling process in EQS. As a result, these scales were used as is for the analyses.

Correlations between the variables in Model 1 were calculated in EQS and are displayed in Table 5. As you can see, some of the characteristics related to the type of disability are correlated with each other. This was expected as some of those constructs may be overlapping and/or may affect each other, however; surprisingly, the intercorrelations between these self-reported traits were lower than may have been expected due to the interrelatedness among the characteristics. For example, predictability of disability and familiarity were highly correlated ($r=.41$) as those disabilities that the general public are more familiar with may also be those that are subsequently viewed as more predictable and stable. Disclosure of disability was also significantly correlated ($r=.23$) with familiarity of disability. This is interesting to note because it may be the case that those with disabilities viewed as more familiar to others are more likely and willing to disclose it. On the other hand, for those with disabilities for which the public is less familiar, they may be more hesitant to disclose this disability to employers. Also, disclosure of disability was not found to significantly relate to many variables and this may be due to some range restriction in the responses as the majority (84%) reported having disclosed their disability. It was also realistic to expect supervisor knowledge of the ADA to be strongly correlated with both employee knowledge of the ADA ($r=.24$) and diversity of the workgroup ($r=.32$) as these could influence each other.

Disability-friendly climate was significantly and strongly correlated with many variables of interest, such as perceptions of discrimination ($r=-.82$), organizational commitment ($r=.73$), intent to file a discrimination claim ($r=-.60$), job satisfaction ($r=.67$) and turnover intentions ($r=-.56$). This is an initial indicator of the importance of perceptions of climate and their impact on other perceptions and behavioral intentions. Additionally, as expected having a disability-friendly climate was significantly correlated with supervisor knowledge of the ADA ($r=.40$) and having a diverse workgroup ($r=.46$).

Perceptions of discrimination were strongly correlated with all of the outcome variables as was to be expected (job satisfaction, $r=-.49$; organizational commitment, $r=-.54$; turnover intentions, $r=.49$; intent to file, $r=.55$). Discrimination was also related to supervisor knowledge of the ADA ($r=-.40$) and diversity of the workgroup ($r=-.40$). It is interesting to note how strongly related supervisor knowledge of the ADA and workgroup diversity is to climate, discrimination and all of the outcome variables. This may point to the importance of having a diverse workforce and educated managers.

Table 6 displays the correlations between the variables in Model 2. It is interesting to note that some of the individual variables such as education, use of VR services, and employee knowledge of ADA are significantly correlated with some of the perceptions of a future accommodation. For instance, employee knowledge of the ADA is positively correlated with having knowledge of an appropriate accommodation to request ($r=.22$), appropriate magnitude of the accommodation ($r=.28$), belief that the organization will comply with the request ($r=.26$), and perceptions of coworker fairness regarding the

accommodation ($r=.30$). Surprisingly, the use of VR services was negatively correlated with knowledge of an accommodation ($r=-.19$).

Important to note is that those variables with the strongest relationship to likelihood to request an accommodation are: a belief that the organization will comply ($r=.53$), reported usefulness of the accommodation ($r=.42$), knowledge of an appropriate accommodation ($r=.29$) and others perceiving the accommodation as appropriate help-seeking behavior ($r=.28$). This provides at least some initial support to the model proposed by Baldrige and Veiga (2001) regarding which factors impact one's likelihood to request an accommodation.

Table 5. Model 1 Correlations Among Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Onset Controllability	--																	
2. Predictability	.19	--																
3. Visibility	-.01	.08	--															
4. Attractiveness	-.23*	-.23*	.38*	--														
5. Familiarity	.14	.41*	.10	-.08	--													
6. Emp Knowledge of ADA	.20*	.12	.04	-.15	.11	--												
7. Education Level	.02	-.13	-.12	.04	-.23*	.16	--											
8. VR Services	.08	-.06	-.09	-.01	-.06	-.03	.03	--										
9. Disclosure	-.03	.18*	.08	-.04	.23*	.09	-.03	.13	--									
10. Previous Accom.	.05	.11	.02	.05	.11	.04	-.01	-.13	-.02	--								
11. Diversity	.24*	.18	-.16	-.15	.09	-.06	-.03	-.03	-.11	.13	--							
12. Sup Knowledge of ADA	.05	.15	.04	.04	.16	.24*	.16	.13	-.01	-.05	.32*	--						
13. Climate	.20*	.40*	.01	-.15	.39*	.16	.10	.04	.08	.01	.46*	.40*	--					
14. Perc. Discrimination	-.23*	-.21*	-.09	.12	-.25*	-.04	-.10	.03	-.03	-.03	-.40*	-.40*	-.82*	--				
15. Org Commitment	.25*	.44*	.02	-.13	.35*	.08	.02	-.00	.12	.05	.34*	.22*	.73*	-.54*	--			
16. Job Satisfaction	.32*	.30*	-.00	-.14	.41*	.10	-.07	.12	.09	.02	.27*	.28*	.67*	-.49*	.75*	--		
17. Turnover Intentions	-.12	-.06	.08	.11	-.08	-.05	.05	-.14	-.11	.06	-.26*	-.22*	-.56*	.49*	-.62*	-.70*	--	
18. Intent to File	-.01	-.24*	.04	.11	-.09	-.01	-.11	-.06	.07	.09	-.27*	-.33*	-.60*	.55*	-.34*	-.28*	.17	--

* Indicates significant at $p < .05$ level.

Table 6. Model 2 Correlations Among Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Onset Controllability	--																
2. Predictability	.22*	--															
3. Visibility	-.08	.14	--														
4. Attractiveness	-.26*	-.20*	.39*	--													
5. Familiarity	.12	.37*	.15	-.07	--												
6. Emp Knowledge of ADA	.17	.12	.06	-.15	.12	--											
7. Education Level	.02	-.13	-.12	.04	-.25*	.16	--										
8. VR Services	.10	-.09	-.09	-.01	-.06	-.03	.03	--									
9. Disclosure	-.05	.14	.09	-.05	.22*	.09	-.03	.13	--								
10. Previous Accom.	-.00	.06	.03	.06	.13	.04	-.01	-.13	.17	--							
11. Knowledge of Accom	-.06	-.08	.09	.05	-.09	.22*	.25*	-.19*	-.02	.11	--						
12. Magnitude of Accom	.13	.01	-.09	-.07	.23	.28*	.04	-.01	.05	.07	.43*	--					
13. Usefulness of Accom	-.26*	-.21*	-.06	.08	-.08	-.09	.10	-.24*	.11	.12	.68*	.21	--				
14. Org Compliance	.12	.24*	.12	-.24*	.19	.26*	.03	-.05	.06	.06	.18	.21	-.03	--			
15. Coworker Fairness	-.06	.15	.22*	-.11	.36*	.30*	.13	-.08	.02	-.00	.14	.56*	.00	.48*	--		
16. Help-seeking Behavior	.03	.27*	.08	-.19*	.37*	.15	.04	-.12	.10	.04	.08	.33*	.07	.49*	.87*	--	
17. Likelihood to Request	-.04	.04	.11	-.15	.07	-.05	-.04	-.11	-.03	.17	.29*	.03	.42*	.53*	.14	.28*	--

* Indicates significant at $p < .05$ level.

Structural Model Fit – Model 1

To specify the structural model, equations indicating the hypothesized paths among the variables were added in EQS. Also to establish model fit, error covariances were added between all of the endogenous variables (the factors Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intent, Intent to File and the observed score for Organizational Commitment). Additionally, according to the LM test, there were three direct paths not predicted that needed to be included in the model. Accordingly those direct paths, from predictability of disability to organizational commitment, familiarity of disability to job satisfaction and disability-friendly climate to intent to file a claim were added.

The model fit the data adequately according to Robust estimations: model Chi Square = 1270.04 with 928 degrees of freedom ($p < .001$), CFI=.91, RMSEA=.051. The CFI and RMSEA values used to demonstrate fit still indicate some misfit as they are not as good as one would hope; however, from reviewing the LM tests, while there are still some small measurement problems with a few of the indicators, they are not substantial problems and are not impacting the structural portion of the model. As a result, the model was determined to have adequate fit at this point and required no further modifications.

Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1a was not supported. There was a significant relationship between onset controllability of a disability and reports of perceived discrimination, but it was in the opposite direction than that predicted. Those individuals who reported having a disability that is more under their control also reported lower levels of subjective discrimination, instead of more ($B = -.129, SE = .059, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 1b was also not supported. Again, the relationship found was in the opposite direction from that predicted. Those individuals who reported having a disability that is visible to others reported lower levels of perceived discrimination ($B = -.113, SE = .050, p < .05$). Hypothesis 1c was not supported as the relationship between self perceived attractiveness (as a result of one's disability) was not significantly related to perceptions of workplace discrimination ($B = .093, SE = .049, ns$). Hypothesis 1d was also not supported. There was no significant relationship found between self reports of the general public's familiarity of one's disability and reports of discrimination ($B = .091, SE = .143, ns$). Hypothesis 1e was again not supported as the relationship found was in the opposite direction than that predicted. Specifically, individuals who reported having a disability that could be perceived by others as being predictable or stable reported higher levels of discrimination ($B = .375, SE = .139, p < .05$). As a note, the results found for predictability and visibility of disability should be interpreted with caution as they are not consistent with the bivariate relationships reported in Table 5. The bivariate relationship between visibility and perceived discrimination was not significant (whereas the effect in the structural model was significant) and the relationship between predictability and perceived discrimination was negative for the bivariate relationship but positive within the structural model. Hypothesis 1 was not supported. While there are some characteristics related to one's disability (i.e., onset controllability, predictability and visibility) that may influence the level to which an individual perceives discrimination in the workplace, all of the relationships were in the opposite direction from that hypothesized.

Hypothesis 2-3. Hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported as those individuals who reported using VR Services to find their current job did not report lower levels of perceived discrimination ($B = .099, SE = .148, ns$). Also, those who reported having obtained higher levels of education did not report higher levels of discrimination ($B = -.012, SE = .030, ns$).

Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis 4 was supported. It was found that individuals who reported having more knowledge of the ADA also reported higher levels of perceived discrimination ($B = .242, SE = .103, p < .05$).

Hypotheses 5-6. Hypotheses 5 and 6 were not supported. Individuals who reportedly disclosed their disability to their employer were not less likely to perceive discrimination ($B = .042, SE = .139, ns$). Additionally, the relationship between having received an accommodation in the past and perceptions of discrimination was not significant ($B = .022, SE = .023, ns$).

Hypothesis 7. Hypothesis 7 was supported as those individuals who reported working in an organization that had a more disability-friendly climate, reported lower levels of perceived discrimination ($B = -.904, SE = .085, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 8. Hypothesis 8 was not supported. A significant relationship was not found between diversity of the employee's workgroup and perceptions of discrimination ($B = .033, SE = .054, ns$).

Hypothesis 9. Hypothesis 9 was supported. Those who reported that their supervisor had more knowledge of the ADA also tended to report lower levels of perceived discrimination ($B = -.092, SE = .048, p < .10$).

Hypothesis 10. Hypothesis 10a was supported as individuals who reported higher levels of discrimination also reported lower levels of organizational commitment ($B = -.449, SE = .071, p < .05$). Additionally, individuals who reported having a disability that is more stable or predictable also reported higher levels of organizational commitment ($B = .648, SE = .174, p < .05$), a direct effect not predicted in the original model. Hypothesis 10b was also supported. Individuals reporting higher levels of discrimination were found to also report lower levels of job satisfaction ($B = -.484, SE = .101, p < .05$). Also, those who reported having a disability that is more familiar to the general public reported higher levels of job satisfaction ($B = .709, SE = .185, p < .05$), another direct effect that was not hypothesized in the original model.

Hypothesis 10c was also supported. It was found that individuals who reported higher levels of discrimination reported having greater intentions to turnover ($B = .681, SE = .110, p < .05$). Hypothesis 10d was not supported. Higher levels of workplace discrimination were not significantly related to greater intentions of filing a discrimination claim ($B = .095, SE = .174, ns$). However, positive perceptions of a disability-friendly climate were significantly related to lower intentions of filing a discrimination claim ($B = -.807, SE = .198, p < .05$), a direct effect that was not hypothesized in the original model.

Additional Structural Analyses of Model 1

The focus for Model 1 was primarily how characteristics of disabilities, individual factors and organizational factors impacted perceptions of discrimination. The secondary focus was the impact of perceptions of discrimination on behavioral outcomes. The

indirect effect of the exogenous variables on the outcomes through the mediator, while important to the model, was more of an extension to the major questions under investigation and acted as the explanatory mechanism. Consequently, the hypotheses addressed these foci in that order and thus examined the first half of the model somewhat separately from the second half. Structural Equation Modeling provides the ability to analyze the direct effects of many predictors on a mediator (workplace discrimination), the direct effect of a mediator on several outcomes and the indirect effects of the predictors on the outcomes through the mediator. While the hypotheses spoke to the direct effects, the indirect effects are also important and interesting to note.

Tables 7-10 display the direct, indirect and total effects of all variables on all 4 of the outcomes. From looking at Table 7, one can see that predictability of disability is the only antecedent that had a significant direct effect on organizational commitment and had a significant indirect effect as well. Several other variables had significant indirect effects on organizational commitment through discrimination. These are: onset controllability of disability, visibility of disability, employee knowledge of the ADA, and climate, which had the strongest indirect effect. Another important note is that onset controllability of disability, visibility of disability and predictability of disability impacted perceptions of organizational commitment through their relationship with perceived discrimination that was in the opposite direction from that hypothesized.

Table 8 shows that familiarity of disability had a significant direct effect on reports of job satisfaction. Additionally, visibility and predictability of disability, employee knowledge of the ADA and climate had indirect effects on job satisfaction

through perceptions of discrimination. Again, the indirect effects of visibility and predictability of disability occurred through relations with perceived discrimination that were opposite from those hypothesized.

Discrimination was the only variable with a significant direct effect on turnover intentions (see Table 9). However many other variables (onset controllability, visibility, predictability of disability, employee knowledge of ADA and climate) had indirect effects on turnover through discrimination. Once more, the indirect effects of the disability characteristics were due to their effect on perceived discrimination that was opposite the direction initially hypothesized. As you can see in Table 10, perceptions of discrimination did not have a significant direct effect on intentions to file a discrimination claim. Interesting to note is that perceptions of a disability-friendly climate did have a strong direct effect on intentions to file a claim, although this was not predicted a priori. The important trends found by examining the model as a whole will be further highlighted in the discussion section below.

Table 7. Model 1 Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Variables on Organizational Commitment
 Total R² for Organizational Commitment = .45

Variable	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Disability Traits Typology			
1. Onset Controllability	--	.06(.06)*	.06(.06)*
2. Visibility	--	.05(.07)*	.05(.07)*
3. Attractiveness	--	-.04(-.06)	-.04(-.06)
4. Familiarity	--	-.04(-.02)	-.04(-.02)
5. Predictability	.65(.40)*	-.17(-.11)*	.48(.30)*
Individual Factors			
6. Employee Knowledge of ADA	--	-.11(-.07)*	-.11(-.07)*
7. Education Level	--	.01(.01)	.01(.01)
8. VR Services	--	-.04(-.02)	-.04(-.02)
9. Disclosure	--	.02(.01)	.02(.01)
10. Previous Accommodation	--	.01(.02)	.01(.02)
Organizational Factors			
11. Diversity	--	-.02(-.02)	-.02(-.02)
12. Supervisor Knowledge of ADA	--	.04(.05)	.04(.05)
13. Climate	--	.41(.41)*	.41(.41)*
Mediator			
14. Perceived Discrimination	-.45(-.46)*	--	-.45(-.46)*

* Indicates significant at .05 level

Unstandardized effect sizes are presented with standardized effect sizes in parenthesis

Table 8. Model 1 Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Variables on Job Satisfaction
 Total R² for Job Satisfaction = .36

Variable	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Disability Traits Typology			
1. Onset Controllability	--	.06(.05)	.06(.05)
2. Visibility	--	.05(.07)*	.05(.07)*
3. Attractiveness	--	-.05(-.05)	-.05(-.05)
4. Familiarity	.71(.35)*	-.04(-.02)	.67(.33)*
5. Predictability	--	-.18(-.09)*	-.18(-.09)*
Individual Factors			
6. Employee Knowledge of ADA	--	-.12(-.06)*	-.12(-.06)*
7. Education Level	--	.01(.01)	.01(.01)
8. VR Services	--	-.05(-.01)	-.05(-.01)
9. Disclosure	--	.02(.01)	.02(.01)
10. Previous Accommodation	--	.01(.02)	.01(.02)
Organizational Factors			
11. Diversity	--	-.02(-.02)	-.02(-.02)
12. Supervisor Knowledge of ADA	--	.05(.05)	.05(.05)
13. Climate	--	.44(.37)*	.44(.37)*
Mediator			
14. Perceived Discrimination	-.48(-.41)*	--	-.48(-.41)*

* Indicates significant at .05 level

Unstandardized effect sizes are presented with standardized effect sizes in parenthesis

Table 9. Model 1 Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Variables on Turnover Intentions
 Total R² for Turnover Intentions = .24

Variable	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Disability Traits Typology			
1. Onset Controllability	--	-.09(-.06)*	-.09(-.06)*
2. Visibility	--	-.08(-.08)*	-.08(-.08)*
3. Attractiveness	--	.06(.06)	.06(.06)
4. Familiarity	--	.06(.03)	.06(.03)
5. Predictability	--	.26(.11)*	.26(.11)*
Individual Factors			
6. Employee Knowledge of ADA	--	.17(.07)*	.17(.07)*
7. Education Level	--	-.01(-.01)	-.01(-.01)
8. VR Services	--	.07(.02)	.07(.02)
9. Disclosure	--	-.03(-.01)	-.03(-.01)
10. Previous Accommodation	--	-.02(-.02)	-.02(-.02)
Organizational Factors			
11. Diversity	--	.02(.02)	.02(.02)
12. Supervisor Knowledge of ADA	--	-.06(-.05)	-.06(-.05)
13. Climate	--	-.62(-.44)*	-.62(-.44)*
Mediator			
14. Perceived Discrimination	.68(.49)*	--	.68(.49)*

* Indicates significant at .05 level

Unstandardized effect sizes are presented with standardized effect sizes in parenthesis

Table 10. Model 1 Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Variables on Intent to File a Claim
 Total R² for Intent to File = .42

Variable	Direct Effects	Indirect Effects	Total Effects
Disability Traits Typology			
1. Onset Controllability	--	-.01(-.01)	-.01(-.01)
2. Visibility	--	-.01(-.01)	-.01(-.01)
3. Attractiveness	--	.01(.01)	.01(.01)
4. Familiarity	--	.01(.00)	.01(.00)
5. Predictability	--	.04(.02)	.04(.02)
Individual Factors			
6. Employee Knowledge of ADA	--	.02(.01)	.02(.01)
7. Education Level	--	-.00(-.00)	-.00(-.00)
8. VR Services	--	.01(.00)	.01(.00)
9. Disclosure	--	-.00(-.00)	-.00(-.00)
10. Previous Accommodation	--	-.00(-.00)	-.00(-.00)
Organizational Factors			
11. Diversity	--	.00(.00)	.00(.00)
12. Supervisor Knowledge of ADA	--	-.01(-.01)	-.01(-.01)
13. Climate	-.81(-.59)*	-.09(-.06)	-.89(-.65)*
Mediator			
14. Perceived Discrimination	.10(.07)	--	.10(.07)

* Indicates significant at .05 level

Unstandardized effect sizes are presented with standardized effect sizes in parenthesis

Additional Analyses of Model 1 Variables

There were several additional questions asked of participants related to the variables in Model 1 but that were not relevant for the empirical analysis of the model. Specifically, respondents were asked about their satisfaction regarding disclosing their disability and using VR Services. Also they completed a 6 item quiz meant to objectively assess knowledge of the ADA.

The mean rating for satisfaction with disclosing one's disability was $M=3.34$ ($SD=1.29$) and the average rating for recommending that others tell their employer about their disability was $M=3.05$ ($SD=1.35$). The average for both items was higher than the mid-point but with a relatively high standard deviation. This suggests that in general,

people have neutral to positive feelings about disclosing their disability to their employer. Also, important to note is that the majority of respondents (84%) indicated that they had told their current employer and/or manager what disability they have. The average rating for satisfaction with using VR services was $M=2.85$ which is higher than the midpoint of 2.5 but still relatively low. Twenty six percent of those participants who responded to this item noted their satisfaction level as being neutral. This fits with previous research showing mixed results on the effectiveness and satisfaction of VR Services.

A quiz on the ADA was included in the survey to test respondents' knowledge of the legislation. The majority of participants (66%) answered at least 50% of the items correct and there was a significant correlation between percentage correct on the quiz and a composite score for self reported knowledge of the ADA ($r=.17$). This suggests that self reported knowledge may not be a completely accurate indicator of objective knowledge but that those who rated their own knowledge higher were more likely to answer more questions correctly on the quiz.

Structural Model Fit - Model 2

Equations indicating the hypothesized paths among the variables were included in EQS to specify the structural model for Model 2. The variance of the DV (likelihood to request an accommodation) was estimated and the two indicators for the factor, Magnitude of the Accommodation were constrained to be equal. In order to obtain model fit, several error covariances between predictors were added (knowledge of accommodation to familiarity of disability, familiarity of disability to education level, visibility of disability to education level and knowledge of accommodation to education

level). This model fit the data adequately based on Robust estimations: model Chi Square = 972.06 with 737 degrees of freedom ($p < .001$), CFI=.90, RMSEA=.048. Due to the large number of predictor variables (16), only one (disclosure of disability) was a significant predictor of the DV initially. Consequently, a backwards stepwise regression was performed to determine what other factors may be significant predictors but were not showing up above and beyond the large number of predictors. The Wald Test was used to identify those factors adding the least amount of prediction in the model. After removing 10 of the items that were not adding significantly to the model, the fit and Chi Square changed minimally; model Chi Square = 976.53 with 747 degrees of freedom, CFI=.90, RMSEA=.047, producing a Chi Square change = 4.47.

Hypothesis Tests

Due to the large number of predictors included in Model 2, the majority of them did not significantly predict one's likelihood to request an accommodation.

Hypothesis 11. Hypothesis 11 was not supported as none of the characteristics associated with one's disability was a strong predictor of one's likelihood to request a future accommodation.

Hypotheses 12-16. These hypotheses were not supported as education level, using VR Services, having knowledge of the ADA and having previously received an accommodation were not significantly related to one's likelihood to request an accommodation in the future. Disclosing one's disability was a significant predictor of one's likelihood to request an accommodation ($B = -.271, SE = .135, p < .05$) but was in the opposite direction from that proposed. This means that individuals who reported

having disclosed their disability to their current employer or manager were less likely to plan to request an accommodation in the future.

Hypotheses 17-18. Hypotheses 17 and 18 were not supported. Having knowledge of an accommodation to request and planning to ask for an accommodation of smaller magnitude were not significantly related to one's likelihood of requesting an accommodation.

Hypothesis 19. Hypothesis 19 was supported as those individuals who felt that the accommodation they would request would be useful to them in performing their job were more likely to plan on requesting the accommodation in the future ($B = .865$, $SE = .183$, $p < .05$).

Hypothesis 20. This hypothesis was also supported. Those individuals who reported more confidence that the organization would provide them with the needed accommodation were more likely to plan to request it in the future ($B = .431$, $SE = .091$, $p < .05$).

Hypotheses 21-22. Hypotheses 21 and 22 were not supported. Those individuals who believed their accommodation would be perceived fairly by coworkers and as an appropriate help-seeking behavior, were not significantly more likely to plan on requesting an accommodation.

Additional Analyses of Model 2 Variables

Some additional questions were asked of respondents that were not included in the model but were examined and are interesting to note. Individuals were asked to report how many times they had previously requested an accommodation (within their current

organization and previous organizations) and how many times they had been provided with an accommodation. The reported number of accommodation requests that had been made by respondents ranged from 0 to 50, with a mean of $M=4.19$. The number of accommodations that had been provided ranged from 0 to 10, with a mean of $M=1.34$, suggesting that many accommodation requests are not fulfilled.

In order to better understand what accommodations employees receive and the approximate costs to employers, the respondents were also asked what accommodations they had been provided and the approximate employer related costs for those. The accommodations provided by respondents were categorized and reported in Table 11. Apparently, individuals found it difficult to estimate the costs of accommodations as no one provided a cost approximation for this question.

Table 11. Previous Accommodations Provided to Survey Respondents

Type of Accommodation & Examples	Percent of Respondents
Ergonomic Workstation	25%
- dual monitors	
- more comfortable desk chair	
- computer magnification	
- ergonomic keyboard	
Flexible Schedule	18%
- lunch	
- decreased work hours	
- longer breaks	
- flexible work time	
Handicap Accessible Environment	4%
- telephone amplifier	
- automated opening doors	
- availability of an elevator	
- handicap parking	
Modification to Work Tasks	4%
- time away from desk	
- not unloading freight	
Time Off	2%
- additional short term or long term disability	
- time off for rehab	
- time off yearly for refitting of new prosthetic	
Additional Software/Hardware	2%
- speech recognition software	
Change in position	1%
- less hours / change in position	
- sit down job	
- shift change	
Interpreter	1%
No Accommodation provided	43%

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

The models in the current study offer additional insight into those factors that predict perceptions of discrimination in the workplace, the impact discrimination has on other organizational outcomes and factors that individuals with disabilities may consider when determining whether or not to request an accommodation. The results may be used by employers to help prevent and reduce perceived discrimination, by social service professionals focused on helping individuals with disabilities find and maintain healthy working conditions and researchers to aid in making clearer connections between factors that impact discrimination and learning more about accommodations in the workplace. Below, the results are discussed in greater detail and limitations surrounding the study are addressed. Also, implications for practitioners are highlighted and suggestions for future research are presented.

Model of Perceived Workplace Discrimination

Model 1 provides evidence regarding which factors in particular predict perceptions of workplace discrimination and organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions and intentions to file a discrimination claim (see Figure 3 for model with results indicated). As predicted by previous researchers, there are characteristics associated with one's disability that influence an individual's likelihood of perceiving more or less workplace discrimination. Additionally, there are factors related to one's personal experience and knowledge and their organizational environment that predict perceived levels of discrimination.

Typology of Disability Characteristics

A framework was created to examine several characteristics associated with disabilities and their impact on organizational outcomes. Based on prior research and predictions (e.g., Fuqua et al., 1983; Gilbride et al., 2000), it was hypothesized that these characteristics would directly impact perceptions of discrimination, which would in turn impact other organizational outcomes. Three of these characteristics, onset-controllability, visibility and predictability were significantly related to reports of perceived discrimination. However, all of these relationships found were in the opposite direction than that proposed based on previous research.

The more individuals reported their disability to be ‘self-caused’ or controllable, the less discrimination they reported. This finding is in opposition to previous research which has reported that people tend to act with more prejudice toward individuals with a disability of higher perceived onset controllability (e.g., Hebl & Kleck, 2002, Florey & Harrison, 2000). The key difference between past research and the current study is the perspective of these perceptions. All prior research has asked for other’s opinions about the individual with the disability after describing a disability that was either self caused or not self caused. Here, the individual was asked him/herself about the onset controllability of the disability and the mean rating for these items was $M=2.27$ (on a scale of 1-5), indicating that on average, respondents felt that they were not very responsible for the development of their disability. Additionally, the way in which one views the development of their own disability and their responsibility for it may be quite different from how an outsider views this responsibility.

Also, the way that these individuals perceived the survey questions related to onset controllability may be in direct opposition to how external observers perceive this characteristic. The conceptualization of this construct in the past has been related to cause of the onset of disability and whether the individual is responsible or at fault for the onset. Based on the wording of the items assessing this construct in the current study, it is possible that respondents did not perceive the items as asking about blame or fault, but instead viewed them as asking about having control over their disability. Subsequently, by feeling that they had more control as opposed to less control, this was a positive feeling and related to decreased discrimination. Whatever the reason may be, it is suggested that future research examine the perceptions of disabilities and their characteristics from the viewpoint of the persons with disabilities to more fully understand their perspective. This may help explain why those who perceive their disability to have more onset controllability report experiencing less discrimination.

The relationship found for visibility of one's disability is interesting to note, given that previous research on this characteristic has reported contradictory results. Where one group of researchers found that individuals were more willing to interact with someone with a visible rather than invisible disability (Cacciapaglia et al., 2004), another study found that people rated those with invisible disabilities more positively and they were perceived to be the most comfortable to work with (Gouvier et al., 1991). Based on the current study's focus on the workplace, it was hypothesized that those with visible disabilities would perceive greater workplace discrimination. In fact, the opposite effect was found. Given that the perspective in the current study comes from the individuals

with disabilities themselves instead of others' views, this could help explain the divergent results. It could be the case that those reporting more visible disabilities are more likely to talk with others about their disability and in having more honest discussions they feel less stigmatized and perceive lower levels of discrimination. Those reporting that their disability is less visible to others may feel that they are hiding their disability and consequently are more perceptive (sensitive) to others critical judgments. Another explanation is that those with more visible disabilities don't necessarily think that they are getting special treatment as much as someone with an invisible disability might. For example, it is obvious that someone in a wheelchair needs an elevator; it isn't as obvious that someone with chronic back pain needs a \$1,000 ergonomic chair. Whatever the reason, more research needs to examine the effect of visibility of one's disability to learn what it is about different situations that produces different reactions and outcomes.

Another interesting finding from the disability typology traits is that those individuals who reported their disability to be more predictable or stable reported higher levels of discrimination. While this result was also contrary to the hypothesis that those with more predictable disabilities would report less discrimination, the prediction was made based on assumptions from previous research and not on direct evidence. While employers have been found to prefer working with individuals with physical impairments over mental disorders (Hartlage & Taraba, 1971; Fuqua et al., 1983), the connection to predictability or stability of the disability was not made explicit to the employers. The association with predictability was made by researchers as a way to explain the preference for physical disabilities. This study is the first one to experimentally examine

how predictability of one's disability may impact discrimination. Additionally, the perspective in the current research is from that of the person with the disability, and their perceptions of predictability could vary drastically from an external person's perspective. An individual with a disability could actually view predictability of disability in a negative sense and believe that if their symptoms will lessen in the future and/or will get better (which is a positive thing) then their disability is less predictable.

What may be even more interesting is the direct relationship found between predictability of one's disability and reports of organizational commitment. This relationship was not be influenced by perceptions or treatment by others (via discrimination) but may suggest some deeper connection between the disability itself and one's ability to feel committed to a job. It is possible and even likely that an individual with a disability that is unpredictable, resulting in inconsistent symptoms and/or reactions, is less likely to commit to a job or other major life activity either due to fear of the unpredictability of the disability or simply an inability to experience a high level of commitment. On the other hand, those with disabilities they report as having predictable or stable symptoms are able to more consistently commit to a job or other activity. Thus, the effects of predictability of disability may have much more to do with the individual and their perspective of the stability of their disability which may be quite different from the effect of others' perceptions of the predictability of a disability.

A strong positive relationship was also found between self reports of the public's familiarity of one's disability and reports of job satisfaction, although this was not predicted a priori. There is no clear rationale for this relationship, unless again the

connection is due to underlying differences in the type of disability an individual has and their perceptions of its characteristic than the external perception of its familiarity. For example, it could be that those with more familiar disabilities (e.g., arthritis, multiple sclerosis, diabetes, etc.) are more satisfied in general for reasons beyond how familiar the general public is with their disability. Also, those who believe their disability is more familiar may feel happier in many ways than those who feel that they have a poorly understood disability and are therefore frequently misunderstood. Again, because both perspectives came from the individual with the disability and not from an outsider's perspective, other individual differences could account for the relationship between the variables.

Individual Factors

Several factors associated with the individual's experience and knowledge were predicted to impact perceptions of discrimination. While many of these factors, education level, the use of VR Services, previous experiences with accommodations and disclosing one's disability were not significantly related to perceptions of discrimination, self reported knowledge of the ADA was a significant predictor. As hypothesized, the more self reported knowledge of the ADA an individual had, the more likely they were to report experiencing greater discrimination. Without making too large of an assumption, this finding may support the idea that having knowledge of the ADA is empowering and enables individuals to be more critical of their environment and have higher expectations regarding the treatment they deserve in the workplace. The hope is that by having this knowledge employees know what to do when they are being treated unfairly and are

therefore, not just experiencing more discrimination but are acting in ways to decrease the objective discrimination that occurs. An alternate explanation for this finding is that if and when an individual experiences discrimination, they gather information on the ADA and as a result of the perceived discrimination report higher levels of ADA knowledge in an effort to aid their situation.

Organizational Factors

Three factors related to the organizational environment were hypothesized to impact perceptions of discrimination and subsequently the outcome variables in the model. Diversity of one's workgroup was not a significant predictor in the model, but reports of supervisor knowledge of the ADA was moderately significant and perceptions of climate significantly predicted perceptions of discrimination and intentions to file a discrimination claim. Diversity of workgroup may not have been a significant predictor due to the low base rate for this factor. The average rating for this scale ($M = 2.15$) indicates that diversity within one's workgroup (meaning other individuals with disabilities) was very low for this sample. It is possible that in other samples (particularly those with less educated workers) ratings of workgroup diversity could be higher and could have a stronger negative impact on perceived discrimination and other outcomes.

As hypothesized, those who reported that their supervisor had greater knowledge of the ADA also perceived less workplace discrimination. This is an important finding for employers who want to treat their employees well and reduce negative perceptions held by their employees. It is noteworthy because this gives organizations a simple way to

impact subjective reports of discrimination; that of educating their managers and leaders on the ADA.

Also as predicted, perceptions of a positive, disability-friendly climate was significantly related to lower perceptions of discrimination. This is also noteworthy for organizations as they can work to directly impact perceptions of climate by creating a more inclusive and diverse environment and communicating clear support for valuing all individuals, including those with disabilities. The importance of climate perceptions is underscored by the direct impact it had on intentions to file a discrimination claim, which was not hypothesized a priori. This association was one of the strongest relationships found in the entire model, suggesting that climate perceptions should be a critical focus for employers and future researchers in this field. The strength of the effect associated with climate perceptions is particularly important because this provides employers with a tool they can easily influence to make a direct impact on critical outcomes.

Conclusions

It is clear from reviewing the model that an individual's experience, organizationally relevant factors and characteristics related to one's disability are all important in evaluating perceived discrimination. From review of the direct, indirect and total effects in Tables 7-10, it is worthy to note that the strongest predictors of the outcome variables (based on standardized regression coefficients) are perceptions of workplace discrimination, reports of predictability of one's discrimination and perceptions of a disability-friendly climate. Other variables that added to the

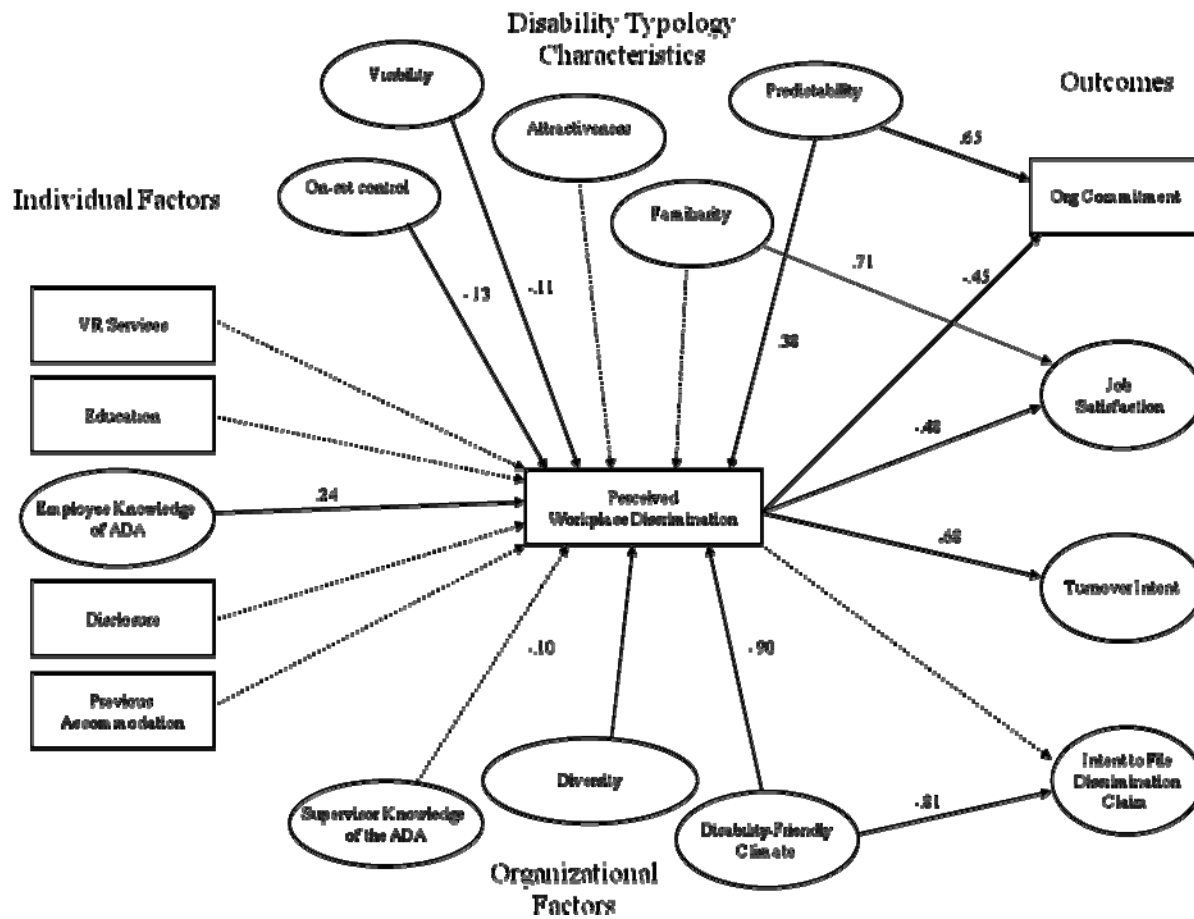
predictability of the model are: on-set controllability of disability, visibility of disability, employee knowledge of the ADA and supervisor knowledge of the ADA.

When looking at the model, it is clear that organizational factors are critical when examining attitudinal and behavioral outcomes in the workplace as they were consistently more predictive than other factors. Previous research has found that climate (or culture) is a critical component impacting perceptions of discrimination (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001) and other organizational perceptions, such as fairness, turnover intentions, etc. (Schur et al., 2006). However, this paper is among the first to examine perceptions of climate from the viewpoint of individuals with disabilities.

Additionally, a novel finding from the current research is the discovery that there are characteristics associated with disabilities that have an impact on individuals' perceptions of workplace discrimination and other organizational outcomes. While past research has found that these characteristics are important to studying stereotypes toward disabilities (e.g., Hartlage et al., 1971; Weiner et al., 1988; Gouvier et al., 1991; Hebl & Kleck, 2002), the current study takes this further by showing that it is also important in predicting perceived discrimination and other perceptions in the workplace. Moreover, the current paper is among the first to examine perceptions of individuals with disabilities themselves and to research their self-perceptions of their disability. Due to the findings of these characteristics having the opposite effect of that predicted, it suggests that the viewpoint of those with disabilities may be very different from that of external observers. So different, that the constructs under examination in this study may represent something distinct depending on the perspective of respondents. As suggested based on previous

research, those with higher onset controllability and lower predictability should have reported higher levels of discrimination, but this was not the case. Thus, it may be that when individuals responded to these items, they represented different constructs to them, such as locus of control, efficacy or positive affectivity. Several researchers (Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, & Scott, 2009; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002; Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997) have suggested that these constructs are actually reflective of a dispositional core self-evaluation factor and that those with positive core self-evaluations “see themselves as capable, worthy and in control of their lives” (Judge, Van Vianen, & De Pater, 2004, pp. 326-327) and that they report greater satisfaction with their work and personal lives (Judge & Bono, 2001). This may explain the relationship between onset controllability and predictability with the outcomes under investigation.

Figure 3. Final Model of Perceived Workplace Discrimination



Note: Circles represent latent variables and boxes represent variables modeled as observed scores. Solid lines indicate direct paths and dotted lines indicate non significant paths within the model. Unstandardized regression coefficients are included for significant direct effects. The measurement model, error terms and covariances are not included to increase clarity.

Model of Accommodation Request Likelihood

Model 2 provides support for factors related to an accommodation that individuals may consider when requesting an accommodation (see Figure 4). Additionally, support was found for an individual experience that may impact one's decision to request an accommodation in the future.

Typology of Disability Characteristics

Several characteristics associated with one's disability were predicted to impact one's likelihood of requesting an accommodation in the future. However, none of these traits (onset controllability, visibility, attractiveness, familiarity or predictability) were found to be significant predictors above and beyond the other variables included in the model.

Individual Factors

The same individual factors included in Model 1 (use of VR Services, education level, employee knowledge of ADA, disclosure of one's disability and previous accommodation) were expected to influence one's likelihood to request an accommodation. The only variable that was a significant predictor was disclosure of one's disability but the effect found was contrary to that hypothesized. Specifically, it was found that those individuals who disclosed their disability to their current employer were less likely to consider requesting an accommodation in the future. Clearly, it was expected that if an individual had disclosed their disability in the past, they would be more likely to disclose in the future and relatedly more likely to make a request for an accommodation. The fact that the opposite effect was found suggests that those who have

disclosed in the past (and perhaps also requested an accommodation in the past) are no more likely to do so in the future. The new question to this issue is why. Are those individuals who have disclosed their disability treated more poorly? This is not likely the case as Model 1 found that disclosure was not related to perceptions of discrimination. Is it that those individuals who disclose and request an accommodation do not receive one and then do not plan to make the request again in the future? This is possible; although it is interesting that reports of receiving an accommodation in the past were not related to the likelihood of requesting one in the future. One other explanation could be that when one discloses their disability, they have less of a need or responsibility to make a formal request for an accommodation because the supervisor and/or workgroup is aware of the disability and without the request, slight modifications to the individual's task or environment are informally made, negating the need to make the request. Whatever the underlying cause for this relationship, further study needs to examine the relationship between disclosing one's disability and making an accommodation request.

Future Accommodation Factors

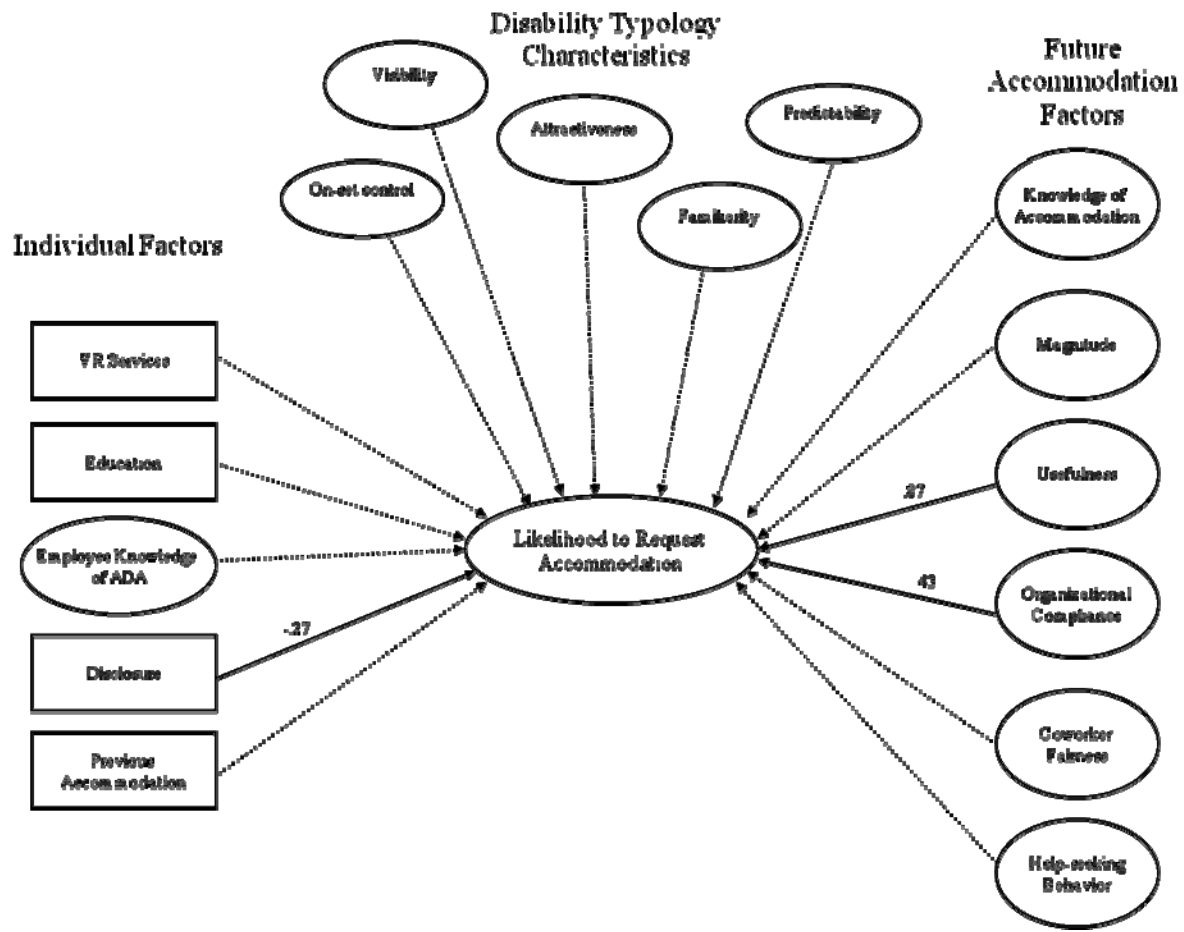
Several variables associated with an accommodation were predicted to influence one's likelihood to request an accommodation based on the model developed by Baldrige and Veiga (2001). Having knowledge of an accommodation, an accommodation of appropriate size, perceptions of potential coworker fairness of the accommodation and perceptions of the accommodation to others as an appropriate help-seeking behavior were not found to significantly relate to one's likelihood to request an accommodation in the future. Yet, reported usefulness of the proposed accommodation

and expectations of the organization's compliance with the request were significant predictors of one's likelihood to request. These findings provide some initial support to Baldrige and Veiga's model and suggest that future research on these factors should be carried out.

Conclusions

There has been a lack of research in the area of accommodations, particularly examining what makes an individual more or less likely to request an accommodation. Due to this deficit, the model examined in the current paper was largely an exploratory model and although it has given preliminary insight into some variables that may be more important than others when predicting one's likelihood to request an accommodation, additional research is needed. Based on the preceding research on disabilities and the framework developed by Baldrige and Viega, a host of variables (16 in total) were predicted to impact the outcome of accommodation request likelihood. Due to the sheer number of independent variables, it made it difficult for each of them to have a significant effect above and beyond all of the other variables in the model. That being said, it is possible that a few of the other variables in the model may be predictive of one's likelihood to request. It is even more probable that there are additional variables not considered in the current model that could be significant predictors of the likelihood to request. The central conclusion here is that there are characteristics related to accommodations that individuals consider before making an accommodation request and that additional empirical research is needed to substantiate Baldrige and Viega's model since this paper provides only initial support.

Figure 4. Final Model of Accommodation Request Likelihood



Note: Circles represent latent variables and boxes represent variables modeled as observed scores. Solid lines indicate direct paths and dotted lines indicate non significant paths within the model. Unstandardized regression coefficients are included for significant direct effects. The measurement model, error terms and covariances are not included to increase clarity.

Limitations and Considerations

As with all research, scientists must make decisions and weigh the benefits and risks of all pieces of the methodological puzzle that makes up the research design. Below are some concerns related to the method and measurements used in the current study.

Methodological Issues

The sample used in the current study included many individuals with high levels of education (25% have advanced degrees) and with primarily white collar jobs (as evidenced by the category breakdown of reported jobs). Additionally, all of these individuals completed the web-based survey due to their membership in an organization supporting people with disabilities, indicating their willingness to seek out information and help for their disability as well as potential computer and internet savvy. Based on this information, it is possible that the sample is not entirely representative of all employees with disabilities and many of the reported findings could be impacted by these factors.

Additionally, all of the data in the current research is based on self-report assessments completed by individuals with disabilities. While this perspective is relatively new for research in this area (not much research has been conducted with employed adults with disabilities), this single view is also a disadvantage because some of the constructs under examination are based on perceptions or assumptions made by external observers of individuals with disabilities. For instance, the traits of disabilities included as predictors in both models may be viewed very differently by an individual with a disability than by an external observer. Furthermore, the hypotheses were based on

the assumption that greater discrimination may occur when others view that an individual's disability has the particular characteristics noted. This assumption undoubtedly affected the predictive accuracy of the hypothesized models; particularly the first model in which the perceptions of the disability traits that did significantly impact discrimination perceptions did so in the opposite direction from that predicted. As noted earlier, it is probable that the effects found are due to the underlying characteristics of the individuals themselves and not the characteristics associated with the disabilities and the way they may be perceived by others. Additionally, it is likely that the wording of the items meant to assess the disability characteristics were perceived quite differently from the sample of individuals with disabilities than was the intention of the scales. For example, the perceptions of higher onset controllability and lower predictability may be viewed negatively by external observers but positively by those with disabilities (suggesting that they have control over themselves and their disability and that it may not be stable, but could be temporary and less predictable). This is not to suggest that the traits of the disabilities are not the factors that are predicting the results, but that the method of obtaining the data (using the perspective of the disabled individuals instead of external observers) may have significantly impacted the findings and could have pointed to additional self reflective individual traits as unintended predictors.

In order to assess the likelihood of someone requesting an accommodation, study participants either need to be asked about the accommodation they are already receiving (to learn what may have influenced them to request it) or asked about future intentions to request. With the current sample of employees, it was not known in advance if they were

receiving accommodations on their job. Consequently, asking about their current accommodation was not a good option (and could have yielded a significantly smaller sample size depending on how many had requested and/or received an accommodation for their current job). Therefore, respondents were asked to focus on a potential future job accommodation from a future employer. This was also not the most ideal situation as respondents could have gotten confused and still focused on their current employer and/or accommodation or they could have struggled to think about a future job and subsequently found it challenging to think of a relevant accommodation for that future job. Given that this is the first study to empirically investigate one's likelihood to request an accommodation, it provided a promising place to start even with the methodological considerations.

Measurement Issues

Many of the constructs included in the current study are new to the field and may have been previously proposed by researchers, but have not been empirically examined. Not to mention, some of these constructs have not been fully conceptually developed or determined to be distinct concepts from each other. As a result, the majority of the scales used to assess these new constructs were created by the author for the present study. With further development of these constructs in the future and a scrupulous focus on their measurement quality, the constructs themselves and their measurement may be more precise. Having a more accurate measurement model will provide a more stable baseline for the structural model, making it easier to find meaningful relationships.

Additionally, the scales used in this study that have been well developed and reviewed in the past did not work as well with the current sample. As mentioned previously, the reliabilities and factor structure for the Workplace Prejudice / Discrimination Inventory (James, et al., 1994) and the Affective Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990) have been reportedly positive. The reliability of these scales was not too low in this study ($r=.93$, $r=.85$), but the factor structure was not as clean as has been found by other researchers. Once again, a cleaner factor structure and more precise measurement model would have helped the structural model.

In addition, some of the scales used did not produce high reliability based on Cronbach's alpha or Average Variance Extracted (AVE). Specifically some constructs had especially low reliability: predictability, familiarity, onset controllability of disability, magnitude of an accommodation and likelihood to request an accommodation (for Cronbach's alpha see Table 4, for AVE see Tables 2 and 3). It is important, because some of these constructs have only been recently introduced to this literature, to put forth effort to fully conceptualize them and develop scales to measure them with sufficient internal reliability. This paper has presented preliminary evidence that these constructs are valuable and should be well defined in the future so as to add to our understanding of workplace discrimination and accommodations.

As discussed in the section on data imputation, after the initial imputation many of the imputed values were outside of the scales' range. In conducting univariate and multivariate outlier analyses, there was no clear explanation for this effect. A stepwise imputation was conducted in an effort to reduce the number of values that had to be

manually changed. Nonetheless, many out of range values still needed to be modified to exist within the appropriate range (1-5). While there is no known justification to give for this problem, the concern was noted and the data was frequently checked for outliers and any other problems. No other problems were found so the data was analyzed in its current form.

Future Research and Practical Implications

While the basis for the predictions of the typology of disability characteristics was on how others perceive these characteristics, the current research provided new information by surveying individuals with disabilities themselves. As such, the results suggest that the perspectives of these disability characteristics may vary substantially based on the survey respondents and while it would be interesting to empirically investigate others' perceptions of the traits, there is also more to be gained from continuing to sample individuals with disabilities to further learn from their perspective. According to the current study's results, individuals with disabilities who perceive their disability to be more controllable may not perceive more discrimination but do they actually experience more objective acts of discrimination? It would be incredibly valuable to gather both perspectives of the disability characteristics at the same time (from the individuals with disabilities and external observers) to learn how the perspectives vary and how different they may be; to learn if they are in fact perceiving distinct concepts from the same types of items. Could it be that when external observers perceive certain characteristics they have more stereotypes about the individual and their disability and yet the person does not always perceive more discrimination? The current

study has provided a solid foundation for research on the disability characteristics and how they not only differ based on the viewpoint of the respondent but also how they are important in an organizational context. Future research should focus on understanding these disability characteristics better and identifying how individuals with disabilities view their own disability and the relationship between these disability characteristics and other variables related to core self-evaluations, such as locus of control and self-efficacy.

It would be valuable to use a multi-sample approach for this type of research to gather other's perceptions of an individual, the organizational environment and the individual's proposed accommodation along with the individual's own perceptions (the viewpoint obtained in the current study). Also, studying actual behaviors (e.g., accommodation requests) is always useful and can add value above and beyond that of ratings of one's intentions by predicting relationships between perceptions and actual behaviors. Furthermore, following someone with a disability throughout the entire employee life cycle would be invaluable; to gather information on their hiring experience, orientation and onboarding, the organizational environment, any accommodation requests and subsequent organizational compliance, changes in perceptions throughout tenure etc.

In order to obtain perceptions of the variables in Model 1, which was the primary focus of this research, this forced the perceptions of the variables in Model 2 to be future oriented. The constraint of this was previously presented in the limitations section. However, from this discussion it is useful to add that organizational factors could not be assessed within this model due to the futuristic nature of the items. It would be logical to

expect that factors related to the organization (such as climate perceptions and supervisor knowledge of the ADA among others) may predict one's likelihood to request an accommodation. This question may be difficult to research because at the time that one is considering an accommodation they may not have been with a company long enough to have a full understanding of the climate or their supervisor's knowledge of the ADA. However, these perceptions could be based on the reputation of the company and early perceptions during the hiring and orientation process and could provide additional insight into accommodation requests. Therefore, future research should consider examining the impact of organizational factors on likelihood to request an accommodation.

This study found that there are important variables that individuals' consider when determining whether to make an accommodation request and these seem to be primarily related to the accommodation itself and not the individual. Still, there are many organizational factors and additional individual variables that were not assessed within the current model. It would be interesting to identify if there are individual personality characteristics associated with the likelihood to request an accommodation and what organizational factors are most important.

Perhaps of more concern to organizations would be to learn what effect receiving an accommodation has on important outcomes, such as perceived discrimination, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intent to turnover, as well as performance indicators. There could be strong arguments made that providing accommodations would increase performance and reduce turnover, which may result in employers viewing accommodations as a positive and necessary part of employment for some individuals

and not a nuisance. Furthermore, research linking the compliance of accommodation requests to positive organizational outcomes would be of great benefit for individuals with disabilities and social service providers. By making a connection to financial gains, organizations may be more willing to pay attention to the importance of giving accommodations.

Additionally, this study has demonstrated that organizations may be able to improve employee perceptions by changing the organizational climate and training employees and managers. As the current study found, perceptions of climate and supervisor knowledge of the ADA significantly predicted perceptions of discrimination. Additionally climate perceptions were strongly related to intentions to file a discrimination claim. Prior research (Bruyere et al., 2003) has also cited that staff training on diversity is frequently used to improve coworker attitudes toward disabilities and can provide supervisors with knowledge of accommodations, which can help combat barriers felt by employees with disabilities regarding their employment progression. The most important variables found in the first model (based on strength of regression coefficients) are perceptions of workplace discrimination (and their effect on organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions) and climate perceptions (and their effect on perceptions of discrimination and intentions to file a discrimination claim). These critical findings provide organizations with specific areas to focus their efforts with regards to creating policies and training and as a result, tools to improve employee perceptions and intentions if they so desire.

Appendix

Survey Questions

Survey Instructions: Please answer each question as honestly and completely as you can. For questions asking about your disability, please think about your current primary diagnosis. For those questions asking about your job or organization, please reference your current job and employer.

Demographic Questionnaire

1. What is your gender?
Male Female

2. What is your age?

3. What is your race?
White Black Asian Other

4. What is your ethnicity?
Hispanic Not-Hispanic

5. Please check which disability or disabilities you have been diagnosed with below. (List available on next page)

6. How many years have you had this disability? (If you have been diagnosed with multiple disabilities, please respond with the number of years you have had your primary disability).

7. What is the title of your current job?

8. What type of company/industry do you work for (e.g., bank, factory, retail store, restaurant, etc.)?

9. How much contact do you have with other people in your job?
Very little (0-25%) Little (25-50%) Moderate (50% of time)
Quite a lot (51-75%) Tons of Contact (76-100% of time)

10. How large is the organization you work for?
Under 15 employees 16-50 employees 51-100 employees
101-200 employees 200+employees

11. How many jobs have you previously held?
Under 5 5-10 11-15 16-20 Over 20

12. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
Middle School High School Some College
College Some Graduate Work Advanced Degree

Disability Categories

- ADHD
- Alzheimer's disease
- Anxiety disorder (e.g., panic, OCD, PTSD, GAD, social phobia, agoraphobia, specific phobia)
- Autism
- Down syndrome
- Eating disorder
- Learning disability
- Mood disorder (e.g., major depressive, dysthymic, bipolar)
- Schizophrenia
- Substance Abuse

- AIDs
- Amputation
- Arthritis (rheumatoid, osteoporosis)
- Blindness
- Cancer
- Cataract
- Cerebral palsy
- Chronic fatigue syndrome
- Clubfoot
- Cystic fibrosis
- Diabetes
- Hearing impairment
- Low vision
- Multiple sclerosis
- Muscular dystrophy
- Paralysis
- Parkinson's disease
- Renal failure
- Spina bifida
- Spinal cord injury
- Stroke
- Tuberculosis
- Traumatic brain injury

OTHER _____

Disability Typology Scales

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Cause of Disability					
13. My disability is controllable by me.					
14. The development of my disability was under my control.					
15. The symptoms of my disability are controllable.					
Visibility of Disability					
16. My disability is easily visible to others.					
17. I can make my disability more or less visible to others. R*					
18. I can hide my disability if I want to. R*					
19. At first glance strangers are aware of my disability.					
Appearance of Disability					
20. My disability has made me less physically attractive.					
21. I am not as attractive as I could be because of my disability.					
Familiarity of Disability					
22. My disability is common.					
23. My disability is well-understood by the public.					
24. Those without disabilities are familiar with my disability.					
Predictability of Disability					
25. My disability is temporary. R*					
26. My disability is stable over time.					
27. My symptoms are unpredictable. R					
28. My symptoms / behaviors due to my disability are consistent over time.					
29. My symptoms / behaviors due to my disability are predictable to others.					
30. Others perceive my behaviors due to my disability to be consistent over time.					

Notes:

R Indicates reverse coded item

* Indicates item dropped from scale for final analyses and/or not included in Models

+ Indicates item not measured on 5 point Likert Scale

Model 1 Mediator Scale

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Workplace Prejudice / Discrimination Inventory					
31. Prejudice exists where I work.					
32. Where I work all people are treated the same, regardless of their ability/disability. R					
33. At work minority employees receive fewer opportunities.					
34. There is <i>no</i> discrimination on my present job. R					
35. Where I work those without disabilities are treated better than those with disabilities.					
36. Supervisors scrutinize the work of those with disabilities more than that of others.					
37. There is discrimination where I work.					
38. At work I am treated poorly because of my disability.					
39. At my present job, some people get better treatment because they do not have a disability.					
40. Where I work promotions and rewards are not influenced by having or not having a disability. R					
41. At my present place of employment, people without disabilities do not tell me some job-related information that they share with other non-disabled employees.					
42. I have sometimes been unfairly singled out because of my disability.					
43. At work I feel socially isolated because of my disability.					
44. At work people are intolerant of others from different backgrounds or with disabilities.					
45. Where I work people with and without disabilities get along well with each other. R					

Notes:

- R Indicates reverse coded item
- * Indicates item dropped from scale for final analyses
- + Indicates item not measured on 5 point Likert Scale

Model 1 Outcome Scales

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Affective Commitment Scale					
46. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.					
47. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside of it.					
48. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.					
49. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. R					
50. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. R					
51. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. R					
52. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					
53. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. R					
Job Satisfaction					
54. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.					
55. In general, I don't like my job. R					
56. In general, I like working here.					
Intent to Turnover					
57. I intend to stay with this company for the foreseeable future. R					
58. I am looking for other jobs right now.					
59. I plan on quitting my job in the near future.					
Intent to file a discrimination claim					
60. I plan to file a discrimination claim against my employer.					
61. I would never file a discrimination claim against my current employer. R					

Notes:

- R Indicates reverse coded item
- * Indicates item dropped from scale for final analyses
- + Indicates item not measured on 5 point Likert Scale

Organizational Factors Scales

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Disability-Friendly Climate					
62. My organization values diversity.					
63. My organization values individuals with disabilities.					
64. My organization encourages diversity.					
65. My organization is supportive of all employees.					
66. My organization is open towards individuals with disabilities.					
67. My organization makes me feel valued.					
68. I feel included at my organization.					
Supervisor Knowledge of the ADA					
69. My supervisor is knowledgeable about the ADA.					
70. My supervisor understands the ADA.					
71. My supervisor understands the ADA's guidelines of providing accommodations.					
Workplace Diversity					
72. My workgroup or department consists of multiple members who have disabilities.					
73. My supervisor and/or coworkers in my group or department have a disability.					

Notes:

- R Indicates reverse coded item
- * Indicates item dropped from scale for final analyses
- + Indicates item not measured on 5 point Likert Scale

Individual Factors Scales

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Use of Vocational Rehabilitation Services					
74. Did you use Vocational Rehabilitation Services to obtain your current job? +	No				Yes
75. Are you currently using Vocational Rehabilitation Services? +	No				Yes
76. I am satisfied with Vocational Rehabilitation Services. *					
Disclosure					
77. I have told my current employer / manager what disability I have. +	No				Yes
78. My employer or manager knows what disability I have.					
79. I am satisfied that I told/did not tell my employer about my disability. *					
80. I would recommend that others tell their employer about their disability. *					
Experience with Accommodations					
81. How many times have you previously requested an accommodation (at your current organization and previous employers)? * +					
82. How many times have you received an accommodation (at your current organization and previous employers)? +					
83. What were the accommodations you have been provided? *+					
84. For the last accommodation you were provided, estimate how much you think it cost the employer. *+	\$0.00	\$1 - \$50	\$50 - \$100	\$100 - \$500	> \$500
Employee knowledge of Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA)					
85. I am aware of the ADA					
86. I understand the ADA					
87. I understand my rights as an individual with a disability.					
88. I understand my rights as an employee with a disability.					
89. I understand my right to request a job-related accommodation from an employer					

Notes:

- R Indicates reverse coded item
- * Indicates item dropped from scale for final analyses
- + Indicates item not measured on 5 point Likert Scale

Model 2 Outcome Scale

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Likelihood to request a future accommodation					
90. I plan to request an accommodation for my next job.					
91. I will not feel comfortable asking for an accommodation on my next job. R					
92. It will be appropriate of me to ask for an accommodation on my next job.					

Notes:

- R Indicates reverse coded item
- * Indicates item dropped from scale for final analyses
- + Indicates item not measured on 5 point Likert Scale

Perception of Future Accommodation Scales

Survey Instructions: Please think about your next potential job when answering the questions below.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Knowledge of appropriate accommodation					
93. I know of an appropriate accommodation that would help me perform my next job effectively.					
94. I know what accommodation I would ask for in my next job.					
Magnitude of accommodation					
95. The accommodation I would ask for is not too large.					
96. The accommodation I would request would be considered by others to be rather large. R					
Usefulness of accommodation					
97. This accommodation would be essential for me to perform my job effectively.					
98. I could not perform my job effectively without this accommodation.					
99. This accommodation would be useful for me to have.					
100. While this accommodation would be nice, it would not actually be useful to me in performing my next job. R					
Anticipated Compliance of Organization					
101. I am confident the organization would provide me with this accommodation.					
102. An organization would probably not give me this accommodation. R					
103. The accommodation may be difficult for the company to provide in terms of finances. R*					
104. The accommodation may be difficult for the company to provide in terms of resources. R*					
Perceived fairness by coworkers					
105. This accommodation would be perceived by my coworkers as fair.					
106. This accommodation may be perceived by others as unfair. R					
107. My coworkers would feel that it would be fair of the organization to provide me with this accommodation.					
Appropriateness of help-seeking behavior					
108. Others in the organization would perceive this accommodation request as appropriate.					
109. Others in my workgroup would feel that it was appropriate for me to ask for an accommodation.					

Notes:

- R Indicates reverse coded item
- * Indicates item dropped from scale for final analyses
- + Indicates item not measured on 5 point Likert Scale

Objective Measure of Knowledge of ADA

110. All employers with ___ or more employees can be charged by the EEOC for discrimination.

- a. 1
- b. 25**
- c. 100
- d. 500
- e. 1000

111. To be protected by the ADA, you must:

- a. have a disability that limits a major life activity
- b. be qualified for the job
- c. request an accommodation
- d. a and b**
- e. a and c

112. If you satisfy the employer's requirements for the job (in terms of education, experience, etc.) and you can perform the essential functions of the job, you:

- a. are qualified for the job**
- b. can be fired from the job
- c. must be hired for the job
- d. you do not need ADA protection
- e. a and c

113. Some examples given by the EEOC for accommodations are:

- a. part-time or modified schedules
- b. providing special equipment or devices
- c. work with no supervision
- d. a and b**
- e. a and c

114. The ADA prohibits discrimination in ___ employment practices.

- a. some
- b. most
- c. all**
- d. no
- e. 5

115. According to the ADA, during the application process an employer cannot ask you:

- a. to take a medical exam before offering you the job**
- b. to demonstrate how you will perform the duties of the job
- c. if you are disabled
- d. a and b
- e. b and c

Note: This Objective Measure was not used in Model 1 or Model 2. Correct responses are in bold.

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