

On Diversity Climate in Organizations

by

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Author's Declaration

This thesis consists of material all of which I authored or co-authored: see Statement of Contributions included in the thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

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Statement of Contributions

Essay 1 is a manuscript that has been accepted for publication at the *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology* (Yeung & Shen, forthcoming).

Abstract

Diversity climate, the extent to which workers perceive that organizations' personnel practices are fair and successful in integrating diverse personnel, is of immense interest to both scholars and practitioners in contemporary organizations. In this dissertation, I examine the implications of diversity climate for workers' psychological contracts (Essay 1) and conduct an investigation of the underlying factor structure of diversity climate (Essay 2). In Essay 1, I explored whether and how diversity climate is incorporated as an ideological commitment in psychological contracts during recruitment and the resulting impacts on workers. In two studies, a three-wave longitudinal field study and an experimental vignette study, fulfilment and breach of diversity climate promises were related to workers' attitudes and behaviours, but unexpectedly, more weakly so for racial minority compared to majority group individuals. Further, in the field study, more frequent use of diversity recruitment was associated with job-seekers' perceptions that ideological diversity climate promises were made pre-employment, and subsequent perceptions of breach of these promises has negative effects on worker attitudes and behaviours above and beyond "traditional" psychological contract breach. In Essay 2, I explored the factor structure of diversity climate by investigating workers' responses to a sample of existing diversity climate measures developed under differing conceptual considerations. In two studies, I find evidence that measures of diversity climate can be decomposed into three dimensions about the workplace environment: 1) fairness, inclusion, and synergy, 2) organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values, and 3) absence of discrimination, which exhibited differential relationships with a range of attitudinal, socio-emotional, and behavioural criteria. Finally, I present some limited evidence that racial minority status can have differential moderating effects on the relations between each dimension and outcomes.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Diversity is one of the most pressing concerns in modern organizations, as workforces have become increasingly comprised of workers with heterogeneous demographic characteristics (e.g., U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017). To manage this broader societal trend and to capitalize on the proposed benefits of diversity (e.g., increased productivity and creativity; e.g., McLeod, Lobel, & Cox, 1996; Reagans & Zuckerman, 2001), organizations are increasingly keen to understand how to effectively manage and support demographically diverse workforces. To this end, the study of *diversity climate*, the extent to which workers perceive that organizations employ fair personnel practices and effectively integrate diverse individuals into the organizational environment (McKay & Avery, 2015), has burgeoned. Given the critical implications of effective diversity management for organizations and growing societal concerns regarding the fair and inclusive treatment of demographically diverse employees (e.g., Heilman & Eagly, 2008; Isaksson, Kiessling, & Harvey, 2014), there is a greater need than ever before to unpack the construct of diversity climate and its consequences for workers.

In the present work, I sought to address two distinct questions within the diversity climate literature.¹ First, broader socio-political concerns regarding diversity have driven many organizations to deploy targeted recruitment practices to increase the representation of employees belonging to demographic groups that have traditionally faced disadvantages in hiring processes (e.g., racial minorities). However, we currently have a limited understanding of the implications of these diversity recruitment practices for workers beyond increasing their initial attraction to firms – in particular, they may be likely to shape workers’ pre-hire expectations of

¹ Note that Essay 1 and Essay 2 are separate manuscripts presented in temporal order (i.e., the studies in Essay 1 were conducted before those in Essay 2). Thus, some of the theoretical gaps and research questions addressed by Essay 2 did not become apparent until after Essay 1 was written. I discuss this limitation further in Chapter 4.

organizations' diversity climates, which may have subsequent impacts on workers beyond the hiring stage (i.e., once they are hired and are working within these organizations).

Thus, in Essay 1, I examined how common recruitment practices used by contemporary organizations may shape workers' beliefs about diversity climate as an ideological commitment in psychological contracts, and the resulting impacts on workers' attitudes and behaviours. I argued that organizations' diversity recruitment practices (i.e., recruitment practices designed to attract applicants with diverse backgrounds) may result in workers incorporating diversity climate into their psychological contracts, and that subsequent fulfilment or breach of these diversity-focused psychological contracts would have consequences for workers' job-related outcomes. Further, I argued that the effects of diversity recruitment and diversity climate fulfilment and breach, respectively, would differ based on racial group membership. Data from a three-wave longitudinal field study and two experimental vignette studies supported some of these predictions, although I unexpectedly found that fulfilment and breach of ideological diversity climate promises were more *weakly* related to racial minority (i.e., non-Caucasian) than majority group (i.e., Caucasian) workers' attitudes and behaviours. Overall, diversity climate is an important ideological commitment to modern-day workers and my work provides novel insights as to the mechanisms and consequences of ideology for workers' psychological contracts.

Second, scholars have identified several problems with the measurement of diversity climate in the extant literature; chief among these is that there is little agreement about the underlying dimensions of diversity climate, which poses problems for researchers and organizations seeking to more precisely understand the relations between diversity climate and important organizational phenomena. To address this issue, in Essay 2, I explored the underlying

factor structure of diversity climate by examining workers' responses to a sample of commonly used diversity climate measures. In two studies, I find support for a multi-dimensional conceptualization of diversity climate. Specifically, I find evidence that there are three dimensions that measures of diversity climate assess with regards to the workplace context surrounding diversity: 1) fairness, inclusion, and synergy, 2) organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals and values, and 3) absence of discrimination. Further, I examine the criterion-related validities of these dimensions and find that they have differential implications for workers, including for their attitudes towards the organization, job performance, and socio-emotional outcomes. This work contributes to the literature by highlighting the value and importance of employing multi-dimensional conceptual and operational definitions of diversity climate, and by providing researchers and organizations with direction for the more precise assessment of the construct.

Across Essay 1 and Essay 2, a common theme is that I examine the moderating role of racial minority status on relationships between key study variables. This focus is important for several reasons. First, because diversity climate research has often focused on racial minorities (sometimes to the exclusion of majority group members), I address the need to better understand the reactions and responses of majority group members to diversity climate in organizations, as diversity is an increasingly important social and cultural value with implications for *all* workers. In addition, because visible minorities still commonly face discrimination in workplaces on account of their racial backgrounds (e.g., Triana, Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015), their cognitions and reactions to diversity climate likely differ from those of majority group members. Overall, across both essays, I highlight potentially important differences between majority and minority group members and identify promising future avenues of investigation.

**CHAPTER 2: THE INCORPORATION OF DIVERSITY CLIMATE PROMISES IN
WORKERS' PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACTS: THE ROLE OF DIVERSITY
RECRUITMENT AND RACIAL DIFFERENCES IN RESPONSE TO BREACH
(ESSAY 1)**

The following essay is a manuscript that has been accepted for publication at the *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology* (Yeung & Shen, forthcoming).²

Introduction

Psychological contracts – workers' beliefs about the reciprocal exchange agreement between themselves and their employers (Rousseau, 2001) – constantly evolve alongside workplaces and the world around them. Over time, *diversity* has progressively come into focus as a major contemporary workplace issue, with global workforces becoming increasingly comprised of racial minorities and migrants (e.g., Statistical Office of the European Communities, 2017; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017). Alongside these demographic changes, societal and political values have also shifted towards emphasizing the importance of racial diversity and equity at work, with modern organizations increasingly taking steps to ensure representation and effective management of workplace diversity (e.g., Guillaume et al., 2014).

Building upon recent research that extends the basis of psychological contracts to *ideological rewards* (i.e., organizations' commitments to pursue a valued cause or principle; for a review, see Coyle-Shapiro, Pereira Costa, Doden, & Chang, 2019), our primary aim is to seek preliminary evidence for whether these societal changes have led workers to incorporate diversity, a value with growing implications for workplaces and society at large, as part of their psychological contracts. As psychological contracts are products of workers' interactions with

² Note that due to feedback received from examining committee members and subsequent revisions associated with this feedback, the essay presented in this dissertation differs slightly from the manuscript that is forthcoming.

organizations and workplace experiences as well as societal values (Rousseau, 2001), our second goal is to elucidate what organizational actions shape perceived diversity-related promises in psychological contracts; specifically, we focus on prevalent diversity recruitment practices. Third, we investigate the unique impact that breach of ideological diversity-related promises has on workers' job-related outcomes, beyond breach in transactional (e.g., pay) or relational (e.g., support) aspects of the psychological contract—the traditional domains examined in existing psychological contract research—by following workers from pre- to post- commencement of new jobs. Finally, we examine whether relationships with antecedents and consequences of ideological diversity-related psychological contracts differs for racial/ethnic majority and minority workers.

This study makes several contributions to the literature. First and foremost, we integrate signaling (Spence, 1973; Suazo, Martínez, & Sandoval, 2009) and social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) theories to form a conceptual framework within which we explore how contemporary workplace practices and trends relating to diversity, an important societal value, impact psychological contracting in organizations. In doing so, we address the need to further understand the contents and antecedents of ideologically-infused psychological contracts (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2019). By examining how the diversity-related promises that people perceive before they are hired go on to uniquely affect their attitudes and behaviours on the job, we also answer calls in the literature to better understand the consequences of ideology in psychological contracting and how individuals' experiences during recruitment can extend into employment (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2019; Truxillo & Bauer, 2011). Finally, we seek to better understand racial majority and minority employees' differing responses to organizations'

fulfilment or breach of diversity-related psychological contracts, by examining prior life experiences as a novel explanatory mechanism.

Literature Review

Diversity as an Ideological Commitment in Psychological Contracts

Over the next decade, the growth rate of racial minorities (i.e., non-Caucasians) in the U.S. and E.U. labour forces are projected to be significantly greater than that of racial majority group members (i.e., Caucasians; Statistical Office of the European Communities, 2017; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017). Organizations are keen to manage workforce diversity effectively due to both the potential advantages for capitalizing on these changes and the mounting costs of failing to do so. For example, diversity has been touted as beneficial for organizational revenue, increasing market share, attracting talent and customers, and enhancing creativity, whereas mismanaging diversity may have substantial negative impacts on organizations' bottom lines via increases in turnover, absenteeism, legal costs, and reduced applicant attraction (e.g., Herring, 2009; Robinson & Dechant, 1997).

Alongside growing societal concerns regarding racial diversity in the workplace, social media has given employees, activists, and the general public an unprecedented ability to identify and publicly criticize organizations who are perceived as failing to meet societal standards with regards to diversity (e.g., Isaksson, Kiessling, & Harvey, 2014). Thus, organizations today are under constant stakeholder scrutiny and pressure to make visible and meaningful efforts to address diversity concerns. Notably, this societal pressure to address diversity has led many organizations to employ specialized recruitment practices to enhance diversity within their organizations (e.g., Casper, Wayne, & Manegold, 2013). Given that fostering and supporting diversity is now a valued socio-political cause (e.g., Triana, Wagstaff, & Kim, 2012) and the

recruitment stage is a critical period for the formation of the psychological contract (e.g., Rousseau, 2001; Sherman & Morley, 2015), these recruitment practices may implicitly or explicitly communicate information contributing to workers' perceptions that organizations have made *ideological* commitments regarding the way diversity is supported in the organization.

The ideological dimension of psychological contracts has received limited attention compared to transactional and relational elements (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2019). Transactional elements of the psychological contract refer to economic exchanges between employees and employers, such as the exchange of an employee's time for a salary (Blau, 1964; MacNeil, 1985). Relational elements relate to the longer-term relationship between employee and employer, and involve the exchange of socio-emotional currency. For example, career development and promised job security may foster mutual commitment or trust (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). In contrast, ideological elements refer to organizations' pursuit of a valued principle or cause (Blau, 1964). Ideological rewards are proposed to be effective inducements because they give workers an opportunity to contribute to advancing a valued cause, which is intrinsically rewarding (Blau, 1964; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003).

Ideological rewards differ from transactional and relational rewards because they focus on commitments relating to broader, socially or culturally-held values that extend beyond the individual employee-organization relationship. Consistent with this, emerging research on ideological psychological contracts suggests that ideological fulfilment increases employees' perceptions of obligation towards organizations, above and beyond fulfilment of transactional and relational dimensions of the psychological contract (Bal & Vink, 2011). In addition, some evidence suggests that ideological rewards operate via differing psychological mechanisms,

going beyond the norm of reciprocity explanation for the effects of transactional and relational rewards on worker attitudes and behaviours (Vantilborgh et al., 2014).

Even though recent work has begun to examine the impact of ideology in psychological contracts, this work has been limited to contexts where it is assumed to be central to the organization's existence (i.e., volunteer and not-for-profit organizations; Bal & Vink, 2011; Vantilborgh et al., 2014). Importantly, this work has not identified the *specific* types of ideological commitments that workers perceive. For example, extant measures of ideological psychological contract fulfilment typically ask participants the extent to which the organization has fulfilled its "cause" but do not specify what the cause is, such that participants could vary on their views (e.g., Bingham, 2005). Due to the socio-political importance of diversity in contemporary society, we propose that organizations' perceived diversity-related commitments represent important ideological elements in psychological contracting for workers across a broad range of organizations.

Forming Diversity-Related Psychological Contracts: The Role of Diversity Recruitment

It is during the recruitment stage that workers come to an initial understanding of organizations' promises regarding the employment relationship (i.e., organizations' commitments to engage in future courses of action; e.g., Rousseau, 2001; Rousseau, Hansen, Tomprou, 2018; Sherman & Morley, 2015). From a signaling theory perspective, job applicants are likely to have little pre-existing knowledge regarding organizations and thus tend to rely on the cues or *signals* they receive during recruitment to form their beliefs about the promises an employer is making regarding the employment relationship (e.g., Suazo et al., 2009). Therefore, we propose that the recruitment stage may be critical in determining whether and how workers come to perceive that organizations have made ideological commitments regarding diversity.

Due to changing labour force demographics and in attempting to harness the business benefits of diversity, organizations have increased their efforts to recruit and attract talent from more diverse sources. Commonly called *diversity recruitment*, traditionally disadvantaged minorities are targeted with specialized recruitment tactics (e.g., photos of diverse individuals in job ads, pro-diversity statements in recruitment materials) with the intention of boosting the numbers of minorities interested in employment with the organization (Avery & McKay, 2006). Exposure to these methods may influence workers' psychological contracts in potentially important ways, which have largely been unexplored (McKay & Avery, 2005). Specifically, given that the recruitment stage is a critical period for the formation of the psychological contract (Rousseau, 2001), organizations' use of diversity recruitment may greatly contribute to workers' perceptions that organizations have made ideological commitments, by sending implicit or explicit signals regarding the way diversity is managed or supported in the context of the employment relationship. Evidence suggests that these practices have become commonplace, with the majority of large organizations including photographs of racially diverse groups and incorporating pages dedicated to the importance of diversity on their websites (e.g., Cober, Brown, & Levy, 2004; Nordquist, 2014).

Studies generally demonstrate that diversity recruitment increases the attractiveness of organizations to prospective applicants, and this is particularly true for minority applicants (e.g., Avery, 2003; Avery, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2004; Highhouse et al., 1999; Thomas & Wise, 1999). However, the mechanisms underlying this effect are not as well understood. Emerging research indicates that this may occur because these methods signal to applicants that the organization values diversity and will foster an environment that is supportive of diverse employees (e.g., Avery & McKay, 2006; Avery et al., 2013). In other words, diversity recruitment may suggest to

applicants that the organization will have a positive *diversity climate*, a work environment where personnel practices (e.g., hiring and promotion) are fair and diverse personnel are socially integrated (McKay & Avery, 2015). In fact, research strongly supports the importance of pro-diversity climates; in work units with highly positive diversity climates, group differences by race in job performance are greatly reduced (McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2008) and racial minority workers are less likely to intend to turnover (McKay et al., 2007). Thus, we extend prior research revealing that organizations that use diversity recruitment lead applicants to anticipate a positive diversity climate by proposing that such expectations should be conceptualized as perceived *promises* that are incorporated into applicants' ideological psychological contracts.

Hypothesis 1: Exposure to diversity recruitment methods is positively related to perceived ideological diversity climate promises.

Minority applicants appear to be more attracted to organizations on the basis of diversity recruitment than majority group applicants (e.g., Avery, 2003; Rau & Hyland, 2003). This could be because the signals conveyed by diversity recruitment practices are differentially interpreted by minority (vs. majority) applicants. Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), which predicts that individuals' knowledge about belonging to social groups (i.e., their social identities) relates to their cognitions and behaviours, suggests that differential reactions to diversity recruitment are likely. In particular, social identity *salience* occurs when people are prompted to self-categorize on the basis of social identity, including race/ethnicity (Forehand, Deshpandé, & Reed, 2002). Cues that heighten social identity salience include visual images, relevant words, and the social contexts in which these occur (Aquino & Reed, 2002). Since diversity recruitment practices contain many such cues, exposure to these methods should result in the activation of racial identities, particularly for minority (vs. majority) individuals. As people tend to direct their

attention more closely to information that is relevant to their salient identities (Stets & Serpe, 2013), minorities may be more likely to attend to, process, and interpret the diversity-related signals conveyed by organizations via diversity recruitment, resulting in higher perceived ideological diversity climate promises among minority compared to majority group members.

Hypothesis 2: Racial minority status moderates the relationship between exposure to diversity recruitment and perceived ideological diversity climate promises, such that the relationship is stronger for racial minority compared to majority group members.

Consequences of Diversity-Related Psychological Contract Breach

Emerging research reveals that perceptions of breached diversity promises have negative effects for racial minority workers. For example, breach of diversity-related promises has been demonstrated to have negative implications for minority employees' in terms of their engagement in OCBs, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions (Buttner, Lowe, & Billings-Harris, 2010; Chrobot-Mason, 2003; Tufan & Wendt, in press; Tufan, Witte, & Wendt, 2017). Crucially, however, these studies have generally not examined the effects of breached diversity promises on *majority* group members. Because diversity is a value that has wide-ranging influence and importance on society as a whole, its effects in the context of ideological contract breach is important to understand for workers across racial/ethnic groups. In addition, to our knowledge, no studies have examined whether the effects of diversity-related breach extend *beyond* breach in other areas of the employment relationship.³

Breach of ideological diversity-related promises may have consequences for both majority and minority workers because it extends the criteria for breach beyond personal

³ We note that some prior work has examined whether breach of ideological psychological contracts extends beyond breach of traditional psychological contracts in terms of relations with worker outcomes (e.g., Bal & Vink, 2011); however, this work does not focus on breach of *diversity-related* ideological promises, but instead examines ideological psychological contract breach in general.

mistreatment to include the failure to fulfill commitments with regard to valued causes or principles (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Thus, even though minority and majority workers may differ in their perceptions of being personally mistreated when diversity promises are broken, ideological diversity-related breach may nonetheless have important effects for both groups of workers. Whereas workers' reactions to perceived transactional and relational breach are assumed to be rooted in the norm of reciprocity (i.e., the worker reciprocates in kind to the organization when they are mistreated to rebalance the relationship; Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008), perceived ideological breach may motivate negative responses via additional mechanisms.

In particular, social identity theory suggests that employers are an important part of workers' identities because people self-categorize as members of organizations (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). As ideological contracts are based on deeply-held personal values, perceived ideological breach contradicts these personal values and threatens workers' sense of self by undermining their belief that they are party to a worthwhile cause (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Given that perceived ideological breach should be experienced as more threatening to one's self-concept than breach in transactional or relational aspects of the employment relationship, we propose that breach of ideological commitments regarding diversity should have incremental effects on a range of worker actions and outcomes, including job attitudes and performance, above and beyond traditionally examined forms of psychological contract breach.

The threat to one's self-concept caused by breach of ideological promises may constitute negative workplace occurrences that cause workers to experience adverse emotional reactions, including anger and anxiety (e.g., Conway & Briner, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). This negative affect may subsequently result in reduced cognitive resources and effort towards performing assigned duties effectively (i.e., task performance) and reduced motivation to engage

in discretionary helping behaviours (i.e., organizational citizenship behaviours [OCBs]; e.g., Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levin, 2012). In addition, more frequent experiences of negative affect at work associated with threats to self-concept may result in workers being less satisfied with their jobs overall (i.e., job satisfaction; e.g., Wegge, Dick, Fisher, West, & Dawson, 2006), reduce their intentions to stay with the organization (i.e., continuance intentions; e.g., Arshad, 2016), and reduce the likelihood that they speak positively about the organization with others (i.e., recommendation behaviours; Suazo, 2009).

Hypothesis 3: Perceived breach of ideological diversity climate promises incrementally predict worker outcomes (i.e., job performance, OCBs, job satisfaction, continuance intentions, and recommendations behaviours) above and beyond perceived breach in transactional and relational areas of the employment relationship.

Although we anticipate that perceived breach of ideological diversity climate promises would generally have negative consequences for workers' job attitudes and performance, we also posit that this relationship may be more pronounced for racial minority (vs. majority) workers. As racial minorities tend to experience higher levels of discrimination and are disproportionately excluded from positions of leadership and power compared to their majority group counterparts (e.g., Goldman, Gutek, Stein, & Lewis, 2006; Hofhuis, Van der Zee, & Otten, 2014; Rosette, Leonardelli, & Phillips, 2008), these experiences with race-related adversity may result in racial minorities placing greater personal value on a pro-diversity climate as an organizational principle. Thus, consistent with social identity theory, when an employer is seen as breaking ideological diversity climate promises, racial minority (vs. majority) workers may demonstrate more negative reactions.

Racial minorities may also experience group-related social identity threat (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) when ideological commitments regarding diversity climate are breached. Since diversity climate breach may have more direct negative consequences for minorities at work (e.g., greater workplace discrimination, less socially-inclusive work environment; Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013), breach of diversity climate commitments may signal to racial minorities that they are in an environment that is threatening to their social group, leading to distrust of the organization (e.g., Emerson & Murphy, 2014; Purdie-Vaughns, Steele, Davies, Ditlmann, & Crosby, 2008). This distrust may further cause minorities to experience a sense of discrepancy and dissatisfaction, resulting in reduced contributions and more negative evaluations towards the firm and their employment situation (e.g., Bordia et al., 2008; Robinson, 1996). In contrast, because diversity climate breach is less likely to have direct negative workplace implications for majority group members, as they tend to set or be the standard in organizational life (e.g., Rosette et al., 2008), they are less likely to experience group-related social identity threat as a result. Overall, we predict that the relationship between diversity climate promises breach and outcomes is stronger for racial minority compared to majority group workers.

Hypothesis 4: Racial minority status moderates the relationship between perceived breach of ideological diversity climate promises and worker job attitudes and performance, such that effects are stronger for racial minority versus majority group members.

Overview of Studies

To address these questions surrounding ideological commitments regarding diversity in workers' psychological contracts, we conducted two complementary studies. In Study 1, we employed a longitudinal field design—following workers from pre-employment to employment—to examine the role of diversity recruitment in the formation of ideological

diversity-related psychological contracts prior to employment and the consequences of subsequently breaching these promises for workers on the job. In Study 2, we employed experimental paradigms (Study 2a between-subject and Study 2b within-subject) to replicate and further unpack the mechanism underlying the differential consequences of diversity climate breach for racial minority versus majority group workers.

STUDY 1

In Study 1, we examine all study hypotheses in a multi-wave field study, assessing perceptions of ideological commitments regarding diversity in psychological contracts pre-employment, perceptions of diversity climate promise breach during employment, and subsequent on-the-job worker attitudes and behaviours. Thus, this longitudinal design allows us to investigate a key proposed antecedent of diversity-related ideological contracts (i.e., diversity recruitment practices) and the impact of perceived breach of these diversity-related commitments, as well as whether the relationship between these potential antecedents and outcomes differed for racial majority and minority group members.

STUDY 1 METHOD

Participants and Procedures

The final sample consisted of 263 student workers enrolled in a co-operative education program at a Canadian university, who had accepted four-month, full-time, paid work placement offers for the upcoming term. These work placements are highly sought after and competitive, as many lead to full-time employment offers post-graduation. Thus, although there are differences between temporary work placements and long-term employment (e.g., workers may or may not continue working for a specific organization), participants were recruited, selected, compensated, and evaluated, and many of their experiences reflect those of typical full-time employees.

Furthermore, prior research has successfully used this population to study organizational phenomena (e.g., Hideg & Ferris, 2017; Lubbers, Loughlin, & Zweig, 2005). Approximately half of the sample was female (55%), and 72% identified as racial minorities; out of the total sample, 41% identified as East Asian, 12% as South Asian, and 12% as Southeast Asian. On average, participants were 20.1 years old ($SD = 1.23$) and had 2.0 years ($SD = 1.72$) of work experience.

Participants completed three surveys: Time 1 (T1) occurred after hiring but prior to the start of employment when we assessed demographic variables, exposure to diversity recruitment, and perceived diversity climate promises ($n = 436$), Time 2 (T2) at the midpoint of their work term (i.e., two months after the first survey) when we assessed transactional and relational psychological contract breach and ideological diversity climate breach ($n = 291$), and Time 3 (T3) at the conclusion of the work term (i.e., two months after the second survey) when we assessed job-related attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction, continuance intentions, and recommendation behaviours) and job performance (i.e., task performance and organizational citizenship behaviours) ($n = 263$; retention rate = 60%).

To investigate potential attrition bias, we compared participants in our final sample who completed all three surveys ($n = 263$) to participants who dropped out ($n = 173$). These two groups of participants did not significantly differ in their racial group status or on their reported exposure to diversity recruitment and perceived diversity climate promises at Time 1. Therefore, attribution bias does not appear to be a concern in the current data.

Measures

Exposure to Diversity Recruitment (T1). We created this nine-item measure based on Avery and McKay's (2006) comprehensive review of the diversity recruitment literature ($\alpha = .88$). Specifically, participants were asked how frequently they were exposed to nine different

types of diversity recruitment methods (e.g., statements describing equal employment opportunity, photos depicting employees from diverse backgrounds, job ads placed in minority media outlets) from the hiring organization on a five-point scale (i.e., *never* to *very frequently*). Sample item: “Recruitment events in collaboration with minority institutions and organizations”.

As this diversity recruitment measure was newly created, we conducted a pilot study with a sample of 190 job-seekers recruited from Amazon’s Mechanical Turk (MTurk; Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). Over half of the participants were female (58.4%), 28.0% identified as racial/ethnic minorities, with an average age of 35.3 years ($SD = 11.3$), and 14.0 years ($SD = 9.9$) of job experience. Participation was limited to job seekers who had attended a job interview within the prior month, and participants were asked to think about their experiences with the *most recent company* with which they had a job interview when responding to the diversity recruitment items. Exploratory factor analysis results indicated that all nine items loaded onto a single factor (eigenvalue = 5.37) accounting for 59.6% of variance, providing evidence of unidimensionality. In addition, to ascertain whether the measure may be deficient, we asked participants to indicate whether they had been exposed to any other forms of diversity recruitment and if so, to describe the recruitment method(s) via an open-ended response. Participants did not identify additional types of diversity recruitment practices they encountered, providing evidence that the measure was comprehensive in assessing the construct space.

Perceived Ideological Diversity Climate Promises (T1). We adapted a four-item measure of diversity climate to refer to the extent to which the hiring company promised, either directly or indirectly, a positive diversity climate (McKay et al., 2008; $\alpha = .87$). Sample item: “A diversity-friendly work environment”. Responses were on a five-point Likert scale (i.e., *not promised at all* to *promised to a great extent*).

Transactional and Relational Psychological Contract Breach (T2). We adapted Turnley and Feldman's (2000) measure, removing items that were not relevant to temporary workers (e.g., retirement benefits) to create a ten-item composite measure of “traditional” psychological contract breach ($\alpha = .85$). This is consistent with the typical approach taken to assess psychological contract breach, given that there is often overlap between transactional and relational elements of the contract (e.g., training; e.g., Zhao, Wayne, & Glibkowski, 2007). We asked respondents to indicate how what they received compares to what was promised to them, either directly or indirectly, for factors that constitute transactional and relational elements of the employment contract or relationship (e.g., “salary” or “organizational support”) on a five-point Likert (i.e., *receiving much more than promised to receiving much less than promised*). Thus, this measure assesses the full-range of the psychological contract continuum, with the mid-point of the scale corresponding to fulfilment (i.e., *about the same as promised*), scores above the mid-point corresponding to breach, and scores below the mid-point corresponding to over-fulfilment.⁴

Ideological Diversity Climate Breach (T2). We also adapted McKay et al.'s (2008) diversity climate measure to assess breach ($\alpha = .86$). Specifically, respondents indicated how actual circumstances compared to what was promised, either directly or indirectly, on a five-point Likert scale ranging (i.e., *receiving much more than promised to receiving much less than promised*). Therefore, higher scores are again indicative of greater breach perceptions.

We note that we employ a “direct” measure of perceived ideological diversity climate breach, rather than an approach that assesses the discrepancy between perceived promises and delivered inducements, measured separately (e.g., Lambert, Edwards, & Cable, 2003). This

⁴ We explored potential congruence effects (i.e., exact fulfilment is ideally related to outcomes and both over-fulfilment and breach are more negatively associated with outcomes) but found no evidence of curvilinear relationships with outcomes for either “traditional” or ideological diversity climate breach in the current study.

direct approach is consistent with recent research indicating that breach can be perceived in the absence of a discrepancy between promises and delivered inducements (e.g., Lambert, 2011; Montes & Zweig, 2009).

Job Performance (T3). Supervisor ratings of overall job performance were obtained from administrative records after the completion of the work term for study participants who consented to the release of this information ($n = 169$). Specifically, this measure consisted of a single-item on a seven-point Likert scale (i.e., *unsatisfactory to outstanding*) that asks supervisors to provide an assessment of the workers' overall job performance. Participants self-reported their organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) using Spector, Bauer, and Fox's (2010) ten-item checklist measure ($\alpha = .78$). Sample item: "Offered suggestions to improve how work is done". Responses were provided on a five-point Likert scale (i.e., *never to every day*).

Job Satisfaction (T3). Job satisfaction was assessed using Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger's (1998) five-item scale ($\alpha = .88$). Sample item: "I find real enjoyment in my work". Responses were on a five-point Likert scale (i.e., *strongly disagree to strongly agree*).

Continuance Intentions (T3). Intentions to pursue further employment with the organization was assessed using a subscale of Highhouse, Stierwalt, Bachiochi, Elder, and Fisher's (2003) five-item measure ($\alpha = .92$) on a five-point Likert scale (i.e., *strongly disagree to strongly agree*). Sample item: "I would make this company one of my first choices as an employer".

Recommendation Behaviours (T3). Recommendation behaviours were assessed using Van Hove and Lievens' (2009) two-item measure, adapted to refer to providing (vs. receiving) positive word of mouth ($\alpha = .84$). Sample item: "Talking to people you know and telling them

positive things about the company”. Respondents were asked to report how much time they spent on these activities on a five-point Likert scale (i.e., *no time at all* to *very much time*).

Data Analyses

We used multiple regression analyses to model relationships between diversity recruitment and perceived diversity climate promises, between perceived diversity climate breach and employee attitudes and behaviours post-employment, as well as the moderating effects of racial minority status on these relationships.

STUDY 1 RESULTS

Pre-Employment Diversity Recruitment and Ideological Diversity Climate Promises

Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics and correlations between Study 1 variables. The average response on the perceived diversity climate promises scale ($M = 3.45$) corresponded to *promised somewhat*, indicating that, on average, job applicants perceive organizations to be making some diversity-related promises.

Multiple regression analyses reveal that exposure to diversity recruitment (T1) was positively related to perceptions of diversity climate promises (T1; $b = .41, p < .001$), supporting *Hypothesis 1* (see Supplemental Materials [SM] for full model).⁵ However, racial minority status did not moderate the relationship between diversity recruitment and perceived diversity climate promises ($b = .13, p > .05$); majority and minority group workers were equally likely to perceive these ideological diversity promises as a result of exposure to diversity recruitment, failing to support *Hypothesis 2*.⁶

⁵ Note that this table was included in the SM due to space limitations in the manuscript accepted for publication.

⁶ Because our measures of diversity recruitment and diversity climate breach were non-specific to race (i.e., they could be interpreted as including other groups such as women and older workers), we also examined whether controlling for gender and age altered our findings. Controlling for gender and age did not alter any of the results. In addition, we did not uncover moderating effects of gender or age on any of the examined relationships.

Outcomes of Perceived Diversity Climate Promises Breach during Employment

To assess the *incremental* predictive value of ideological diversity climate breach over “traditional” breach in predicting subsequent worker outcomes, we entered diversity climate breach and transactional and relational psychological contract breach simultaneously as predictors (see Table 2). Our results revealed that diversity climate breach at T2 was a significant and unique predictor of outcomes at T3, including OCBs ($b = -.14, p < .05$), continuance intentions ($b = -.21, p < .05$), and recommendation behaviours ($b = -.18, p < .01$). However, diversity climate breach did not uniquely predict job satisfaction ($b = -.04, p > .05$) or supervisor-rated job performance ($b = .09, p > .01$). Thus, we found partial support for *Hypothesis 3*.⁷

We then investigated whether relationships between ideological diversity climate breach and outcomes differed for racial majority versus minority group employees (see Table 2). Racial minority status moderated the relationship between diversity climate breach and job satisfaction ($b = .35, p < .05$), continuance intentions ($b = .62, p < .01$), and recommendation behaviours ($b = .32, p < .05$), respectively. However, contrary to our prediction, relationships between diversity climate breach and these outcomes were *weaker* for racial minority (vs. majority) workers (see Figure 1). We followed-up these analyses by examining whether racial minority status moderated the relationship between traditional psychological contract breach and these outcomes and uncovered no moderating effects. Thus, although we fail to support *Hypothesis 4*, we find

⁷ We also assessed perceptions of delivered diversity climate within the organization at Time 2 ($\alpha = .87$; McKay et al., 2008). Perceptions of delivered diversity climate were negatively correlated with diversity climate breach ($r = -.43, p < .01$). When delivered diversity climate and diversity climate breach were entered simultaneously as predictors, diversity climate breach uniquely predicted OCBs ($b = -.23, p < .01$), continuance intentions ($b = -.27, p < .01$), and recommendation behaviours ($b = -.13, p < .05$). Thus, workers’ attitudes and behaviours appear to be affected by beliefs that organizations had breached prior diversity climate promises, beyond the impact of delivered diversity climate. However, when delivered diversity climate, transactional/relational psychological contract breach, and diversity climate breach were all entered together as predictors, diversity climate breach still incrementally predicted OCBs ($b = -.21, p < .01$), but did not increment above transactional/relational psychological contract breach and delivered diversity climate to predict continuance intentions and recommendation behaviours.

some evidence that ideological diversity climate breach affects racial majority and minority employees differently, and that the moderating role of racial minority status is unique to the relationship between ideological diversity climate breach and outcomes.

STUDY 1 DISCUSSION

In line with our expectations, our results indicate that workers do perceive organizations to be making promises regarding diversity climate prior to employment, and that it appears to be an important ideological commitment in psychological contracts. Further, organizations' use of diversity recruitment practices help to explain why workers increasingly view providing a positive diversity climate as part of employers' commitments. However, contrary to our expectations, perceived diversity climate promises were similarly shaped by exposure to diversity recruitment for racial minority and majority workers.

This study also begins to illustrate the unique impact of ideological psychological breach – of diversity climate promises in particular – once workers join these organizations. Specifically, when employees perceive their organization to have breached these diversity climate promises, they expressed more negative attitudes toward their organization and engage in fewer OCBs, and these effects were above and beyond the impact of breach in transactional and relational areas of the employment relationship. These findings are consistent with emergent theorizing of ideology as a unique component of psychological contracts and suggests that diversity commitments may constitute a specific form of ideological reward important to contemporary workers. Notably, we found that breach of diversity climate promises has incremental predictive value for more organization-focused outcomes (i.e., OCBs, continuance intentions, and recommendation behaviours), but not for more job-focused outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction and overall job performance). This suggests that, by contradicting deeply help

personal values, ideological breach may undermine workers' perceptions of person-organization fit, which predicts organization-focused, but not job-focused outcomes (Cable & DeRue, 2002).

Unexpectedly, we found that fulfilment and breach of diversity climate promises appear to be more strongly related to racial *majority* (vs. minority) workers' job attitudes and behaviours. Although these findings may seem to diverge from existing research that finds that racial minorities are often more affected by diversity climate than the majority group (e.g., McKay et al., 2007; McKay et al., 2008), it should be noted that our effects involve *breach* of prior diversity promises, which is related but distinct from the level of diversity climate delivered by organizations. We further examine these differential reactions by racial group in Study 2.

STUDY 2

In Study 2, we further hone in on the unanticipated form of the interactive relationship between racial minority status and ideological diversity climate breach on worker outcomes using experimental methods (i.e., between-persons in Study 2a and within-persons in Study 2b). First, we sought to replicate the unexpected finding that racial minority group workers were less reactive than racial majority group workers to perceived breach of diversity climate promises in a context where we can rule out potential confounds that are difficult to control in field settings (e.g., minority vs. majority workers tend to find themselves in different types of work environments). Second, as our sample in Study 1 consisted mainly of racial minorities of Asian descent, in this second study we expand our sampling to include other racial minority groups (i.e., African American or Black workers) to investigate whether the effects uncovered were idiosyncratic to Asian employees or more common to racial minorities broadly.

Beyond replication and establishing generalizability, we also sought to determine whether differences in racial minority (vs. majority) workers' experiences with racial

discrimination could explain the unexpected pattern of results regarding breach reactions observed in Study 1. Specifically, we theorize that individuals with more experiences with racial discrimination may be more likely to have developed coping strategies to deal with social identity threats, resulting in more muted reactions to perceived breach of diversity climate promises. Consistent with the post-violation model of psychological contracts, workers who are less optimistic regarding the resolution of circumstances leading to breach may be more inclined to use emotion-focused coping strategies to reduce their negative affect (Tomprou, Rousseau, & Hansen, 2015). This is because individuals who have had more prior experiences with discrimination may be less likely to expect organizations to improve diversity climate to a meaningful degree, and therefore, they may be more likely to engage in coping to reduce their distress in response to breach. For example, these individuals may be more likely to rationalize the breach of diversity climate promises or accept these outcomes as “normal” (e.g., Shenoy-Packer, 2015). In fact, evidence indicates that people who experience racial discrimination may learn to respond to race-related adversity with acquiescence, as confrontation is often costly in terms of time and energy (e.g., Heslin, Bell, & Fletcher, 2012).

Because racial minorities more frequently experience racial discrimination at work compared to racial majority members (e.g., Goldman et al., 2006), we propose that group differences in experiences with racial discrimination underlies differential reactions to diversity climate breach found for racial minority (vs. majority) group workers.⁸ Specifically, we propose that experiences with racism mediates the moderating effect of racial minority status on the

⁸ We acknowledge that in Study 2a we originally assessed a several variables that we thought could potentially differ across racial groups and explain the moderating effects observed (i.e., diversity values, global fairness expectations, personal overall justice expectations, and general diversity climate expectations). However, we found no significant racial group differences on these other variables, and therefore only assessed past experiences with racial discrimination in Study 2b. Thus, for brevity, we only focus on past experiences with racial discrimination in-text.

relationship between diversity climate breach and work job performance (i.e., OCBs) and attitudes (i.e., turnover intentions and recommendation intentions), such that the effects of breach are weaker for racial minorities, compared to racial majority group members.

Hypothesis 5: Experiences with racial discrimination mediates the moderating effect of racial minority status on the relationship between ideological diversity climate breach and worker job attitudes and performance, such that effects are weaker for racial minority versus majority group members.

STUDY 2 METHOD

Participants

Study 2a. Our initial sample consisted of 558 participants (we contracted with Qualtrics Panels for approximately 180 White, Asian, and Black online participants). However, 204 participants failed our manipulation checks corresponding to their assigned condition regarding whether or not promises were made, and (if so,) whether promises made were breached. An additional 21 participants reported that we should not use their data (e.g., not paying attention or truthful). Thus, the final sample consisted of 333 full-time, American workers (retention rate = 60%); 35.7% of the sample was White ($n = 119$), 32.1% of the sample was Asian ($n = 109$), and 32.1% of the sample was Black ($n = 109$). The majority were female (71.5%). On average, participants were 39.10 years old ($SD = 12.28$) and had 17.31 years of work experience ($SD = 12.60$). Participants who were retained versus excluded did not differ by race, gender, or age.

Study 2b. Our initial sample consisted of 232 participants recruited online from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). However, 17 participants reported that we should not use their data (e.g., not paying attention or truthful), resulting in a final sample of 215 full-time, American workers (retention rate = 92.7%). We recruited

approximately equal numbers of White, Asian, and Black workers; 37.2% of the sample was White ($n = 80$), 29.8% of the sample was Asian ($n = 64$), and 33.0% of the sample was Black ($n = 71$). The majority were male (69.3%). On average, participants were 33.65 years old ($SD = 8.62$) and had 10.82 years of work experience ($SD = 9.37$). Participants who were retained versus excluded did not differ by race, gender, or age.

Procedures and Materials

In both studies, participants were pre-screened on race/ethnicity and full-time work status, and only participants who met these criteria were invited to participate in the study. All participants read vignette(s) depicting workplace situations and responded to each scenario regarding how they would act and feel. In Study 2a, each participant was randomly assigned to one of three conditions and read one vignette: (1) *no diversity climate promises* ($n = 135$), (2) *diversity climate fulfilment* ($n = 100$), and (3) *diversity climate breach* ($n = 98$). In contrast, in Study 2b, each participant was presented with all three vignettes (order randomized), with one vignette representing each condition, resulting in a total of 645 valid responses.

We originally chose a between-subjects design in Study 2a because this type of design is less likely to be subject to demand effects compared to within-subjects designs, as the factors being manipulated should be less obvious to participants (Charness, Gneezy, & Kuhn, 2012). However, other authors have argued that best practices in experimental vignette methodology recommend exposure to multiple vignettes as it helps to anchor responses, which should then more accurately reflect the true reactions or behavioural intentions of participants (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). This latter method may also more closely mirror workers' actual cognitive processes in psychological contracting as comparisons between current and past employment experiences are argued to be important in this process (e.g., Morrison & Robinson, 1997;

Sherman & Morley, 2015). Furthermore, as within-subjects designs do not depend on random assignment to equate participants across conditions, there is greater certainty that effects are due to study variables and not to unspecified differences between experimental groups (Charness et al., 2012). Given these benefits, we conducted Study 2b using a within-subjects design.

Each vignette described that the participant had worked in the organization for one year, and the company had made efforts towards fostering a positive diversity climate (e.g., “the company and its leaders try to value and support diversity”) to hold delivered diversity climate constant. In the *no promises condition*, participants were told they did not receive information regarding diversity climate during recruitment, and therefore, did not perceive any diversity climate promises were made. In the *fulfilment condition*, participants were told they felt they were promised a (highly) supportive diversity climate during recruitment, and that the company had generally delivered on this promise. Finally, in the *breach condition*, participants were told they felt they were promised a highly supportive diversity climate during recruitment, but that the company had generally breached this promise (see SM for all stimuli materials).

Although there were multiple ways our manipulations could have been operationalized, our choices reflect the most realistic and interpretable scenarios. For example, although fulfilment could conceptually also be achieved by promising and delivering a poor diversity climate, it seems unlikely that an organization would seek to make this type of promise during recruitment. Additionally, to minimize confounds, we sought to hold constant some features across conditions. Our choices were: (1) hold constant pre-employment diversity climate promises and manipulate delivered diversity climate, or (2) manipulate pre-employment diversity climate promises and hold constant delivered diversity climate. We chose the latter in Study 2a because we thought *no promises* was a meaningful control condition and seemed plausible given

that some organizations subscribe to a “color blind” ideology and may not provide information or be perceived to make promises regarding diversity climate (e.g., Plaut et al., 2011), whereas it may be difficult to describe a “neutral” or “moderate” diversity climate. Furthermore, by holding constant and describing the delivered diversity climate within the organization as fairly positive, this serves as a conservative test of the negative outcomes that can happen when breach occurs.

However, we recognize that this approach assumes that discrepancy between promises and inducements is necessary for perceptions of breach and lack of discrepancy is largely isomorphic with perceptions of fulfilment. Research has shown that this is not always the case; for example, workers can perceive breach regardless of whether there is a discrepancy between promises and inducements (e.g., Montes & Zweig, 2009). Thus, in Study 2b, in the breach and fulfilment conditions, we also held constant both initial promises (i.e., a very positive and supportive diversity climate), in addition to delivered diversity climate (i.e., some efforts have been made by the organization to create a positive diversity climate), and only varied participants' *appraisal* of the discrepancy as reflective of breach or fulfilment, respectively. Thus, this serves as a more stringent test of our hypotheses as the situation is now the same (but they are directed to interpret it differently) and rules out differential initial promises as a potential confound.

Finally, best practice recommendations for experimental vignette methodology cautions that researchers should be careful of possible *omitted variables*; specifically, since vignettes provide participants with limited information, participants may make their own inferences about variables that go beyond what was stated (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). In Study 2a, the vignettes only described breach or fulfilment of *diversity climate promises*, but we realized that participants could potentially be inferring that the organization also breached or fulfilled *other aspects* of the psychological contract (e.g., pay and developmental opportunities). Thus, in Study

2b, each vignette also specified that the organization had fulfilled promises with regards to transactional and relational aspects of the employment relationship. By holding constant fulfilment of other aspects of the psychological contract, we have greater confidence that the observed effects are unique to fulfilment or breach of ideological diversity climate promises.

Measures

OCBs. We used the same measure from Study 1 (Spector et al., 2010; Study 2a $\alpha = .91$; Study 2b $\alpha = .89$), adapted to refer to participants' likelihood of engaging in each behaviour. Therefore, the five-point Likert response scale was changed to *very unlikely* to *very likely*.

Turnover Intentions. We used a two-item measure of turnover intentions (Study 2a $\alpha = .85$; Study 2b $\alpha = .84$; Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011). Sample item: "How likely are you to... think frequently about quitting your job?" Responses were on a five-point Likert scale (i.e., *very unlikely* to *very likely*). Note that we focused on turnover intentions rather than continuance intentions in this study because the default among full-time permanent workers, the population sampled in the current investigations, is continued employment.

Recommendation Intentions. We used the same measure from Study 1 (Van Hoye & Lievens, 2009; Study 2a $\alpha = .89$; Study 2b $\alpha = .78$), adapted to refer to intentions with a five-point Likert scale (i.e., *very unlikely* to *very likely*).

Experiences with Racial Discrimination. We used Landrine and Klonoff's (1996) 17-item measure (Study 2a $\alpha = .97$; Study 2b $\alpha = .98$). Sample item: "How many times have you been treated unfairly by your coworkers, fellow students, and colleagues because of your race/ethnicity?" Responses were on a six-point Likert scale (i.e., *never* to *almost all of the time*).

Data Analyses

For Study 2a, we used multiple regression analyses to model the direct and interactive relationships between ideological diversity climate promises condition (i.e., no promises, fulfilment, and breach) and worker race (i.e., White, Asian, and Black) on workers' intentions to turnover, recommend the organization, and engage in OCBs, respectively. We then followed-up with analyses of variance (ANOVAs) within each condition (i.e., simple effects) to unpack significant interactions. We also examined whether prior experiences with racial discrimination mediated racial majority vs. minority workers' differential reactions to the fulfilment and breach of diversity climate promises using the approach outlined by Grant and Berry (2011). For Study 2b, we followed the same process, but used multilevel modeling due to the within-subjects design and resultant two-level nature of the data (i.e., vignette- and respondent-level).

STUDY 2 RESULTS

Study 2a

Means, standard deviations, and correlations between Study 2 variables are reported in the SM.⁹ We first sought to replicate the moderating effect of race on reactions to diversity climate breach observed in Study 1 (see Table 3). Race did not interact with condition to significantly increment the prediction of OCBs or turnover intentions. However, the race X condition interaction did marginally improve the prediction of recommendation intentions, and this effect appeared to be driven by the marginally significant interaction between the Black and the Fulfilment Condition dummy variables ($b = -.56, p = .052$; see Figure 2, left panel).¹⁰

⁹ Note that these tables appear in supplemental materials due to space limitations in the manuscript accepted for publication.

¹⁰ Because the samples in Study 2a and Study 2b differ in composition in terms of gender, we examined whether results differed when gender is controlled for in both studies. Controlling for gender did not alter the results in either Study 2a or Study 2b.

Simple effects revealed that there was only a significant effect of race within the Fulfilment Condition, $F(2, 97) = 4.35, p < .05, \eta^2 = 0.08$. Although workers were less likely to recommend their organization when it breached diversity climate promises and more likely to recommend it when it fulfilled diversity climate promises relative to when no promises were made, follow-up *t*-tests with Bonferroni corrections indicate that Black employees were less likely to intend to recommend their organization when they fulfilled diversity climate promises compared to their White, $t(66) = 2.73, p < .05, d = 0.70$, and to a lesser extent, Asian counterparts, $t(55) = 2.07, p = .073, d = 0.59$.

We then sought to explain *why* employees of different racial backgrounds reacted differently to how organizations managed ideological diversity climate promises. A one-way ANOVA revealed that the three groups in our study differed significantly in their past experiences with racial discrimination, $F(2, 330) = 12.32, p < .001, \eta^2 = 0.07$. Follow-up *t*-tests with Bonferroni corrections revealed that White participants reported fewer experiences with racial discrimination compared to Asian, $t(224) = 2.79, p < .05, d = 0.38$, and Black participants, $t(224) = 4.82, p < .001, d = 0.65$, whereas the two racial minority groups did not significantly differ from each other, $t(212) = 2.13, p > .05, d = 0.29$. Thus, past experiences with racial discrimination differed by racial minority (vs. majority) status as theorized.

Next, we entered interactions between experiences with racial discrimination and condition to predict recommendation intentions, and these terms improved prediction of this outcome (see Table 3, Model 2). Further, when these interaction terms were entered simultaneously with the interaction terms between race and condition, the latter terms became non-significant, which is indicative of mediation (Muller, Judd, & Yzerbyt, 2005). This interaction is depicted in Figure 3; individuals with fewer experiences with racial discrimination

demonstrated the strongest increase in recommendation intentions when comparing the diversity climate fulfilment versus no promises or breach conditions, whereas the relationship was weaker for those who had more experiences with racial discrimination. Thus, it appears that greater experiences with racial discrimination helps to explain Black participants' lower likelihood of recommending their organization when it has fulfilled its ideological diversity climate promises.

Although participant race did not moderate the relationship between condition and turnover intentions or OCBs, we also examined whether experiences with racial discrimination would moderate these relationships directly. There was no significant interaction in predicting turnover intentions. However, experiences with racial discrimination interacted with condition to predict OCB intentions (see Table 3, Model 2). This interaction is depicted in Figure 3; the pattern is similar to what was found for recommendation intentions, with individuals with more (vs. fewer) experiences with discrimination demonstrating a weaker reaction, in terms of intentions to help, when organizations fulfilled diversity climate promises (versus when no promises were made or diversity climate promises were breached).

To formally examine the significance of the mediated moderating effect, we followed procedures outlined by Grant and Berry (2011) and employed bootstrapping, whereby we bootstrapped 1,000 samples, to derive bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals. The indirect moderating effect of participant race (i.e., White = 0 vs. Black = 1) on the relationship between diversity climate fulfillment (vs. no promises) on participants' attitudes and behavioral intentions via past experiences with discrimination was significant for OCBs (estimate = $-.19$, 95% CI [$-.376$, $-.035$]) and recommendation intentions (estimate = $-.20$, 95% CI [$-.429$, $-.008$]), but was non-significant for turnover intentions (estimate = $.03$, 95% CI [$-.207$, $.260$]). Similar results were obtained when contrasting White and Asian participants, such that the indirect moderating

effect of participant race (i.e., White = 0 vs. Asian = 1) on the relationship between diversity climate fulfillment (vs. no promises) on participants' attitudes and behavioral intentions via past experiences with discrimination was significant for OCBs (estimate = -.11, 95% CI [-.244, -.014]) and recommendation intentions (estimate = -.11, 95% CI [-.279, -.003]), but not for turnover intentions (estimate = .02, 95% CI [-.123, .168]). Thus, although we do not find support for *Hypothesis 5*, as the uncovered effects are centred on *fulfilment* rather than breach, our results are generally consistent with our theorizing in that racial minorities have more muted reactions than their majority counterparts to their organization's diversity-related actions around promises.

Study 2b

Again, we first tried to replicate the direct moderating effect of race on reactions to diversity climate breach. Similar to Study 2a, race did not significantly interact with condition to incrementally predict OCBs or turnover intentions, but did for recommendation intentions (see Table 4). In contrast to Study 2a, this was driven by a significant interaction between the Black and Breach Condition dummy variables ($\gamma = .54, p < .001$; see Figure 2, right panel). Simple effects revealed that there was only a race effect in the Breach condition, $F(2, 212) = 5.32, p < .01, \eta^2 = 0.05$. Thus, although workers were generally less likely to intend to recommend the organization when diversity climate promises were breached (compared to when no promises were made), follow-up *t*-tests with Bonferroni corrections indicate that Black employees were significantly *more* likely to intend to recommend their organization when they breached diversity climate promises relative to White, $t(149) = 2.57, p < .05, d = 0.42$ and Asian workers, $t(133) = 2.89, p < .01, d = 0.51$.

Results of a one-way ANOVA again indicate that race significantly predicted experiences with racial discrimination, $F(2, 212) = 29.77, p < .001, \eta^2 = 0.22$. Follow-up *t*-tests with

Bonferroni corrections revealed that White participants reported significantly fewer experiences with racial discrimination compared to both Asian $t(142) = 4.70, p < .001, d = 0.67$, and Black participants ($M = 3.46, SD = 1.44$), $t(149) = 7.63, p < .001, d = 1.10$. Additionally, in this sample, Asian participants reported significantly fewer experiences with racial discrimination compared to Black participants, $t(133) = 2.71, p < .05, d = 0.43$.

We then entered interactions between experiences with racial discrimination and condition to predict recommendation intentions, and these terms did significantly improve prediction of this outcome (see Table 4, Model 2). Additionally, when these interaction terms were included in the equation, the race and condition interaction became non-significant, indicating that experiences with racial discrimination mediated the effect of participant race on moderating the condition to outcome relationship. This interaction is depicted in Figure 3; individuals with fewer experiences with racial discrimination demonstrated the strongest decrease in recommendation intentions in the breach versus the no promises or fulfilment conditions, whereas the relationship was weaker for those who had more experiences with racial discrimination. In fact, workers with higher levels of experience with discrimination appear to be non-reactive to both diversity climate fulfilment and breach.

Although we did not observe a significant interaction between race and condition in predicting OCBs and turnover intentions, experiences with racial discrimination did interact with condition to predict both outcomes (see Table 4). These interactions are depicted in the lower panel of Figure 3. In line with the pattern observed for recommendation intentions, participants who have experienced less discrimination reacted more negatively (i.e., intend to withhold OCBs and increase turnover intentions) when diversity climate promises were breached (vs. when no

promises were made or when promises were fulfilled) compared to participants who have experienced more discrimination, who did not intend to change their attitudes and behaviours.

To test the significance of the mediated moderating effect, we again derived bias-corrected 95% confidence interval around our indirect effects. Supporting *Hypothesis 5*, the indirect moderating effect of participant race (i.e., White = 0 vs. Black = 1) on the within-person relationship between diversity climate breach (vs. no promises) on participants' attitudes and behavioral intentions via past experiences with discrimination was significant for OCBs (estimate = .22, 95% CI [.056, .401]), recommendation intentions (estimate = .64, 95% CI [.406, .918]), and turnover intentions (estimate = -.64, 95% CI [-.901, -.398]). Similar results were obtained when contrasting White and Asian participants, such that the indirect moderating effect of participant race (i.e., White = 0 vs. Asian = 1) on the within-person relationship between diversity climate breach (vs. no promises) on participants' attitudes and behavioral intentions via past experiences with discrimination was significant for all three outcomes (OCB estimate = .13, 95% CI [.033, .273]; recommendation intentions estimate = .39, 95% CI [.198, .607]; turnover intentions estimate = -.39, 95% CI [-.623, -.187]).

STUDY 2 DISCUSSION

The findings of our experimental studies generally corroborate our field results from Study 1 in that the fulfilment or breach of ideological diversity-related psychological contracts affects worker attitudes and behaviours and does so differently for racial minority versus majority group workers. However, there were some differences between the findings of our between- and within-subjects experiment. Specifically, the effect of participant race was focused on the diversity climate fulfilment condition in Study 2a versus the diversity climate breach condition in Study 2b, though in both cases Black and Asian (vs. White) workers were less

reactive (i.e., less likely to increase recommendations when promises are fulfilled and less likely to withdraw recommendations when promises are breached relative to no promises made). These differences could simply be due to design; for example, perhaps diversity climate breach is seen as particularly negative when directly cognitively contrasted against other, more desirable workplace situations (e.g., Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001). Alternatively, because we only provided explicit information that transactional and relational promises were fulfilled in the within-subjects experiment, it is possible that the meaning of breaking promises generally versus an organization's breach of perceived diversity climate promises while upholding other commitments is interpreted differently by workers (e.g., as more intentional).

Seeking to extend beyond replicating Study 1 results, in this second study we also sought to uncover whether the moderating effect of participant race can be explained by differences between racial/ethnic groups in their past experiences with racial discrimination. Our mediated moderation results generally supported this explanation. In both experiments, racial minority workers reported more frequent experiences with discrimination than their majority group counterparts, and past experiences with discrimination moderated the relationship between diversity-related psychological contract condition and employee attitudes and behavioral intentions (except for turnover intentions in Study 2a). Specifically, racial minority participants, who on average had more prior experiences with racial discrimination, were generally *less* reactive to the breach (in Study 2b) or fulfilment (in Study 2a) of ideological diversity-related psychological contracts compared to racial majority group participants.

These findings are consistent with our explanation that workers who have experienced racial discrimination more frequently may be more likely to have adopted coping behaviours that reduce the negative impact of social identity threats, resulting in more muted negative responses

to perceived breach of diversity climate promises. However, although these participants may be to some extent protected from the harms that occur due to breaches of ideological diversity-related psychological contracts, they may also be most likely to fail to benefit from the fulfilment of these components of psychological contracts. This could be because individuals with greater prior experiences with racial discrimination tend to expect poorer treatment in the workplace, and this vigilance toward negative events and outcomes results in more muted reactions to the unexpected fulfilment of diversity climate promises (i.e., they have fewer resources available to engage in positive exchanges with the organization). Alternately, individuals with prior experiences with racial discrimination may still anticipate that they will eventually face some form of race-related adversity in the workplace, leading to more tempered positive reactions to current diversity climate promise fulfilment (i.e., waiting for the other shoe to drop).

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The broad goal of the present research was to examine whether shifts in societal values and organizational practices regarding diversity has influenced psychological contracting in organizations and the impact of this evolution in the workplace. Overall, our findings substantiate that diversity is indeed an important aspect of contemporary workers' psychological contracts and serves as an ideological inducement. Additionally, our results highlight that prevalent organizational use of diversity recruitment methods helps to explain why workers of all racial/ethnic backgrounds now see diversity management as an important part of employers' commitments in the employment relationship. Furthermore, the fulfilment or breach of diversity-related aspects of the psychological contract influences workers' job attitudes and behaviours and does so above and beyond fulfilment or breach regarding more "traditional" components of psychological contracts (i.e., transactional and relational inducements, such as pay and support).

Finally, racial minority group workers appear to be less reactive to both the fulfilment and breach of diversity climate promises compared to racial majority group workers, and this effect appears to be explained by their more frequent prior experiences with racial discrimination.

Our research contributes by integrating different theoretical perspectives (i.e., signaling and social identity theories) as well as disparate research literatures (i.e., psychological contracts, recruitment, and diversity management) to enhance our understanding of the ideological dimension of the psychological contract, highlighting diversity climate as an ideological commitment that has unique implications for contemporary workers. Notably, we also show that breach and fulfilment of ideological commitments may not have equal impacts across workers, and that its effects likely vary depending on workers' backgrounds and life experiences. In doing so, we follow in the footsteps of researchers who have examined moderators of relationships between traditional forms of psychological contract breach and outcomes (e.g., age; Bal, De Lange, Jansen, & Van Der Velde, 2008), but tread new ground by uncovering moderators that may be unique to ideological contract breach and fulfilment. Importantly, we find initial evidence supporting our theoretical arguments that moderators of responses to ideological contract breach may operate via unique mechanisms; specifically, differing responses to self- and group-identity threat. Thus, beyond highlighting the role of diversity as an important ideological commitment in modern employment, our findings point to social identity processes as a promising avenue for future researchers seeking to understand how and why individuals may differ in their responses to *other* forms of ideological contract fulfilment or breach.

Our counterintuitive findings regarding the moderating role of racial minority status and prior experiences with racial discrimination also suggest that workers are not simply passive recipients of ideological contract breach. Rather, based on their prior experiences, they may have

learned to employ certain strategies or behaviours that help mitigate the negative impacts of the breach of ideological psychological contracts. This highlights a potentially unique feature of ideological contract breach in comparison to traditional psychological contract breach – because identity threat resulting from ideological breach is thought to produce a state of dissonance or internal psychological discomfort, workers may be particularly motivated to employ the cognitive strategies at their disposal (e.g., rationalization) to mitigate these threats (e.g., Elliot & Devine, 1994; Stone & Cooper 2001). This is in contrast to breach of transactional or relational contracts, where it tends to be more evident that the organization (and not the self) is the source of the discrepancy (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003), which may be more likely to motivate outward actions to rebalance the relationship (e.g., Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008). The fact that racial minority status did not moderate the relations between traditional breach (i.e., transactional and relational) and outcomes in Study 1 provides further evidence that this may be the case. Overall, our results highlight some potentially important differences between ideological and more traditional conceptualizations of psychological contract breach and provide direction to researchers seeking to understand how workers' responses to these may differ.

Our moderation findings are also consistent with theory that workers' behaviours in the aftermath of psychological contract breach can differ depending the perceived likelihood that the conditions leading to breach can be fruitfully resolved, as well as on worker vulnerability (Tomprou & Bankins, 2019; Tomprou et al., 2015). Specifically, because racial minorities and workers who have frequently experienced discrimination in the past generally face disadvantages in workplaces and may be less optimistic about the prospects of organizations improving their diversity climates, they may be more likely than majority group workers to engage in coping behaviours that reduce negative affect in the face of diversity-related breach (Tomprou &

Bankins, 2019; Tomprou et al., 2015). In contrast, majority group workers may instead engage in problem-focused coping (e.g., complaining or withholding recommendations), as they may be more likely than minority workers to perceive that such actions may have meaningful impacts on improving working conditions relating to diversity (Tomprou et al., 2015).

Practically, this work also provides guidance to organizations about the diversity-related promises that applicants perceive based on diversity recruitment methods. Research to date on diversity recruitment has focused mainly on its positive impacts (e.g., Casper et al., 2013; Highhouse et al., 1999), but this work suggests that organizations attempting to diversify their workforces through the use of these practices should do so with caution or care, as workers are likely to perceive the use of these methods as promises that will need to be upheld in the work environment and perceptions that the organization has breached these promises leads to negative consequences (e.g., negative worker attitudes and behaviours). Thus, our findings highlight the importance of organizations “walking the talk” when it comes to diversity issues.

Finally, the original impetus behind the use of diversity recruitment was to increase the representation and retention of under-represented minority workers in organizations (e.g., Avery & McKay, 2006). However, our data suggests that due to typically greater prior experiences with racial discrimination, organizations may have a more difficult time earning the goodwill of racial minority (vs. majority) workers when they fulfill their end of the bargain by providing the positive diversity climate they had initially promised. Rather, it seems that it is the attitudes and actions of racial majority group workers, who are typically not the target of diversity recruitment practices, which are most likely to be affected—both positively and negatively.

Limitations and Future Directions

Despite our use of multiple studies to replicate and triangulate results, our study is not without limitations. One limitation is that our work was conducted with only North American samples, and our findings may not generalize to other cultural contexts. Although increased *diversity* is an important worldwide phenomenon and companies in most countries practice diversity management due to shifts in population demographics, the global economy, and the globalization of markets, national contexts may nevertheless influence ideological diversity-related psychological contracting in yet unexplored ways. As culture defines what constitutes diversity (Sawyer & Thoroughgood, 2012), we encourage future research that examines whether and how national differences in workers' attitudes toward diversity and average levels of racial or gender homogeneity in a cultural context may shape diversity-related psychological contracts.

Another key limitation is that although we find that experiences with racial discrimination play a critical role in determining how workers react to the breach and fulfillment of diversity-related psychological contracts, we do not directly assess the mechanisms that give rise to these effects. For example, we do not measure the posited differential coping strategies adopted by individuals who are subject to more versus less discrimination in their lifetime. Thus, we acknowledge that alternative mechanisms are possible and should be investigated. As an example, drawing from a social exchange perspective, another explanation could be that workers with more frequent experiences of racial discrimination may consider a positive diversity climate to be basic right or expectation as opposed to a valued ideal. Alternatively, positive diversity climates may less effectively signal that an organization is respectful and caring to those who have had more frequent experiences with discrimination, compared to those who have had fewer, as they may be less likely to trust that positive conditions will last (e.g., Thoroughgood, Sawyer,

& Webster, 2017). Therefore, these workers may not perceive fulfilment of diversity-related commitments to be effective ideological inducements, resulting in muted positive reactions.

Our work also highlights the need for further investigation into the contents of ideological psychological contracts. In particular, our findings of the broadly negative impacts of diversity climate breach contrasts with some prior work indicating that ideological breach can result in an *increase* of work effort, as workers may engage corrective behaviour to ameliorate situations that violate their personal values (Vantilborgh et al., 2014). These contrasting findings suggest that breach of differing types of ideological commitments may have distinct implications. For example, workers may increase their efforts when breached ideological commitments are in areas over which they have some control, but react negatively when they perceive that personal action will not have any substantive impact. Thus, our findings of broadly negative responses to diversity climate breach may be because employees generally perceive they have limited control over this aspect of the workplace. Future work is needed to clarify the types of ideological commitments that workers perceive and how responses may differ.

Finally, we focus on racial minority status as a moderator of the relation between diversity recruitment and perceived diversity climate promises, as well as of the relation between diversity climate breach and worker job performance and attitudes. However, given that the independent measures (i.e., diversity recruitment and diversity climate breach) did not focus specifically on race and could be interpreted to include other disadvantaged groups (e.g., women and older workers), we also explored whether gender and age moderated these relationships but found no significant effects. One potential explanation for this is that racial diversity is a particularly salient focus of organizations' diversity practices, such that workers tend to associate diversity practices with the promotion and support for racial diversity rather than gender or age

diversity. Thus, future research is needed to examine the implications of diversity recruitment or diversity climate pertaining to *specific* groups. For example, our current findings suggest that it could be the case that age could moderate the relation between *age* diversity climate breach, when assessed directly, and outcomes, such that older workers (who tend to have experienced more age-related discrimination) are less reactive to this breach, compared to younger workers.

Conclusion

The overarching purpose of the present research was to examine the role of diversity as a major societal and workplace force in shaping contemporary psychological contracting. In two complementary studies, we integrated multiple relevant theories (i.e., signaling and social identity theories) and drew on previously disparate literatures (i.e., psychological contracts, recruitment, and diversity management) to deepen our understanding of organizations' ideological commitments regarding diversity and their role in workers' psychological contracts. Overall, our findings support that diversity is an important ideological consideration in modern employment relationships, and provide novel insights and suggest future directions regarding the potentially unique mechanisms and impacts that distinguish the ideological from the transactional and relational dimensions of the psychological contract..

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Alpha Reliabilities for Study 1 Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Racial Minority Status (T1)	0.72	0.45	—									
2. Exposure to Diversity Recruitment (T1)	2.50	0.83	.15**	(.88)								
3. Perceived Diversity Climate Promises (T1)	3.45	1.00	.08	.35**	(.87)							
4. Ideological Diversity Climate Breach (T2)	2.62	0.67	-.05	-.16**	-.08	(.86)						
5. Transactional/Relational Psychological Contract Breach (T2)	2.90	0.54	-.04	-.08	.04	.39**	(.85)					
6. Supervisor-Rated Job Performance (T3)	6.09	0.86	-.01	.05	.07	.02	-.08	—				
7. OCBs (T3)	2.66	0.63	.06	.11	.29**	-.18**	-.12	.09	(.78)			
8. Job Satisfaction (T3)	3.63	0.82	-.03	.12*	-.04	-.19**	-.40**	.16*	.02	(.88)		
9. Continuance Intentions (T3)	3.59	0.94	.03	.15*	-.07	-.28**	-.38**	.02	-.04	.66**	(.92)	
10. Recommendation Behaviours (T3)	3.57	0.66	-.03	.19**	.06	-.26**	-.27**	.04	.07	.55**	.60**	(.84)

Note: $N = 263$. Racial Minority Status was coded as 0 = Whites 1 = Racial Minorities; Gender was coded as 0 = Male 1 = Female. The numbers on the diagonal are alpha reliability coefficients. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 2. Multiple Regression Results of Diversity Climate Breach Predicting Worker Outcomes in Study 1

Predictors	Supervisor-Rated Job Performance		Organizational Citizenship Behaviours		Job Satisfaction		Continuance Intentions		Recommendation Behaviours	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Intercept	6.02*** (.12)	6.02*** (.12)	2.61*** (.07)	2.61*** (.07)	3.66*** (.09)	3.67*** (.09)	3.52*** (.10)	3.53*** (.10)	3.60*** (.07)	3.61*** (.07)
Racial Minority Status	.05 (.14)	.05 (.15)	.10 (.08)	.10 (.08)	-.07 (.10)	-.07 (.10)	.07 (.12)	.06 (.12)	-.06 (.08)	-.06 (.08)
Transactional/Relational Psychological Contract Breach	-.17 (.14)	-.17 (.14)	-.07 (.08)	-.07 (.08)	-.58*** (.10)	-.56*** (.10)	-.56*** (.11)	-.53*** (.11)	-.23** (.08)	-.21** (.08)
Diversity Climate Breach	.09 (.12)	.04 (.20)	-.14* (.07)	-.15 (.12)	-.04 (.08)	-.30* (.14)	-.21* (.09)	-.66*** (.16)	-.18* (.07)	-.42*** (.12)
Moderating Effects										
Diversity Climate Breach x Racial Minority Status	—	-.07 (.22)	—	.01 (.13)	—	.35* (.16)	—	.62** (.18)	—	.32* (.13)
R^2 (no interaction term model)	.01	—	.04	—	.16	—	.16	—	.10	—
ΔR^2 (after adding interaction terms)	—	.00	—	.00	—	.02*	—	.04**	—	.02*

Note: $N = 169$ for supervisor-rated job performance and 263 for all other outcomes. Values are unstandardized regression coefficients; standard error estimates are in parentheses. Racial Minority Status was coded as 0 = Racial Majority (i.e., White); 1 = Racial Minorities; *** $p < .001$ ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Table 3. Multiple Regression Analyses of Diversity Promises Condition, Race, and Past Experiences with Racism Predicting Worker Intentions in Study 2a

	OCBs		Turnover Intentions		Recommendation Intentions	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Intercept	3.67** (.11)	3.73** (.12)	2.63** (.16)	2.77** (.17)	3.70** (.14)	3.77** (.14)
Asian Dummy Variable	-.04 (.16)	-.08 (.16)	.25 (.23)	.13 (.23)	-.21 (.19)	-.27 (.20)
Black Dummy Variable	.01 (.15)	-.08 (.16)	.06 (.22)	-.19 (.23)	.00 (.18)	-.12 (.20)
Breach Dummy Variable	-.10 (.17)	-.15 (.17)	.66** (.24)	.53* (.24)	-.59** (.21)	-.66** (.21)
Fulfilment Dummy Variable	.35* (.16)	.24 (.16)	-.30 (.23)	-.34 (.23)	.56 (.19)	.44* (.20)
Asian X Breach	.00 (.24)	-.01 (.24)	-.15 (.34)	-.16 (.34)	.40 (.29)	.38 (.29)
Asian X Fulfilment	-.13 (.23)	-.06 (.23)	-.26 (.34)	-.20 (.33)	.13 (.28)	.21 (.28)
Black X Breach	-.01 (.24)	.03 (.24)	.21 (.34)	.32 (.35)	-.24 (.29)	-.20 (.30)
Black X Fulfilment	-.12 (.24)	.03 (.24)	.60† (.34)	.72* (.35)	-.56† (.29)	-.39 (.30)
R^2 (no interaction term model)	.046		.119		.164	
ΔR^2 (after adding interaction terms)	.001		.016		.022†	
Experiences with Racism						
Experiences with Racism		.10 (.07)		.28** (.11)		.14 (.09)
Exp. with Racism X Breach		.01 (.10)		.00 (.14)		.04 (.12)
Exp. with Racism X Fulfilment		-.26* (.11)		.04 (.16)		-.27* (.13)
ΔR^2 (no interaction term model)		.002		.061**		.007
ΔR^2 (after adding interaction terms)		.023*		.000		.015*

Note. $N = 333$. White serves as the referent group for race and the no promises condition serves as the referent group for condition. Experiences with racism has been standardized prior to analyses. † denotes a marginal level of significance. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 4. Multilevel Modeling Analyses of Diversity Climate Promises Condition, Race, and Past Experiences with Racism Predicting Worker Intentions in Study 2b

	OCBs		Turnover Intentions		Recommendation Intentions	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Intercept	3.80** (.08)	3.89** (.08)	2.27** (.13)	2.78** (.11)	3.96** (.10)	3.99** (.10)
Asian Dummy Variable	-.11 (.12)	-.22 (.12)	.40* (.19)	-.21 (.16)	-.14 (.15)	-.18 (.14)
Black Dummy Variable	.02 (.12)	-.16 (.13)	.92** (.19)	-.08 (.16)	.10 (.14)	-.16 (.15)
Breach Dummy Variable	-.39** (.11)	-.28** (.08)	.83** (.18)	.50** (.13)	-1.04** (.14)	-.72** (.13)
Fulfilment Dummy Variable	.13 (.11)	.07 (.08)	-.24 (.18)	-.19 (.13)	.25 (.14)	.17 (.13)
Asian X Breach	-.20 (.17)	-.33** (.11)	.00 (.27)	.39* (.19)	.04 (.21)	-.35 (.19)
Asian X Fulfilment	-.01 (.17)	.06 (.11)	-.07 (.27)	-.13 (.19)	-.05 (.21)	.04 (.19)
Black X Breach	.11 (.16)	-.12 (.12)	-.36 (.26)	.28 (.20)	.54** (.20)	-.09 (.20)
Black X Fulfilment	-.08 (.16)	.21 (.12)	-.12 (.26)	-.22 (.20)	.05 (.20)	.21 (.20)
Experiences with Racism						
Experiences with Racism		.11** (.03)		.60** (.05)		.04 (.04)
Exp. with Racism X Breach		.13** (.03)		-.38** (.06)		.38** (.05)
Exp. with Racism X Fulfilment		-.08* (.03)		.06 (.06)		-.10 (.05)

Note. $N=645$. White serves as the referent group for race and the no promises condition serves as the referent group for condition. * $p<.05$
** $p<.01$

Figure 1. Interaction of Racial Minority Status and Diversity Climate Breach on Job Satisfaction, Continuance Intentions and Recommendation Behaviours from Study 1

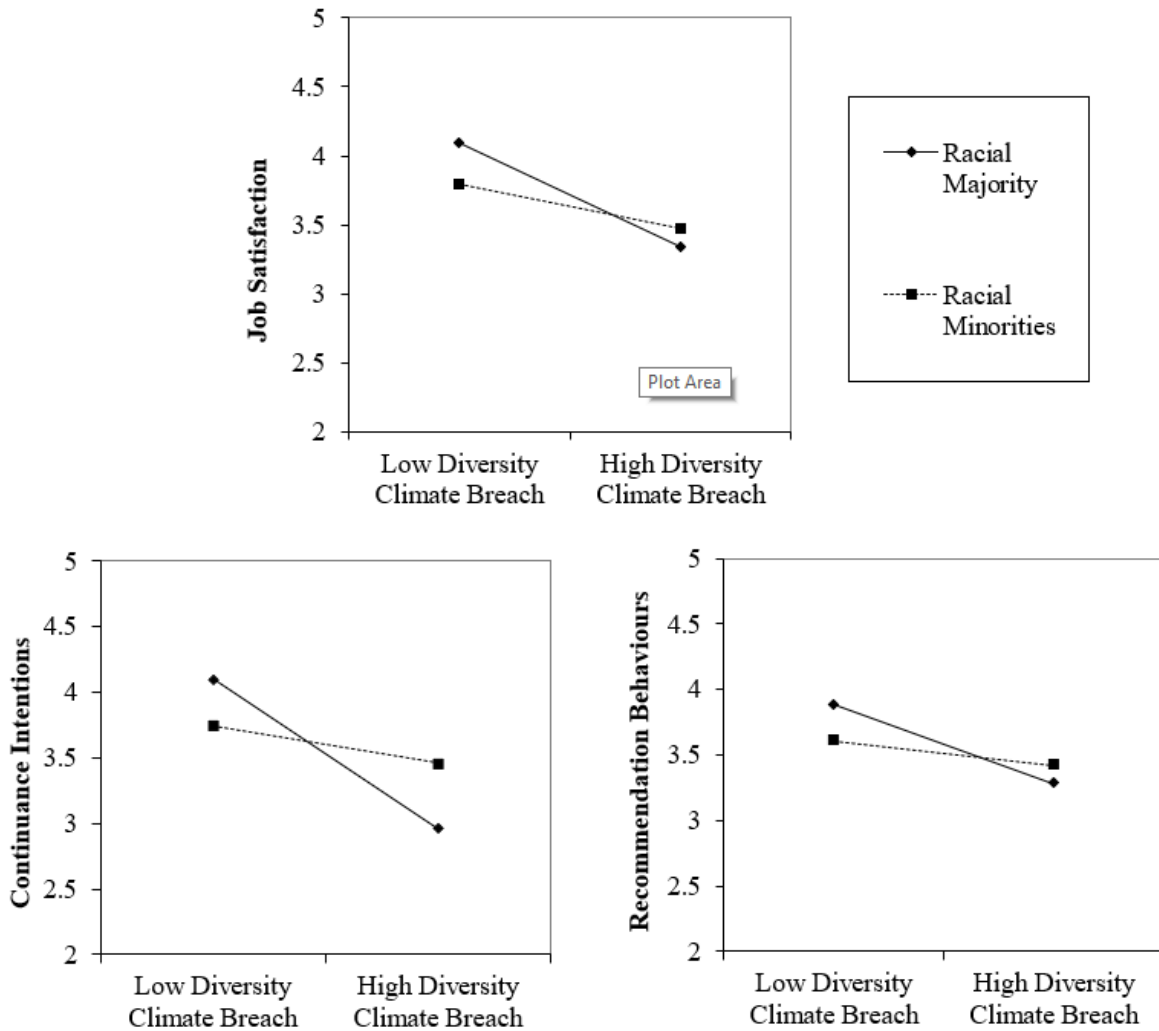
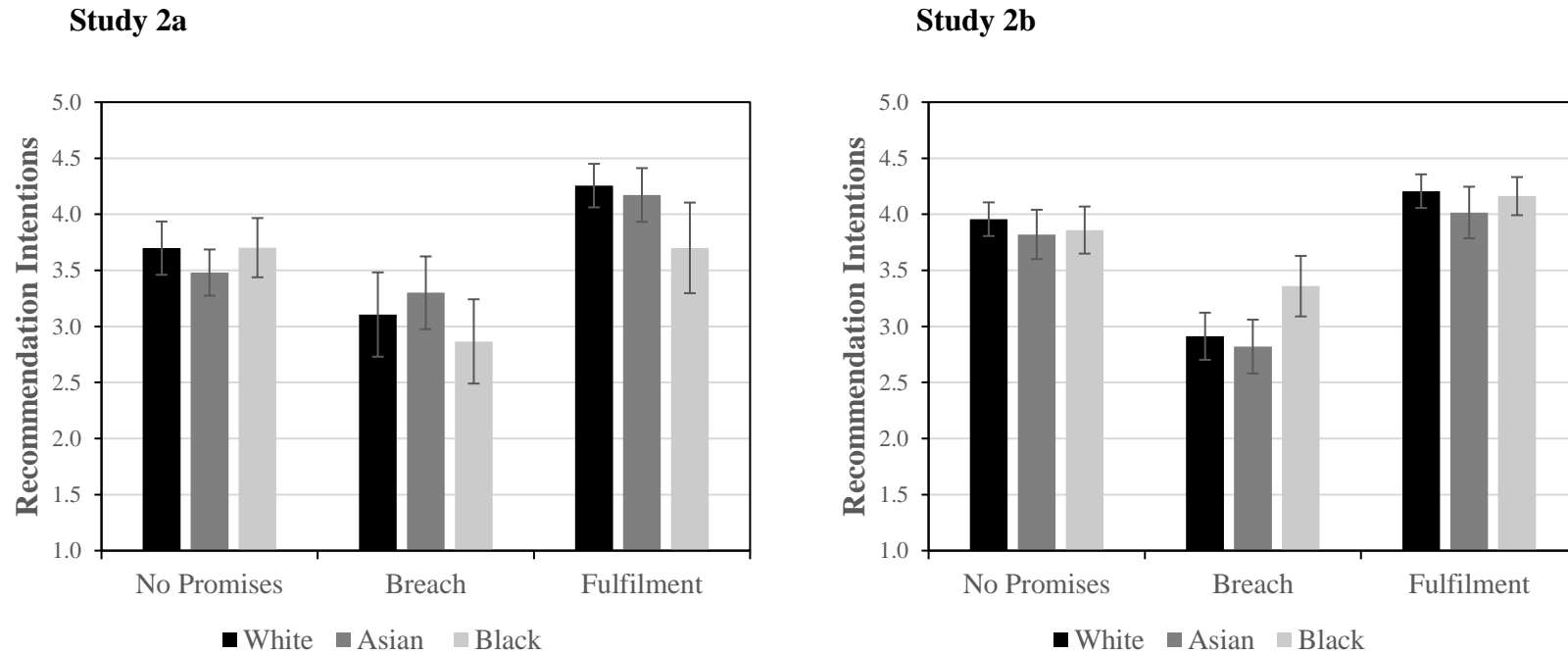
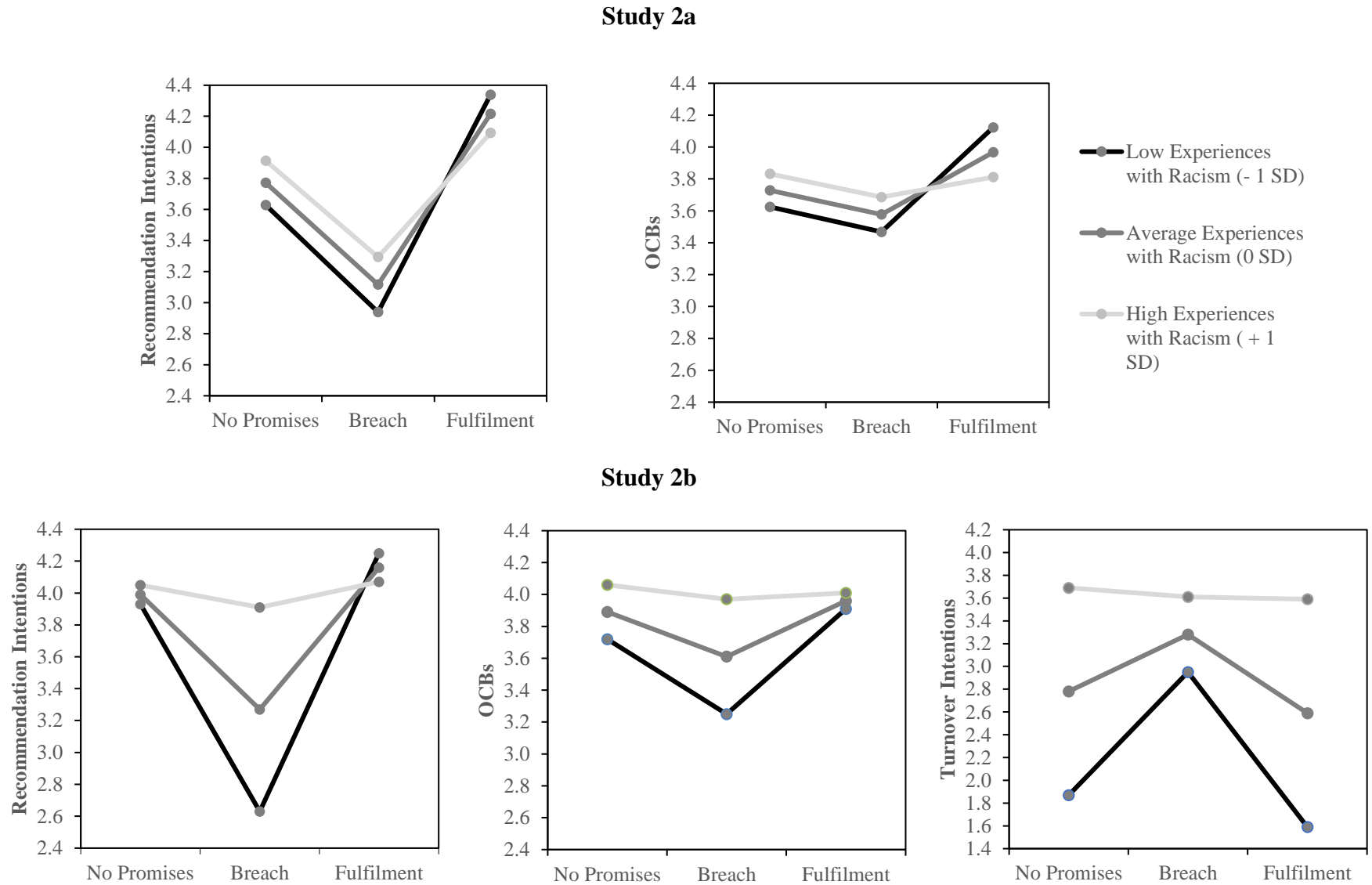


Figure 2. Interaction between Participant Race and Diversity Climate Promises Condition on Recommendation Intentions in Study 2



Note. Error bars reflect 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 3. Interaction of Experiences with Racism and Diversity Climate Promises Condition on Worker Intentions in Study 2



CHAPTER 3: DECOMPOSING DIVERSITY CLIMATE ASSESSMENTS: AN INVESTIGATION OF THE UNDERLYING DIMENSIONS OF DIVERSITY CLIMATE

(ESSAY 2)

Introduction

As modern organizations become increasingly diverse, there is an urgent need to understand how to create work environments supportive of a diverse workforce in order to reap the potential benefits of diversity, such as greater productivity and innovation (e.g., Richard, Barnett, Dwyer, & Chadwick, 2004). Reflecting this need, there has been an increased degree of scholarly interest devoted to the study of *diversity climate* – the extent to which employees perceive that the organization fosters a work environment where personnel practices (e.g., hiring and promotion) are fair and free from bias, and where workers of differing demographic backgrounds are effectively socially integrated and included in organizational processes (e.g., decision-making; McKay & Avery, 2015). Although a growing body of evidence links diversity climate to important employee outcomes (e.g., job performance, turnover; McKay & Avery, 2015), recently, scholars have raised some serious concerns regarding the conceptualization and measurement of this construct (e.g., Dwertmann et al., 2016). Specifically, there is little agreement about whether the construct is unidimensional or multi-dimensional or the key dimensions of diversity climate. This is highly problematic for advancing our understanding of the causes and consequences of workplace diversity climate. As it stands, using different measures of diversity climate, which are often quite heterogeneous, may lead researchers to draw different conclusions, contributing to a fragmented and inconsistent literature.

To address this problem, the overarching goal of the current research is to begin to clarify the underlying structure of diversity climate. To this end, we first seek to uncover initial

evidence regarding the factor structure of diversity climate using an exploratory approach based on a sample of existing diversity climate measures. Next, we attempt to replicate and validate the previously uncovered factor structure or facets of diversity climate using a separate sample, examine relationships between these factors and theoretically relevant worker outcomes, and assess whether these factors have predictive utility beyond a general diversity climate composite. Finally, we examine whether relationships between diversity climate dimensions and worker outcomes differs for racial/ethnic majority and minority workers, as prior work has found that racial minorities often respond more positively to diversity climate (e.g., Avery et al., 2013), but has not considered whether these moderating effects may differ depending on dimension.

With the current research, we aim to make several contributions to the diversity climate literature. First and foremost, we aim to pave the way for clearer and more consistent measurement of diversity climate, allowing for more precise investigation of the relationships between diversity climate and organizational phenomena of interest. For example, this work would facilitate investigations of differential antecedents or consequences of diversity climate dimensions, identified by scholars as a critical need in the literature (McKay & Avery, 2015). We also seek to provide researchers with guidance on the development of diversity climate measures that more comprehensively assess the diversity climate construct space, in line with calls to employ scales that capture and distinguish between the multiple theorized components of diversity climate (Dwertmann et al., 2016). Finally, by examining the differential relationships of diversity climate dimensions with worker criteria and the potential differential moderating effects of racial minority status on these relationships, we sought to enhance our understanding of how organizations can best effect improvements in worker outcomes via differing approaches

to diversity management, and for whom these diversity management approaches may have the most impact.

Literature Review

Scholarly interest in diversity climate has increased in recent years, as growth rates of traditionally marginalized groups (e.g., racial minorities) within the labour force has outpaced those of traditionally advantaged groups (e.g., Whites or Caucasians; Statistics Canada, 2019; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017). Specifically, this construct reflects employees' perceptions of whether organizations' diversity management efforts are effective or successful. Affirming the importance of diversity climate in organizations, scholars have found that when employees' perceive more positive diversity climates, this is associated with better employee attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment; Madera, Dawson, & Neal, 2013; Triana, García, & Colella, 2010) and more desirable workplace behaviours (e.g., lower absenteeism, higher job performance; Avery, McKay, Wilson, & Tonidandel, 2007; Singh, Winkel, & Selvarajan, 2013).

Despite a large body of work demonstrating that diversity climate has critical implications for organizations (e.g., McKay & Avery, 2015), scholars have identified a number of problems with the state of the science. First, researchers typically assess diversity climate as unidimensional. However, theoretical accounts suggest that the construct may be multi-dimensional. For example, Dwertmann et al. (2016) argue that both *fairness* (i.e., promoting fair treatment and reducing discrimination against marginalized groups) and *synergy* (i.e., achieving performance benefits from diversity) are important and distinct ways that diversity climate can manifest in organizations. In contrast, other scholars have argued that conceptualizations of diversity climate should also include *inclusion* (i.e., the social integration of diverse employees

into the work environment; e.g., Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013; McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2008). Thus, these varied and distinct conceptual perspectives underlying diversity climate conflict with the typical unidimensional operational definitions that scholars have employed.

The mismatch between conceptual and operational definitions of diversity climate is problematic because it obscures the conclusions that can be drawn regarding the observed antecedents and consequences of diversity climate. In other words, each of these underlying conceptualizations of diversity climate is theoretically distinct and may be brought about by different organizational conditions or differentially related to worker outcomes. For instance, equal opportunity hiring practices may be more likely to be related to fairness climate than synergy climate, because they promote fair selection outcomes for employees regardless of demographic background but may not have much bearing on whether these employees effectively work together once hired (Dwertmann et al., 2016). Similarly, synergy climate, with its focus on successfully leveraging the benefits of diverse perspectives, may be more relevant to certain types of outcomes (e.g., innovation, creativity) which arise from synergistic processes such as the active exchange of diverse ideas, compared to fairness or inclusion climates (Dwertmann et al., 2016). As researchers have drawn on differing perspectives to varying degrees in developing various diversity climate measures and have generally failed to clarify to what extent each perspective is represented, the current approach to measurement makes it impossible to disentangle whether each dimension is associated with unique predictors and outcomes.

Additionally, when a measure of diversity climate includes multiple perspectives, but is treated as unidimensional, it is problematic as different combinations of item scores could result in the same overall diversity climate score even when diversity climates differ in theoretically

important ways (Dwertmann et al., 2016). For example, a diversity climate perceived to be high on synergy and low on fairness is theoretically and practically different than one that is low on synergy and high on fairness, but current approaches to measuring diversity climate using a unidimensional scale may result in these differences being obscured (i.e., in both cases described above, the diversity climate appears to be moderate or average). This further obfuscates our understanding of diversity climate and our ability to create and maintain positive diversity climates in organizations as well as predicting the likely consequences of doing so.

A related issue that further muddies conceptual clarity is that some researchers have also included items that are conceptually separate from diversity climate in their measures of diversity climate. For example, some measures of diversity climate include items about respondents' personal attitudes related to diversity, which are argued to be conceptually distinct from an organizational environment that is supportive of diversity (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Ostroff, Kinicki, & Muhammad, 2012). This can be problematic because individuals may personally believe that diversity is beneficial and ought to be supported, but at the same time perceive that their organization does not foster an environment that is supportive of diversity.

Additionally, diversity climate measures often include items regarding the mere presence or absence of diversity policies or practices (e.g., equal opportunity hiring practices, mentorship programs for minorities). However, the mere presence of a practice may not reflect employees' perceptions of the practice (Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider, 2008). For example, an organization may offer a formal mentoring program for minority employees, but workers may perceive that this program is ineffective and the organization offers it to protect itself from legal liability rather than reflect genuine support for diversity. Therefore, the inclusion of items regarding personal attitudes towards diversity or the presence or absence of diversity-related practices within the

organization in commonly used diversity climate measures may seriously compromise the nature of conclusions that can be drawn.

Current Theoretical Perspectives on the Contents of Diversity Climate

Given the range of issues identified above, the broad goal of the current research is to clarify the underlying structure of diversity climate. Presently, however, there is little conceptual or empirical consensus regarding what this underlying structure is or should be. One of the reasons for this ambiguity is that researchers have drawn on disparate theories and perspectives to conceptualize and operationalize this construct. Below, we review the literature to assess the major differing theoretical considerations upon which prior work on diversity climate is based, which can generally be summarized via three perspectives: fairness, inclusion, and synergy.

The fairness perspective is dominant within the diversity climate literature (Dwertmann et al., 2016) and refers to organizations' efforts to mitigate the differential treatment of traditionally marginalized groups (e.g., women, racial minorities) at work. Researchers drawing on this perspective have typically conceptualized and operationalized diversity climate as relating to perceived fairness of personnel practices, the presence and availability of diversity-related programs or policies with the aim of improving outcomes for marginalized groups, and visible organizational support for members of marginalized groups (e.g., visible efforts by senior leaders to ensure equitable treatment; Avery et al., 2007; Mor Barak et al., 1998).

In contrast, the inclusion perspective refers to work environments where diverse employees perceive that they are socially included, valued, and accepted for who they are (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Mor Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998; Shore et al., 2011). This perspective is argued to be conceptually distinct from the fairness perspective because it focuses on perceived social integration, rather than on fair personnel practices. For example, it is possible for

organizations to employ fair human resources practices and support equitable treatment of all employees, yet for members of various demographic groups to feel marginalized and be interpersonally excluded or left out of informal gatherings on account of their group membership. Similarly, individuals from diverse backgrounds may feel that they are unable to “be themselves”, and that although they are treated fairly by the organization, may not feel comfortable expressing their true identities while at work for fear of being excluded by their co-workers (Nishii, 2013).

Finally, the synergy perspective is proposed to reflect organizations’ actions and processes with the goal of realizing the synergistic benefits of diversity. Diversity is proposed to confer advantages to decision-making and innovation, as diverse groups are able to draw upon and integrate multiple perspectives to optimize these processes (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Milliken & Martins, 1996). Importantly, however, these advantages do not automatically emerge when personnel practices are fair and when diverse workers feel included in organizations; achieving synergistic outcomes from diversity is thought to require the presence of a distinct set of organizational norms and processes which allow multiple perspectives to be effectively shared and utilized (Dwertmann et al., 2016). Specifically, synergistic norms and processes encourage and facilitate the active exchange and consideration of ideas, and the utilization of diverse perspectives in creating solutions and improving performance (Dwertmann et al., 2016). This focus on achieving performance benefits from diversity is argued to distinguish synergy climate from fairness and inclusion climates; for example, it may be possible for workers to feel they are treated fairly, socially included, and valued despite a lack of specific processes in place to ensure diverse perspectives are effectively integrated into decision-making.

Overview of Studies

Prior work has drawn inconsistently and unequally from the aforementioned theoretical perspectives in defining and measuring diversity climate. However, since diversity climate is typically assessed as a unidimensional construct, it is generally not possible to disentangle the potentially unique antecedents and consequents associated with each perspective or possible dimension. To address this issue as well as the other measurement issues identified, we conducted two complementary studies. In Study 1, we aim to disentangle and obtain initial evidence regarding the underlying structure of diversity climate by conducting exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on an array of scales commonly used to assess diversity climate in the literature. In Study 2, we attempt to validate this factor or dimensional structure using a confirmatory factor analytic (CFA) approach on a separate sample of workers. Furthermore, we examine the relationships between each of the uncovered dimensions and theoretically relevant worker outcomes to provide evidence for the (differential) criterion-related validities of these dimensions as well as for the incremental validity of these dimensions beyond a composite measure of diversity climate. Finally, we expand on prior work examining the moderating effects of racial minority status on diversity climate–outcome relationships by investigating whether these moderating effects differ across the uncovered dimensions of diversity climate.

STUDY 1

In Study 1, we use EFA to examine the underlying structure of a sample of diversity climate scales (the process of scale selection is described in further detail in the methods section that follows). This data-driven approach is particularly appropriate given there is currently little theoretical consensus regarding the underlying structure of diversity climate, and we have little basis to make strong assumptions regarding the number of factors that exist and the items that should pertain to each factor (e.g., Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Thus, the

approach in the current study allows us to gather initial evidence regarding the underlying structure of data and to generate hypotheses which can be subsequently tested with a greater degree of rigor (Finch & West, 1997). This empirically-driven approach has proved useful in helping us to understand the factor structures of various other psychological constructs, including conscientiousness (Roberts, Chernyshenko, Stark, & Goldberg, 2005), mindfulness (Baer, Smith, Hopkins, Krietemeyer, & Toney, 2006; Kohls, Sauer, & Walach, 2009), and impulsivity (Whiteside & Lynam, 2001).

STUDY 1 METHOD

Participants and Procedures

Participants were 550 workers recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). The majority of participants were male (57.4%), and 27.9% identified as racial/ethnic minorities. Specifically, out of the total sample, 7.5% identified as African/Caribbean/Black, 5.8% as Hispanic, and 4.7% as East Asian. The average age of the sample was 35.4 years ($SD = 10.4$). On average, participants had 15.6 years ($SD = 10.2$) of work experience.

Participation was limited to employees working more than 30 hours per week in paid employment and who currently resided in the United States. Participants completed a prescreen survey to ensure that they met study requirements prior to participating in the study (e.g., Liang et al., 2016). Once enrolled in the study, participants were asked to think about their experiences at their *current place of employment* when responding to questionnaire items.

Scale Selection

We selected measures of diversity climate using the following method. First, we conducted a comprehensive literature search for scales that were identified as conceptually related to diversity climate by the scale authors. Based on a review of these scales, we further

narrowed our selection to those that have been relatively widely employed in diversity climate research (and thus are generally considered to be acceptable and valid operationalizations of the construct). We also ensured that our final selection included items reflecting each of the major theoretical perspectives of diversity climate. In other words, we expect that the items comprising the included scales to reflect the predominant theoretical considerations that scholars have drawn upon to conceptualize diversity climate. Importantly, no single measure of diversity climate has drawn upon the full range of perspectives proposed to underlie diversity climate. This selection process resulted in seven scales with a total of 107 items that were selected for inclusion in this study and administered to participants. Overall, one or more of these seven scales (or items drawn from or derived from these scales) appeared in 41 out of the total of 66 peer-reviewed empirical studies of diversity climate identified by our literature search. We describe these scales in additional detail in the next section (presented below alphabetically by author).

Diversity Climate Measures

Dwertmann et al. (2016). Dwertmann et al. developed a total of 24 items to reflect two differing dimensions of diversity climate – 11 items reflecting fairness climate (e.g., “*managers are held accountable for diversity goals*”; *employees receive ‘equal pay for equal work’*) and 13 items reflecting synergy climate (e.g., “*people are encouraged to listen to divergent perspectives with an open mind*”; “*diverse input from employees is seen as a key to performance success*”). Importantly, we chose to include this measure because the latter items are the only ones in the literature to have been developed specifically to assess synergy diversity climate. Reliabilities were $\alpha = .94$ for the fairness subscale and $\alpha = .95$ for the synergy subscale.

James, Lovato, and Cropanzano (1994). The Workplace Prejudice and Discrimination Inventory (17 items) was designed to assess individuals’ perceptions of discriminatory

experiences on the job (e.g., “*at work minority employees receive fewer opportunities*”; “*at work I am treated poorly because of my racial/ethnic group*”). Although this measure was not originally developed to assess diversity climate, some scholars (e.g., Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013) have conceptualized diversity climate as a work environment that is free from discrimination and bias, and thus have employed reverse-scored versions of these items as an operationalization of diversity climate. Reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .94$ in the current study.

McKay et al. (2007). In the development of this diversity climate scale, McKay et al. largely drew upon the fairness perspective (e.g., Mor Barak et al., 1998) and conceptualized diversity climate as “a work climate that minimizes discrimination” (McKay et al., 2007, p. 37). This measure includes items that refer to fair or diversity-sensitive personnel practices (e.g. “*recruiting from diverse sources*”; “*offer equal access to training*”), as well as perceived organizational support for diversity (e.g., “*top leaders are visibly committed to diversity*”; “*open communication on diversity*”). Although the synergy perspective was not explicitly identified in the conceptualization and creation of the original scale, Richard, Avery, Luksyte, Boncoeur, and Spitzmueller (2019) used three items from this scale to operationalize synergy diversity climate (e.g., “*respect perspectives of people like me*”; “*work-group has climate that values diverse perspectives*”). Reliability for the nine-item scale was $\alpha = .94$ in the current study.

Mor Barak, Cherin, and Berkman (1998). Mor Barak and colleagues conceptualized diversity climate as the organizational policies and procedures which relate to marginalized groups within the workplace (e.g., hiring and promotion practices). Therefore, this scale included items corresponding to diversity-related organizational policies and practices (e.g., “*Managers interpret human resource policies [such as sick leave] fairly for all employees*”; “*There is a mentoring program in use here that identifies and prepares all minority and female employees*”).

for promotion”). Although it has since been argued that personal diversity-related beliefs are distinct from diversity climate (e.g., Dwertmann et al., 2016), the authors of this scale also included some items assessing individuals’ personal beliefs regarding diversity (which are thought to subsequently affect attitudes and behaviors towards others) as part their conceptualization (e.g., *“I think that diverse viewpoints add value”*; *I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced*”). Reliability for this 18-item scale was $\alpha = .87$ in the current study.

Nishii (2013). This measure consisted of 15 items that reflect both the fairness perspective (e.g., *“this company has a fair promotion process”*; *“the performance review process is fair in this company”*) and the inclusion perspective (e.g., *“in this company, people often share and learn about one another as people”*; *“in this company, everyone’s ideas for how to do things better are given serious consideration”*). Reliability in the current study was $\alpha = .97$.

Pugh, Dietz, Brief, and Wiley (2008). In line with the fairness perspective, these authors conceptualized diversity climate as “employees’ shared perceptions of the policies, practices, and procedures that implicitly and explicitly communicate the extent to which fostering and maintaining diversity and elimination discrimination is a priority in the organizations” (Gelfand, Nishii, Raver, & Schneider, 2005, p. 104). This scale contains items corresponding to fair personnel practices (e.g., *“where I work, employees are developed and advanced without regard to the gender or the racial, religious, or cultural background of the individual”*), and support for diversity (e.g., *“managers demonstrate through their actions that they want to hire and retain a diverse workforce”*). In addition, although diversity climate was conceptualized as unidimensional in this study, this scale also contained an item that appears to reflect the inclusion

perspective (i.e., “*the company makes it easy for people from diverse backgrounds to fit in and be accepted*”). Reliability for this four-item scale was $\alpha = .91$ in the current study.

Roberson (2006). This measure contains 21 items that appear to reflect a number of theoretical perspectives on diversity climate. Specifically, some items most strongly reflect the fairness perspective (e.g., “*equal access to opportunity for all employees*”; “*leadership commitment to diversity*”), while others reflect the inclusion (e.g., “*participatory work systems and employee involvement*”; “*collaborative conflict resolution processes*”) and synergy perspectives (e.g., “*focus on innovation and creativity*”). Additional items refer to the presence or absence of various diversity-related policies or practices (e.g., “*diversity education and training*”; “*diversity mission, goals and strategies*”), although these have been argued by some researchers to be distinct from diversity climate per se (e.g., Dwertmann et al., 2016; McKay & Avery, 2015). Reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .97$ in the current study.

Analytic Approach

Responses to the 107 diversity climate items were subjected to EFA with oblique rotation, as factors were expected to be correlated. One critical goal of this study was to determine the optimal number of underlying factors to retain. We used parallel analysis (Horn, 1965) to make this determination. Parallel analysis has been demonstrated to be more accurate than the most commonly employed factor retention criteria, including the Kaiser criterion (i.e., which retains factors with eigenvalues greater than 1; Kaiser, 1960), and Cattell’s scree test (i.e., visual examination of the plotted eigenvalues; Cattell, 1966; Fabrigar et al., 1999; Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004). This approach involves comparing the eigenvalues obtained from our actual data to those obtained from random column permutations of the data matrix (Courtney &

Gordon, 2013; Garrido, Abad, & Ponsoda, 2013). Factors from the actual data with eigenvalues greater than the corresponding factor from the randomly generated data were then retained.

STUDY 1 RESULTS

As shown in Table 5, parallel analysis suggested the retention of four factors. Column 2 presents the first 10 eigenvalues obtained from the factor analysis of the actual data, and Column 3 presents the 95th percentile eigenvalues obtained from factor analysis of 100 random column permutations of the data. From a comparison of Columns 2 and 3, it can be seen that parallel analysis indicates that a four-factor solution is appropriate; specifically, only the first four eigenvalues from the actual data (50.08, 8.86, 3.17, and 2.56) were larger than those from the random data (2.24, 2.16, 2.09, and 2.04).

Table 6 presents the rotated pattern matrix for the four-factor model. The first factor, named *fairness, inclusion, and synergy*, was defined by 54 items that referred to the fairness of personnel practices (e.g., “*the performance review process is fair*”; “*this company has a fair promotion process*”), the inclusion of all individuals in social aspects of the workplace environment and in decision-making processes (e.g., “*people often share and learn about one another as people*”; “*everyone’s opinion is given serious consideration*”), and organizations’ efforts to leverage the synergistic potential of diversity (e.g., “*employees’ insights are used to rethink or redefine work practices*”; “*active exchange of ideas among employees is expected [i.e., across demographic boundaries, roles, and levels]*”). Thus, despite differences in theoretical orientation, participants generally responded similarly to items assessing these purportedly different facets or dimensions of diversity climate.

The second factor, named *absence of discrimination*, was defined by 15 reverse-coded items that referred to individuals’ perceptions and experiences of discrimination at work (e.g., “*I*

feel socially isolated because of my racial/ethnic group”; “*at work minority employees receive fewer opportunities*”). The third factor, *pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals, and values*, was defined by 33 items that referred to organizations’ efforts to support or promote diversity in the form of initiatives, policies, or programs (e.g., “*diversity education and training*”; “*affirmative action initiatives*”), goals (e.g., “*the goal of increasing diversity in the workforce is taken seriously*”; “*managers are held accountable for diversity goals*”) or values (“*demonstrated commitment to diversity*”; “*the importance of diversity for the organization is communicated in a credible way*”). The fourth and final factor, named *personal diversity beliefs*, was defined by four items that referred to individuals’ personal views about diversity (e.g., “*I think that diverse viewpoints add value*”; “*knowing more about cultural norms of diverse groups would help me be more effective in my job*”).

Table 7 presents the correlation matrix for the four factors. The strongest correlation was between the *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* factor and the *pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals and values* factor ($r = .68$). *Absence of discrimination* was moderately correlated with *fairness, inclusion and synergy* ($r = .47$), but only slightly correlated with the *pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals and values* factor ($r = .10$). Finally, the *personal diversity beliefs* factor was consistently more weakly related to the other three factors.

As shown in Table 8, the seven diversity climate measures included in our study differed in the extent to which they assessed each factor. Some measures included items that reflected multiple factors whereas other scales generally reflected one factor. For example, Mor Barak et al.’s (1998) measure included items that reflected each of the four factors, and the items from Roberson’s (2006) scale was evenly split between *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* and *pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals, and values*. In contrast, Nishii’s (2013) measure

included only items that reflected *fairness, inclusion, and synergy*, McKay et al.'s (2007) measure mostly reflected *pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals, and values*, and most items in James, Lovato, and Cropanzano's (1994) scale reflected the *absence of discrimination*.

STUDY 1 DISCUSSION

Supporting that multiple dimensions underlie common measures of diversity climate, an exploratory factor analysis of items drawn from seven different purported measures of diversity climate resulted in a four-factor solution: a) *fairness, inclusion, and synergy*, b) *absence of discrimination*, c) *pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals, and values*, and d) *personal diversity beliefs*. In addition, consistent with prior theorizing (Dwertmann et al., 2016), we find some evidence that personal diversity beliefs are largely empirically distinct from other dimensions (e.g., environmental and social diversity-related factors) that may be assessed by prevalently used diversity climate measures. Notably, only the first three factors reflect typical definitions of diversity climate in that they assess employees' perceptions of diversity-related aspects of the work context, whereas the *personal diversity beliefs* factor appears qualitatively distinct in that it reflects individuals' own attitudes toward diversity.

Although *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* have been theorized to be conceptually distinct, our initial findings indicate that workers' may perceive these to be a single, highly collinear dimension of diversity climate. This may be because these perspectives commonly reflect that *all employees*, regardless of background, are treated fairly, integrated into organizational processes, and have their unique input leveraged to create synergistic outcomes. This is in contrast to items loading on the *pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals, and values* factor, which commonly reflect organizational efforts to support or promote diversity, which workers may perceive as relating more specifically to the numerical representation of minorities or the demographic

heterogeneity of the workforce (e.g., Konrad & Linnehan, 1995; Roberson, 2006). Thus, our evidence suggests that rather than distinguish between the processes associated with fairness, inclusion, and synergy, workers may instead draw the line between processes that integrate and involve all workers and those that specifically promote and support a workforce composed of demographically heterogeneous individuals.

Additionally, the *absence of discrimination*, which is typically thought to be reflected in the fairness perspective (e.g., Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013), appears to be perceived as a distinct dimension assessed in measures of diversity climate. One potential explanation is that the *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* dimension is perceived to reflect organizations' *efforts* to reduce discrimination, and not the absence of discrimination per se. These dimensions may be perceived to be distinct because discriminatory treatment may persist despite organizations' broader efforts to eliminate it; for example, due to the negative actions or attitudes of certain peers or individuals within the work environment. In summary, these results provide the basis for our continued investigation of the underlying factor structure of diversity climate in Study 2, in which we sought to validate these initial exploratory findings using a confirmatory approach.

STUDY 2

In Study 2, we aimed to confirm the four-factor structure underlying commonly used diversity climate measures we uncovered in Study 1 using a separate sample of participants. In addition, we sought to examine the relationship between the underlying dimensions assessed in diversity climate measures and a range of theoretically-related outcome measures. We do so in order to obtain evidence for the criterion-related validities of these dimensions, as well as the incremental validity of these dimensions beyond the typically used unidimensional approach to assessing diversity climate. Specifically, we chose to include four broad categories of criteria,

including attitudes relating to organizational membership, job performance, socio-emotional outcomes, and job satisfaction. These outcomes were selected because prior theory suggests that they are important consequences of diversity climate and because prior work has examined these outcomes and uncovered relationships with diversity climate (e.g., Avery & McKay, 2015). In addition, because prior work has typically employed a unidimensional approach to assessing diversity climate, an examination of these outcomes in the current study helps to clarify *which* of the underlying dimensions of diversity climate are most strongly related to each outcome. We discuss each of the outcome measures and our expectations for how they may relate to each potential diversity climate dimension in more detail in the method section below.

We also sought to explore whether the relationships between the underlying dimensions assessed in diversity climate measures and outcomes are moderated by racial minority status, and whether these moderating effects differed by the particular dimension. We do so because prior work has found that racial minority status often moderates the relationship between diversity climate and outcomes, such that racial minorities tend to have stronger desired responses to positive diversity climates (e.g., Avery et al., 2013; Hofhuis et al., 2012; McKay & Avery, 2015). However, this work generally does not consider the potentially multi-dimensional nature of diversity climate. As each of the uncovered dimensions represents differing organizational approaches and processes relating to diversity (as well as personal beliefs surrounding diversity), it is possible that the moderating effects of group status differs depending on dimension.

Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) has been identified in prior research as providing the explanation for the moderating effects of group status on diversity climate–outcome relationships (e.g., McKay et al., 2007). Specifically, social identity theory suggests that racial minority individuals will react more positively to more positively perceived diversity

climates (compared to racial majority group members) because people prefer to occupy contexts which affirm their group identities and in which people similar to themselves are treated well (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Hogg & Terry, 2000). In contrast, when diversity climates are negative or poor, racial minorities may experience worse outcomes (compared to racial majority group individuals) because they perceive that the workplace is threatening to the social groups they identify with (e.g., Hogg & Terry, 2000).

Research Question 1: Does racial minority status differentially moderate the relations between worker outcomes and a) fairness, inclusion, and synergy, b) pro-diversity organizational diversity initiatives, values, and goals, c) absence of discrimination?

STUDY 2 METHOD

Participants and Procedures

The final sample consisted of 295 student workers enrolled in a co-operative education program at a Canadian university, who were actively employed in a four-month, full-time, paid work placement.¹¹ Because these work placements frequently lead to offers of full-time employment, competition to be selected for placements and the motivation to perform well while on-the-job is high. Thus, we contend that the workplace experiences and concerns of our participants mirror those of permanent workers. In addition, data from this population has been shown to be useful in prior research seeking to understand worker experiences and organizational phenomena (e.g., Hideg & Ferris, 2017; Lubbers, Loughlin, & Zweig, 2005). Approximately half of the sample was female (52%), and 68% identified as racial minorities. Specifically, out of the total sample, 43% identified as East Asian, 12% as South Asian, and 12%

¹¹ Note that this sample is distinct from the sample collected in Essay 1, Study 1.

as Southeast Asian. On average, participants were 20.8 years old ($SD = 2.0$) and had 2.6 years ($SD = 3.14$) of work experience.

Participants completed two surveys. The first survey was completed at the midpoint of their work term (i.e., two months after commencement) when they completed multiple diversity climate measures ($n = 380$); importantly, administering these measures at the midpoint of the placement allowed participants time to acclimate to the work environment and gain a better understanding of their organization's diversity climate. The second survey was completed at the conclusion of the work term (i.e., approximately two months after the first survey) when we assessed criterion variables including organizational membership-related attitudes (i.e., person-organization fit, organizational identification, and continuance intentions), job performance (i.e., task performance, organizational citizenship behaviours, and counterproductive work behaviours), socio-emotional outcomes (i.e., emotional exhaustion and workplace interpersonal conflict), and job satisfaction ($n = 295$; retention rate = 78%).

To examine potential attrition bias, we compared participants who completed both surveys ($n = 295$) to participants who dropped out (i.e., only completed the first survey; $n = 85$). These two groups of participants did not differ significantly in their racial minority status (i.e., racial majority vs. minority group member) or responses to diversity climate measures at Time 1. Thus, attrition bias does not appear to be a concern in the current study.

Measures

Diversity Climate. The same seven measures (total of 107 items) that were included in Study 1 were administered to participants.

Criterion Measures

Organizational membership-related attitudes. The organizational membership-related attitudes we assessed were workers' perceptions of person-organization fit (three items; $\alpha = .91$; e.g., “*my values match those of current employees in the organization*”; Cable & Judge, 1996), organizational identification (five items; $\alpha = .93$; e.g., “*I feel strong ties with this organization*”; Smidts, Pruyn, & Riel, 2001), and continuance intentions (five items; $\alpha = .94$; e.g., “*I would make this company one of my first choices as an employer*”; Highhouse, Lievens, & Sinar, 2003). All measures were assessed on a five-point Likert scale (i.e., *not at all* to *completely* for person organization fit and *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* for organizational identification and continuance intentions).

Prior theory and evidence suggests that diversity climate is positively related to organizational membership-related attitudes because a positive diversity climate indicates more inclusive organizational values and generally more favorable workplace circumstances (i.e., fair to all individuals, inclusive of diverse perspectives), resulting in enhanced feelings of belonging and fit with the organization (e.g., Cox, 1994; McKay & Avery, 2015). Since *fairness, inclusion and synergy, pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values*, and the *absence of discrimination* each reflect the values of the broader organization and have an impact on the quality of the work environment, we expected all three dimensions to be positively related to workers' attitudes regarding organizational membership.

Job performance. We assessed three aspects of job performance: task performance (seven items; $\alpha = .76$; e.g., “*fulfill responsibilities specified in job description*”; Williams & Anderson, 1991), organizational citizenship behaviours (ten items; $\alpha = .85$; e.g., “*took time to advise, coach or mentor a co-worker*”; Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010), and counterproductive work behaviours (ten items; $\alpha = .88$; e.g., “*came to work late without permission*”; Spector et al.,

2010). For each measure, respondents were asked to indicate how frequently they engaged in each behaviour on a five-point scale (i.e., *never* to *every day*).

Diversity climate is theorized to impact workers' job performance because employees may tend to reciprocate in kind with more work effort and positive behaviours when they are treated fairly (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002). In addition, diversity climate may promote a more positive and productive working environment by ensuring that all individuals are well-integrated socially and in decision-making processes (Nishii, 2013). However, because *fairness, inclusion and synergy* and the *absence of discrimination* may be more proximally-related to employees' day-to-day workplace experiences, we expect these dimensions to be more strongly related to job performance outcomes than *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values*, which may more strongly reflect higher-level organizational goals and values but have fewer implications for the everyday working environment. Specifically, *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* and the *absence of discrimination* likely reflect whether daily interactions with co-workers and supervisors are characterized by inclusiveness or discriminatory behaviour, whereas *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values* may tend to be reflected in communications from leadership or programs and policies that have broader organizational implications (e.g., workforce composition, perceptions of corporate social responsibility) but have more limited influence on everyday work activities.

Socio-emotional outcomes. We assessed two socio-emotional outcomes, emotional exhaustion (six items; $\alpha = .88$; e.g., "*I feel emotionally drained from my work*"; Wharton, 1993) and workplace interpersonal conflict (four items; $\alpha = .90$; "*how often do you get into arguments with others at work?*"; Spector & Jex, 1998). Emotional exhaustion was assessed on a six-point

Likert scale (i.e., *never felt this way while at work to feel this way every day*), and workplace interpersonal conflict was assessed on a five-point scale (i.e., *never to very often*).

Discrimination, social exclusion, or being left out of key organizational processes are thought to cause workers to experience emotional strain or conflict with others in the workplace (Cox, 1994). Thus, similar to job performance, we expect *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* and *absence of discrimination* to be more strongly related to socio-emotional outcomes compared to *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values* because these dimensions of diversity climate should be more directly related to workers' daily experiences.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was assessed using Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger's (1998) five-item measure ($\alpha = .84$; e.g., "I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job"). Evidence suggests that a positively perceived diversity climate may influence employee job satisfaction by improving the overall quality of working relationships and well-being of employees, resulting in increased levels of enjoyment and fulfillment derived from performing one's job duties (e.g., Hofhuis, Van Der Zee, & Otten, 2012; McKay et al., 2008). However, we expect *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* to be the dimension most strongly related to job satisfaction because it may be the most directly relevant to the organizational processes that directly influence the job itself (e.g., being able to draw on diverse perspectives to get work done more effectively). In comparison, *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values* and the *absence of discrimination* may be relatively less relevant to one's job duties and therefore may be less strongly related to an employee's job satisfaction.

Analytic Approach

Based on the results of the exploratory factor analysis in Study 1 (shown in Table 6), the diversity climate scale items corresponding to each factor were standardized and randomly

assigned to be aggregated into three indicators per factor (i.e., item parcels) for the purposes of conducting confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Compared to the use of individual items as indicators, use of item parcels is considered to have psychometric and modelling advantages including higher reliability, less likelihood of distributional violations, and a more stable factor solution (given the larger number of items relative to sample size; e.g., Little, Rhemtulla, Gibson, & Schoemann, 2013; Matsunaga, 2008). In addition, use of item parceling is further justified given that the goal of this study is to understand the relations between a priori latent factors (and not the items themselves; Little et al., 2013). Model fit indices were examined to determine the latent factor structure that best described the data.

We then examined criterion-related validities by correlating each of the factor scores with each criterion. We also conducted multiple regression analyses using diversity climate factors as predictors to determine the factors that were most important in predicting each outcome. In addition, the coefficient of determination (i.e., R^2) resulting from each of these analyses was compared to the one obtained when only the overall diversity climate composite score was used as the predictor. This composite was computed by summing the standardized scores for all factors with the exception of the personal diversity beliefs factor, as this reflects personal beliefs rather than perceptions about the organizational context, in line with definitions of diversity climate in the literature. Finally, multiple regression analyses were also used to assess the moderating effects of racial minority status on the relations between each proposed diversity climate factor and criterion variables.

STUDY 2 RESULTS

Validating the factor structure obtained in Study 1, our CFA analyses indicated that the previously uncovered four-factor structure – consisting of 1) *fairness, inclusion, and synergy*, 2)

pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals, and values, 3) *absence of discrimination*, and 4) *personal diversity beliefs* – exhibited excellent fit to the data, $\chi^2(38) = 86.65$, CFI = .99, GFI = .96, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .03. In addition, as shown in Table 9, the four-factor model fit the data significantly better than several plausible alternative models including a single-factor model ($\Delta \chi^2(6) = 1513.45$, CFI = .63, GFI = .54, RMSEA = .31, SRMR = .16) as well as several possible two and three-factor models.

Table 10 presents the factor correlation matrix. Consistent with Study 1, the strongest correlation was between the *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* factor and the *pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals and values* factor ($r = .71$). *Absence of discrimination* was highly correlated with *fairness, inclusion and synergy* ($r = .60$), but only weakly correlated with the *pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals and values* factor ($r = .21$). Finally, the *personal diversity beliefs* factor had relatively weaker correlations with the other three factors.

Table 11 shows the correlations between the four factors underlying diversity climate measures with the criterion measures. We note that there are some large differences in the magnitudes of relationships across the different factors and across criteria. For example, the *absence of discrimination* had relatively weaker relationships with person-organization fit ($r = .31, p < .01$) and organizational identification ($r = .35, p < .01$), compared with the *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* ($r = .60, p < .01$ and $r = .60, p < .01$, respectively) and *pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals and values* factors ($r = .52, p < .01$ and $r = .48, p < .01$, respectively). Similarly, the *fairness, inclusion and synergy* and *absence of discrimination* factors were both related to task performance ($r = .31, p < .01$ and $r = .36, p < .01$, respectively) and interpersonal conflict at work ($r = -.19, p < .01$ and $r = -.35, p < .01$, respectively), whereas the *pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals and values* factor was uncorrelated with these

outcomes ($r = .08, p > .05$ and $r = -.01, p > .05$, respectively). Overall, these differential patterns of relationships provide initial evidence that these factors are not interchangeable in terms of predicting a range of theoretically relevant worker outcomes.

The specific patterns of relationships of diversity climate dimensions with broader categories of outcomes were generally consistent with our expectations (see Table 11). *Personal diversity beliefs* were generally unrelated to outcomes (in contrast to the other factors), providing additional evidence that this factor is distinct from the diversity climate construct. As expected, the other three factors, which all reflect perceptions of the organizational context surrounding diversity, were each positively correlated with organizational membership-related attitudes, although the correlations were largest for the *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* and *pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals and values* factors. Similarly, the *fairness, inclusion and synergy* and *absence of discrimination* factors were generally more strongly related to socio-emotional outcomes and job performance components compared to the *pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals and values* factor (although only the latter factor was correlated with OCBs). Finally, although all three organizationally-focused factors were correlated with job satisfaction, the *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* factor was the most strongly related to job satisfaction.

Providing further evidence of multi-dimensionality, we find that including scores for each of the three facets that conceptually describe the organizational environment around diversity (i.e., *fairness, inclusion, and synergy, pro-diversity organizational initiatives, goals and values, and absence of discrimination*) as predictors in multiple regression analyses significantly improves the proportion of variance predicted in seven out of the nine examined outcomes (i.e., all outcomes except CWB and emotional exhaustion), compared to a composite score representing the average of the three factors (see Table 11). This provides some evidence for the

incremental validity of employing a multi-dimensional versus a unidimensional operationalization of diversity climate.

Moderating Effects of Racial Minority Status

Table 12 displays the results of multiple regression analyses entering all three dimensions focused on the organizational environment regarding diversity, racial minority status, and their interaction terms simultaneously as predictors of each of the nine outcome variables (see Table 11). These analyses addressed *Research Question 1*. Note that these analyses did not include personal diversity beliefs, as this dimension generally exhibited non-significant zero-order correlations with outcomes and did not match common definitions of diversity climate in the literature.¹²

Overall, we found limited evidence supporting moderating effects by racial minority status ($n = 201$ for racial minorities, $n = 94$ for racial majority group members) on relationships between diversity climate dimensions and outcomes. Racial minority status¹³ did moderate the relationship between *absence of discrimination* and task performance ($b = .36, p < .05$). Consistent with expectations, *absence of discrimination* had stronger positive effects on task performance for racial minority compared to racial majority group workers (see Figure 4). Specifically, simple slope analyses revealed a significant positive relationship between *absence of discrimination* and task performance for racial minority individuals ($t = 2.25, p < .05$), but a non-significant relationship for racial majority group individuals ($t = 1.99, p > .05$).

Racial minority status also moderated the relationship between *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values* and CWBs ($b = .32, p < .05$). In contrast to the interaction

¹² We also examined the possibility that personal diversity beliefs were differentially related to outcomes for racial minority and majority group members, but found no significant moderating effects.

¹³ On an exploratory basis, we also examined potential moderating effects of gender on the relationships between diversity climate dimensions and outcomes, but found no significant moderating effects.

above, simple slope analyses revealed that the *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals and values* factor was negatively related to CWBs for racial majority workers ($t = -3.53, p < .01$), but this relationship was non-significant for racial minority workers ($t = 1.12, p > .05$; see Figure 5). Although this finding provides some additional evidence of differential reactions to some aspects of diversity climate by racial minority status, the form of this interaction differed from prior findings.

STUDY 2 DISCUSSION

The results of our second study corroborate the factor structure uncovered in our initial exploratory study. Using a confirmatory factor analysis approach, we found evidence for four factors representing the content covered in prevalently used diversity climate scales. Consistent with contemporary theorizing regarding the conceptualization of diversity climate (e.g., Dwertmann et al., 2016), we find evidence that one of these factors, personal diversity beliefs, generally has a very different nomological network compared to the other uncovered factors and does not match common definitions of diversity climate in that it does not focus on the work environment. In addition, we find that the three diversity climate dimensions are differentially related to various work-related criteria, and generally accounted for a larger proportion of variance in criterion measures when compared to a composite measure of diversity climate. In other words, there is value to knowing employees' perceptions of the organization on each of these specific dimensions reflective of how diversity issues are valued, managed, or supported.

Our results also provided some limited evidence for differential moderating effects of racial minority status for each diversity climate dimension. Racial minorities were found to respond or react more positively in terms of their self-rated task performance to the *absence of discrimination* compared to their majority group counterparts, in line with our social identity

theory-based reasoning. One potential explanation for this pattern of results is that although discrimination may have similar impacts on the attitudes, discretionary behaviours, and socio-emotional strain of racial majority and minority workers, the presence of discrimination may more directly hamper racial minorities' ability to fulfill their job duties. For example, supervisors or peers acting in a discriminatory manner may unfairly restrict minority employees' ability to access the resources required to perform their jobs (e.g., training, tools, or support), while granting majority group employees full access to these resources.

In contrast, racial majority group workers responded more positively to *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values* by decreasing their incidents of CWB compared to their racial minority counterparts. This could perhaps be explained by the fact that some of the behaviours captured by CWBs may include some forms of discriminatory behaviour (e.g., insulting, ignoring, or arguing with others at work on account of their racial group membership; Spector et al., 2010). Thus, the presence of *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values* (e.g., diversity education and training) may help to mitigate some of these discriminatory behaviours for majority group members by fostering more welcoming attitudes towards minority group individuals. Because minority group individuals are more likely to be disadvantaged in organizations and are generally considered to be the targets (vs. the instigators) of discriminatory behaviour (e.g., Dipboye & Halverson, 2004), the presence of pro-diversity initiatives may have lesser impacts on minority employees' CWBs via reductions in discriminatory behaviour.

Finally, it should be noted that responses to *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* did not appear to differ based on racial group membership. This may be because this dimension reflects the fair treatment, integration and involvement of *all* organizational members without regard to background (rather than the promotion of diversity or demographic heterogeneity). From a social

identity perspective, work environments characterized by *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* may therefore similarly affirm the group identities of both racial minority and majority organization members, resulting in similarly low perceptions of identity-related threat and similar outcomes for workers regardless of group membership.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Across two studies, we examined the underlying content included in common diversity climate measures developed under differing conceptual considerations. We find evidence that perceptions regarding the organizational environment surrounding diversity is best represented via three dimensions: 1) *fairness, inclusion, and synergy*, 2) *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values*, and 3) *absence of discrimination*. Some diversity climate measures also include items assessing *personal diversity beliefs*, but these items do not assess the environmental context and, therefore, we view their inclusion as a form of content contamination. The three organizationally-focused dimensions exhibited differential relationships with a range of work-related attitudinal, socio-emotional, and behavioural criteria and generally demonstrated improved incremental predictive validity over a composite measure of diversity climate, providing evidence for the utility of assessing these dimensions independently. Additionally, we also uncovered some limited evidence that racial minority status could moderate relationships between these diversity climate dimensions and worker outcomes. Overall, our findings highlight the value and importance of employing multi-dimensional conceptual and operational definitions of diversity climate.

To our knowledge, the current study is the first to examine criterion-related validities of the underlying dimensions of diversity climate. Notably, each of the uncovered dimensions had differential patterns of relationships with criteria. Generally, perceptions of *fairness, inclusion*

and synergy were found have the strongest relationships with workers' attitudes regarding their membership in organizations and their job satisfaction, whereas perceptions of *absence of discrimination* was more strongly related to on-the-job behaviours and performance.

Additionally, although perceptions of *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals and values* were also related to workers' organizational membership attitudes, its relationships with job performance, job satisfaction, and socio-emotional outcomes were generally weaker than the other two dimensions. Thus, beyond demonstrating that these dimensions have differential validities, our work also provides direction for organizations and researchers seeking to better understand which aspects of diversity climate may be likely to impact different types of worker outcomes in organizations.

Although our findings indicate that diversity climate is multi-dimensional, the specific components diverged somewhat from expectations. For example, our finding that *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* coalesced to form one dimension was surprising, given that scholars have conceptualized these as distinct theoretical perspectives (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Shore et al., 2011). This may be because the processes that are associated with each dimension tend to co-occur in practice. For example, the inclusion and integration of all personnel in organizational processes likely depends upon fair implementation of personnel practices (e.g., Nishii, 2013). Similarly, synergistic processes to leverage the benefits of diverse perspectives likely rely on social inclusion of all personnel and appreciation of employees' diverse backgrounds. Due to the interrelatedness of these processes, workers' perceptions of their experiences around these issues in workplace settings may tend to converge to reflect an overall evaluation of *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* diversity climate.

The emergence of *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values* and the *absence of discrimination* as separate dimensions was also somewhat surprising given prior conceptual and operational definitions of diversity climate. The items that defined the *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values* dimension in our data have typically been thought to reflect fairness, in terms of reducing discrimination and improving employment outcomes for traditionally disadvantaged groups (e.g., Dwertmann et al., 2016). However, our results suggest that workers may instead perceive these to reflect organizational efforts relating specifically to achieving and supporting the numerical representation of traditionally underrepresented groups within the workforce. Thus, this dimension may reflect an understanding of the definition of “diversity” as referring primarily to the demographic composition of groups (e.g., Roberson, 2006). Similarly, although the *absence of discrimination* is generally thought to reflect fairness in diversity climates (e.g., Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013; Dwertmann et al., 2016), our findings suggest that workers may perceive organization’s efforts to reduce discrimination and their success in doing so to be separate aspects of climate.

The *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* and *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values* dimensions also appear to reflect, in part, the distinction between identity-blind and identity-conscious structures, respectively (e.g., Konrad & Linnehan, 1995). Identity-blind structures refer to formal human resource approaches that attempt to ensure that all individuals are treated equally and without regard for group membership or identity, whereas identity-conscious structures explicitly consider demographic characteristics in decision-making (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995). However, notably, our findings diverge from prior work indicating that majority group members may react negatively to identity-conscious structures for fear of being excluded or displaced (Kidder, Lankau, Chrobot-Mason, Mollica, & Friedman, 2004; Linnehan

& Konrad, 1999). We find similarly positive relationships between the *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values* dimension and attitudinal and behavioural outcomes for racial minority and majority group workers. In fact, we even observe some evidence of *more* beneficial effects of the *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values* dimension for racial majority workers in terms of reducing CWBs. Similarly, contrasting with prior findings regarding the potential negative outcomes of identity-blind approaches for minorities (e.g., Plaut et al., 2011), our evidence suggests that racial minorities respond positively (as do majority group members) to higher perceptions of a *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* diversity climate. These divergent findings are consistent with theory that diversity climate goes beyond merely describing formal human resource practices (Dwertmann et al., 2016); it also reflects informal interpersonal processes and organizations' commitments to diversity, which are likely to have different implications for worker outcomes.

Although we find that racial minority status did moderate two relationships between diversity climate dimensions regarding diversity and worker outcomes, we note that race was not a significant moderator for the majority of relationships between diversity climate dimensions and most of the outcomes examined. This was not entirely surprising for relationships between *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* and outcomes; however, our results contrast somewhat with prior findings which often indicate that, compared to racial majority group members, racial minority group individuals realize greater benefits from positive diversity climates (e.g., Avery et al., 2007; McKay et al., 2007). We speculate that our null findings may be an indication that broader societal attitudes towards diversity and its desirability may have shifted over the past two decades (since much of this prior work was conducted), such that minority and majority workers now value pro-diversity initiatives and the absence of discrimination in organizations at more

comparable levels. Alternatively, much of this prior work has focused on racial minorities of Black or Hispanic descent; as our Study 2 sample consisted mainly of racial minorities of Asian descent, our findings may be indicative of racial differences in responses to diversity climate among different minority groups. In support of potential differences, prior research has found that Asian Americans are often perceived as a higher status group than Black or Hispanic Americans (e.g., Leslie, 2017). Overall, future research focusing on workers of specific racial backgrounds (vs. on the broader categories of majority and minority group) is required in order to better understand how diversity climate may differ in its impacts across demographic groups.

Limitations, Implications, and Future Directions

A limitation of the current study is that, consistent with the dominant approach to assessing diversity climate in the extant literature (McKay & Avery, 2015), we focus on workers' personal evaluations of this phenomenon in organizations. Although individual-level perceptions of diversity climate have clearly been established as important for employee-level outcomes (e.g., individual attitudes and job performance; e.g., McKay & Avery, 2015; McKay et al., 2008, 2007), scholars have argued that team- or unit-level diversity climate is also important to consider, particularly when examining outcomes that are expected to emerge at the unit-level (e.g., organizational effectiveness and innovation; Dwertmann et al., 2016). Additionally, it is possible that the underlying structure of diversity climate measured at the unit-level (i.e., via shared perceptions) differs from the structure of diversity climate assessed at the individual-level. For example, perhaps synergistic processes related to diversity climate may more strongly emerge as a distinct factor at the unit-level, because the distinct implications of these processes may be more apparent at this level. Thus, future work examining the structure of unit-level

diversity climate is needed to clarify whether different factor structures of diversity climate emerge at differing levels of analysis.

An additional limitation of our approach is that we do not assess all existing measures of diversity climate, instead choosing to focus on a subset of commonly used measures. Although our literature review suggests that the scales we selected are representative of the content and theoretical perspectives of the diversity climate literature broadly, it is possible that future studies including additional measures may help to refine our understanding of the structure of diversity climate. Relatedly, an assumption of our approach was that existing theoretical perspectives have identified the most important diversity climate dimensions and thus that scholars have embedded the key dimensions of diversity climate in extant measures of this construct (e.g., Roberts et al., 2005). As a consequence, although our results reflect contemporary perspectives on diversity climate, it is possible that our understanding of the underlying structure of the construct could change as our understanding and conceptualization of diversity climate continues to progress.

Furthermore, although we focus on the differential relations between each diversity climate dimension and outcomes in order to examine the criterion-related validities of the dimensions, we did not examine the possibility that the dimensions interact to predict outcomes, which we view as beyond the scope of the current study. However, differing combinations or configurations of diversity climate dimensions may work together or against each other to differentially shape workers' perceptions and outcomes. For example, perhaps *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values* may have *negative* impacts on workers' organization-related attitudes when the *absence of discrimination* is low because workers may perceive organizations with discriminatory environments to be engaging in meaningless impression management tactics when their top leaders convey pro-diversity messages. In contrast, when

absence of discrimination is high, workers may be more likely to perceive organizations' pro-diversity efforts as genuinely motivated and effective, resulting in more positive views of the organization. Future research is needed to elucidate the potential interactive effects between diversity climate dimensions in the prediction of workplace outcomes.

Practically, our criterion-related validity results imply that some organizations may need to consider altering their approach to diversity management. In particular, evidence suggests that some organizations treat the achievement of sufficient numerical representation of diverse groups as the ultimate goal of diversity management (e.g., Ely & Thomas, 2001; Irizarry & Gallant, 2006). However, our findings of generally weaker relationships between the *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values* dimension and outcomes indicate that efforts to improve demographic heterogeneity alone may not be sufficient to meaningfully improve worker perceptions of diversity climate and, ultimately, worker outcomes. In contrast, our findings suggest that organizations should take a more comprehensive approach to diversity management, which involves ensuring that workers are treated fairly, effectively included and integrated in organizational processes, and ensuring that the work environment is characterized by an absence of discrimination.

In summary, our results indicate that researchers should to employ an approach to measuring diversity climate that takes into account the multi-dimensional nature of the construct. Specifically, researchers seeking to comprehensively assess workers' perceptions of diversity climate may need to use a combination of existing scales in order to ensure coverage of the entirety of the construct space (as well as avoiding scales that include items assessing workers' *personal diversity beliefs*). In particular, we find that items drawn from McKay et al.'s (2007) scale generally correspond with the *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values*

dimension, Nishii's (2013) inventory corresponds with *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* factor, and that James et al.'s (1994) measure corresponds with the *absence of discrimination* component. Thus, use of a combination of items drawn from these scales (or all three measures in their entirety) will allow researchers to more precisely examine the components of diversity climate and allow for the investigation of novel and more nuanced research questions.

Conclusion

The goal of this study was to clarify what we have been measuring in extant measures of diversity climate. In other words, our goal was to elucidate the underlying structure of diversity climate by examining the theoretical perspectives being discussed and assessed in the literature. Through evidence obtained from factor analyses and via examination of the differential nomological networks of the uncovered diversity climate dimensions, we find empirical support for the value and importance of employing multi-dimensional conceptual and operational definitions of diversity climate. Overall, by allowing for more precise examination of diversity climate, we aimed to provide impetus for researchers to further advance the scientific study of diversity climate and yield more accurate insights in order to enhance the practice of diversity management in organizations.

Table 5. Study 1: Comparison of Eigenvalues for Actual and Random Data.

Factor number	Eigenvalues for actual data	95 th percentile eigenvalues for 100 sets of random data
1	50.08	2.24
2	8.86	2.16
3	3.17	2.09
4	2.56	2.04
5	1.96	1.99
6	1.66	1.95
7	1.31	1.92
8	1.25	1.88
9	1.1	1.85
10	1.07	1.81

Table 6. The Four-Factor Solution for 107 Diversity Climate Related Items.

Item	Factor			
	Fairness, Inclusion, and Synergy	Absence of Discrimination	Pro-Diversity Organizational Initiatives, Goals, and Values	Personal Diversity Beliefs
In this company, everyone's ideas for how to do things better are given serious consideration.	.88	-.07	.01	-.05
The performance review process is fair in the company.	.86	.02	-.05	-.12
In this company, employees' insights are used to rethink or redefine work practices.	.85	-.13	.02	.02
People are encouraged to build upon the ideas of others	.85	-.06	-.07	.13
Top management exercises the belief that problem-solving is improved when input from different roles, ranks, and functions is considered.	.83	-.05	.06	.03
In this company, employee input is actively sought.	.82	-.14	.07	.07
Everyone's opinion is given serious consideration	.81	.03	.03	-.04
Employees of this company are valued for who they are as people, not just for the jobs that they fill.	.81	-.08	.08	.03
The active exchange of ideas among employees is expected (i.e., across demographic boundaries, roles, and levels)	.79	.05	-.02	.10
In this company, people often share and learn about one another as people.	.78	-.03	.01	.13
This company provides safe ways for employees to voice their grievances.	.77	.01	.06	-.02
This company has a fair promotion process.	.77	.04	.03	-.11
The assumption is that decision making is improved when people build off of each other's ideas	.74	-.02	.03	.19
This company invests in the development of all of its employees.	.73	-.08	.18	-.05
Employees in this company receive 'equal pay for equal work'.	.73	.04	-.06	-.25
This company has a culture in which employees appreciate the differences that people bring to the workplace.	.72	.06	.13	.09
Employees are encouraged to express their diverse perspectives	.72	.00	.13	.04
Employees can count on receiving a fair performance evaluation, regardless of their demographic background	.70	.17	.01	-.11
Employees receive equal pay for equal work	.69	.10	-.06	-.22
Employees from all backgrounds feel comfortable voicing their ideas and perspectives even if they challenge the status quo	.69	.11	.12	-.07
Shared accountability and responsibility	.69	.02	.13	.09

This company is characterized by a non-threatening environment in which people can reveal their "true" selves.	.68	.06	.15	.02
Team, interdependence, or collaborative work environments	.67	.06	.07	.19
Managers here give assignments based on the skills and abilities of employees	.66	.13	-.07	.07
Managers interpret human resource policies (such as sick leave) fairly for all employees	.66	.09	.02	-.07
Employees persevere in their debate of multiple possible solutions	.66	-.07	.15	.07
Respect for differences	.66	.13	.15	.10
Equal access to opportunity for all employees	.64	.14	.18	-.11
This company values work-life balance.	.63	-.08	.16	.07
Where I work all people are treated the same, regardless of their racial/ethnic group.	.63	.26	-.05	-.18
People are motivated to integrate the expertise of different colleagues	.62	.07	.14	.09
This company commits resources to ensuring that employees are able to resolve conflicts effectively.	.62	-.01	.21	.05
Where I work promotions and rewards are not influenced by racial or ethnic group membership.	.61	.14	-.16	-.09
Fair treatment for all internal and external stakeholders	.61	.06	.22	-.05
360-degree communication and information sharing	.61	-.09	.26	.07
People are encouraged to listen to divergent perspectives with an open mind	.60	.02	.25	.10
Collaborative conflict resolution processes	.59	.02	.23	.15
I feel that my immediate manager/supervisor does a good job of managing people with diverse backgrounds (in terms of age, sex, race, religion, or culture)	.59	.21	.12	-.06
Participatory work systems and employee involvement	.58	.01	.26	.08
Diverse input from employees is seen as a key to performance success	.57	-.02	.31	.10
Focus on innovation and creativity	.56	-.05	.26	.16
Where I work employees are developed and advanced without regard to the gender or the racial, religious, or cultural background of the individual	.56	.29	.14	-.19
Where I work people of different racial and ethnic groups get along well with each other.	.56	.14	-.20	.05
Managers/supervisors/team leaders work well with employees of different backgrounds.	.56	.19	.06	.08
Equitable systems for recognition, acknowledgement, and reward	.55	.03	.27	-.01
People believe that the whole can be more than the sum of its parts	.55	.04	.09	.07
Respect perspectives of people like me.	.51	.01	.27	-.13
The company makes it easy for people from diverse backgrounds to fit in and be accepted	.49	.26	.27	-.15
Developmental opportunities are fairly distributed across demographic groups	.49	.21	.26	-.14
There is no discrimination on my present job.	.48	.30	.13	-.25

Managers here make layoff decisions fairly, regardless of factors such as employees' race, sex, age, or social background	.47	.13	.09	-.02
Power sharing	.46	-.14	.42	.08
Managers here have a track record of hiring and promoting employees objectively, regardless of their race, sex, religion, or age.	.43	.16	.20	-.04
People are expected to defer judgment in order to promote learning from others' ideas	.41	-.11	.28	.09
Telling racial or ethnic jokes is not common where I work.	.23	.21	.07	-.02
At work I feel socially isolated because of my racial/ethnic group.	-.07	.89	-.08	.17
I have sometimes been unfairly singled out because of my racial/ethnic group.	-.03	.84	-.10	.13
At work I am treated poorly because of my racial/ethnic group.	-.04	.83	-.09	.19
Supervisors scrutinize the work of members of my group more than that of members of other racial/ethnic groups.	-.06	.80	.01	.07
At work minority employees receive fewer opportunities.	-.04	.78	.24	-.15
Where I work members of some racial/ethnic groups are treated better than members of other groups.	.07	.76	.10	-.10
At my present job, some people get better treatment because of their racial/ethnic group.	.12	.72	.08	-.12
At my present place of employment, people of other racial/ethnic groups do not tell me some job-related information that they share with members of their own group.	.09	.69	-.03	.00
At work people are intolerant of others from different racial/ethnic backgrounds.	-.13	.68	.16	-.02
There is discrimination where I work.	.13	.65	.19	-.22
Prejudice exists where I work.	.11	.64	.25	-.21
I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced	.20	.52	-.17	.08
I feel I have been treated differently here because of my race, sex, religion, or age.	.19	.51	.04	-.15
Diversity issues keep some work teams here from performing to their maximum effectiveness	.17	.49	-.09	-.08
The 'old boys' network is alive and well here.	.17	.33	.21	-.18
Diversity education and training	-.11	.06	.91	.10
Significant resources (e.g. staff time, money) are committed to improving diversity and inclusion	-.03	.02	.87	.02
Diversity mission, goals and strategies	-.03	.11	.83	.15
The goal of increasing diversity in the workforce is taken seriously (e.g., through targeted recruitment)	.04	.09	.81	.02
Demonstrated commitment to diversity	.04	.16	.80	.15
Publicize diversity principles.	-.01	-.08	.78	-.15
Policies and programs promote diversity in the workplace (e.g., recruiting minorities and women, training in awareness of diversity issues, mentoring).	-.06	.05	.75	.10

Managers are held accountable for diversity goals	.06	.06	.73	.06
Affirmative action initiatives	-.01	-.05	.73	.12
Leadership commitment to diversity	.15	.09	.73	.10
The importance of diversity for the organization is communicated in a credible way	.10	.12	.72	.11
Offer training to manage diverse population.	.09	-.15	.72	-.20
Diversity-related training is taken seriously	.15	.06	.71	.04
The company spends enough money and time on diversity awareness and related training.	.08	.02	.66	-.09
Recruiting from diverse sources.	.13	.01	.66	-.22
Top leaders visibly committed to diversity.	.17	-.01	.66	-.20
There is a mentoring program in use here that identifies and prepares all minority and female employees for promotion.	.06	-.27	.65	-.04
Commitment to diversity is unquestioned	.16	.16	.64	-.01
Members of historically marginalized groups have access to leaders with influence (e.g., through a mentoring program)	.18	-.04	.62	-.07
Employee support groups, networks, or affinity groups	.18	-.01	.61	.12
Managers demonstrate through their actions that they want to hire and retain a diverse workforce	.20	.20	.60	.02
Members of diverse groups have means of driving organizational change related to diversity (e.g., through employee resource groups)=	.28	.04	.59	.01
Open communication on diversity.	.23	.04	.58	-.18
People have a shared understanding of how diversity benefits the organization's mission	.28	.07	.57	.10
Representation of different demographic groups at all levels of the organization	.30	.10	.53	.06
Representation of different demographic groups among internal and external stakeholder groups	.28	.13	.52	.12
Workgroup has climate that values diverse perspectives.	.29	.01	.51	-.15
Accommodation for physical and developmental abilities	.20	.05	.50	.19
Maintains diversity-friendly work environment.	.31	.00	.49	-.19
Supervisors/team leaders in my work unit are committed to a workforce representative of all segments of society.	.28	.15	.47	.12
Demonstrated commitment to community relationships	.39	-.04	.44	.22
Offer equal access to training.	.33	-.01	.39	-.24
Management here encourages the formation of employee network support groups.	.36	-.09	.38	.18
I think that diverse viewpoints add value	.23	.25	-.05	.50
Knowing more about cultural norms of diverse groups would help me be more effective in my job	-.07	-.06	.31	.42

I believe diversity is a strategic business issue	.12	-.10	.08	.36
I feel at ease with people from backgrounds other than my own	.32	.29	-.12	.33

Note. $N = 550$.

Table 7. Study 1: Factor Correlation Matrix.

Factor	1	2	3	4
1. Fairness, Inclusion, and Synergy	—			
2. Absence of Discrimination	.47	—		
3. Pro-Diversity Organizational Initiatives, Goals, and Values	.68	.10	—	
4. Personal Diversity Beliefs	.06	-.06	.06	—

Note. $N = 550$.

Table 8. Number of Items from each Diversity Climate Scale Loading onto Each Factor.

Diversity Climate Scale	Factor			
	Fairness, Inclusion, & Synergy	Absence of Discrimination	Pro-Diversity Organization -al Initiatives, Goals, & Values	Personal Diversity Beliefs
Mor Barak, Cherin, and Berkman (1998)	5	4	5	4
McKay et al. (2007)	1		8	
Dwertmann, Nishii, and Knippenberg (2016) - Synergy	13		1	
Dwertmann, Nishii, and Knippenberg (2016) - Fairness and Discrimination	3		8	
Nishii (2013)	15			
Roberson (2006)	11		10	
James, Lovato, and Cropanzano (1994)	4	11		
Pugh, Dietz, Brief, and Wiley (2008)	3		1	

Table 9. Study 2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results and Comparison with Alternative Models.

Model		Chi-square	<i>df</i>	CFI	GFI	RMSEA	SRMR
A	A priori four correlated factors	86.65**	38	.99	.96	.06	.03
B	One factor model	1600.10**	44	.63	.54	.31	.16
C	Three correlated factors: 1) pro-diversity + fairness/inclusion/synergy, 2) absence of discrimination, 3) personal beliefs	897.07**	41	.80	.69	.24	.11
D	Three correlated factors: 1) pro-diversity, 2) fairness/inclusion/synergy + absence of discrimination, 3) personal beliefs	788.72**	41	.82	.72	.22	.13

Note. $N = 380$. ** $p < .01$

Table 10. Study 2: Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	1	2	3	4
1. Fairness, Inclusion, and Synergy	—			
2. Absence of Discrimination	.60	—		
3. Pro-Diversity Organizational Initiatives, Goals, and Values	.71	.21	—	
4. Personal Diversity Beliefs	.35	.14	.37	—

Note. $N = 380$.

Table 11. Criterion Correlations and Coefficients of Determination for Diversity Climate Dimensions and an Overall Diversity Climate Composite.

Factors	Organizational Membership-Related Attitudes			Job Performance			Socio-emotional Outcomes		Job Satisfaction
	Person-Organization Fit	Organizational Identification	Continuance Intentions	Task Performance	OCBs	CWBs	Emotional Exhaustion	Workplace Interpersonal Conflict	
Fairness, Inclusion, and Synergy	.60**	.60**	.50**	.31**	.09	-.26**	-.35**	-.19**	.53**
Pro-Diversity Organizational Initiatives, Goals, and Values	.52**	.48**	.41**	.08	.15*	-.14*	-.23**	-.01	.34**
Absence of Discrimination	.31**	.35**	.26**	.36**	-.09	-.30**	-.32**	-.35**	.40**
Personal Diversity Beliefs	.11	.02	.00	.19**	.04	-.09	-.04	.00	.03
R ² (Composite)	.35	.33	.23	.10	.00	.09	.14	.05	.26
R ² (Dimensions)	.39	.36	.26	.16	.04	.10	.14	.13	.29
ΔR ²	.04**	.03**	.03**	.06**	.04**	.02	.01	.08**	.03**

Note. $N = 295$. R^2 (Composite) = coefficient of determination of overall diversity climate composite with criterion. R^2 (Dimensions) = coefficient of determination of three diversity climate dimensions (excluding personal diversity beliefs) with criterion. Bolded correlations signify relationships that were statistically significant ($p < .05$) when all four factors were entered simultaneously as predictors in a multiple regression. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 12. Multiple Regression Results of Diversity Climate Dimensions Predicting Criterion Variables

	Organizational Membership-Related Attitudes						Job Performance						Socio-Emotional Outcomes					
	Person-Organization Fit		Organizational Identification		Continuance Intentions		Task Performance		OCBs		CWBs		Emotional Exhaustion		Workplace Interpersonal Conflict		Job Satisfaction	
Intercept	3.68**	(.08)	3.75**	(.08)	3.75**	(.11)	4.60**	(.06)	2.82**	(.09)	1.31**	(.06)	2.68**	(.12)	1.39**	(.08)	3.80**	(.08)
Minority Status	-.11	(.09)	-.11	(.10)	-.19	(.13)	-.16*	(.07)	-.14	(.10)	-.01	(.07)	-.05	(.14)	.09	(.10)	-.14	(.10)
Fairness, Inclusion, and Synergy	.51**	(.12)	.61**	(.12)	.64**	(.17)	.24*	(.09)	.14	(.13)	-.11	(.09)	-.40*	(.18)	-.10	(.13)	.59**	(.12)
Pro-Diversity	.35**	(.10)	.20*	(.10)	.29*	(.14)	-.11	(.07)	.13	(.11)	.00	(.07)	-.05	(.15)	.14	(.10)	-.01	(.10)
Absence of Discrimination	.02	(.08)	.02	(.08)	-.06	(.11)	.15*	(.06)	-.21*	(.09)	-.16**	(.06)	-.25*	(.12)	-.31**	(.08)	.09	(.08)
Moderating Effects																		
Racial Minority Status X Fairness, Inclusion, and Synergy	.06	(.25)	-.32	(.27)	-.18	(.37)	.12	(.19)	-.11	(.29)	-.33	(.19)	.36	(.39)	-.15	(.27)	-.27	(.27)
Racial Minority Status X Pro-Diversity	-.11	(.20)	.09	(.21)	-.15	(.29)	-.29	(.15)	.17	(.23)	.32*	(.15)	.09	(.30)	.26	(.21)	-.07	(.21)
Racial Minority Status X Absence of Discrimination	.13	(.22)	.30	(.23)	.45	(.32)	.36*	(.17)	-.05	(.25)	-.13	(.16)	-.20	(.34)	-.33	(.24)	.21	(.23)
R ² (no interaction term model)	.39						.18						.15				.29	
ΔR ² (after adding interaction terms)	.00						.03*						.01				.01	

Note. $N = 295$. Values are unstandardized regression coefficients; standard error estimates are in parentheses. Racial Minority Status was coded as 0 = Caucasian; 1 = Racial Minorities. ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$.

Figure 4. Interaction of Racial Minority Status and Absence of Discrimination Predicting Task Performance

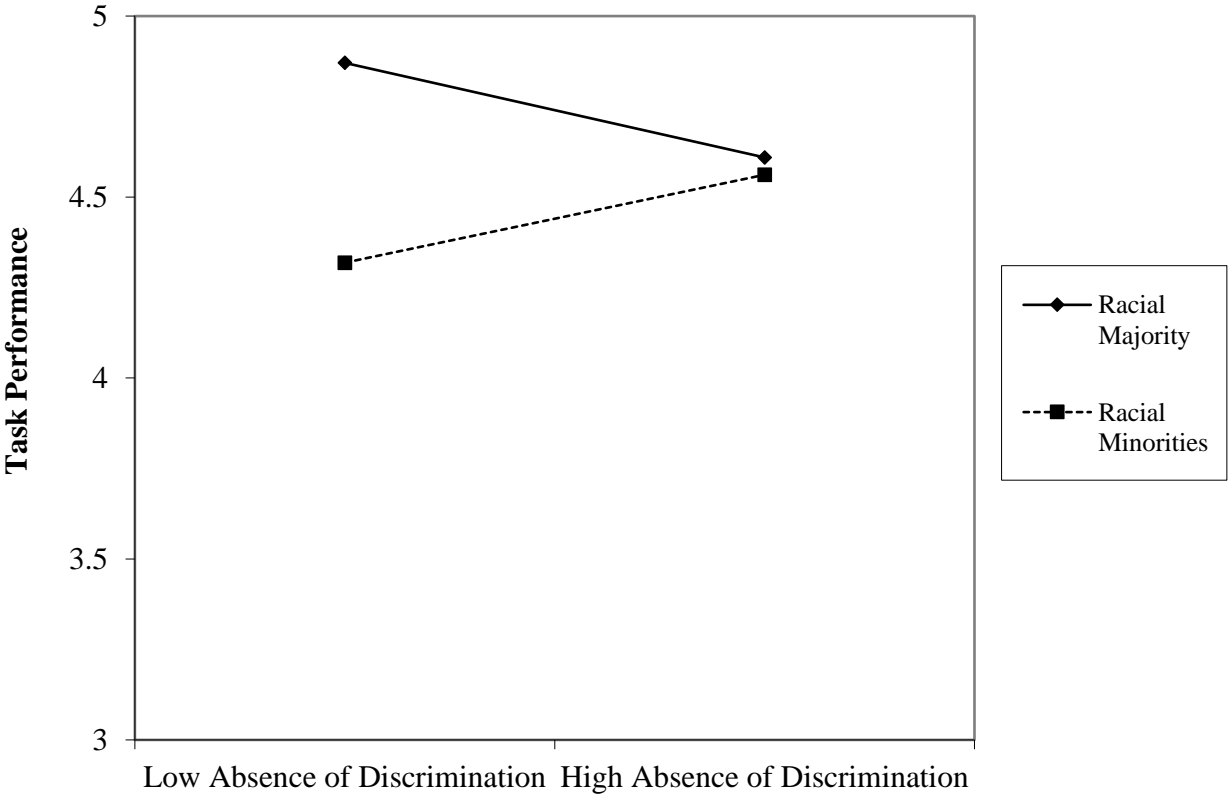
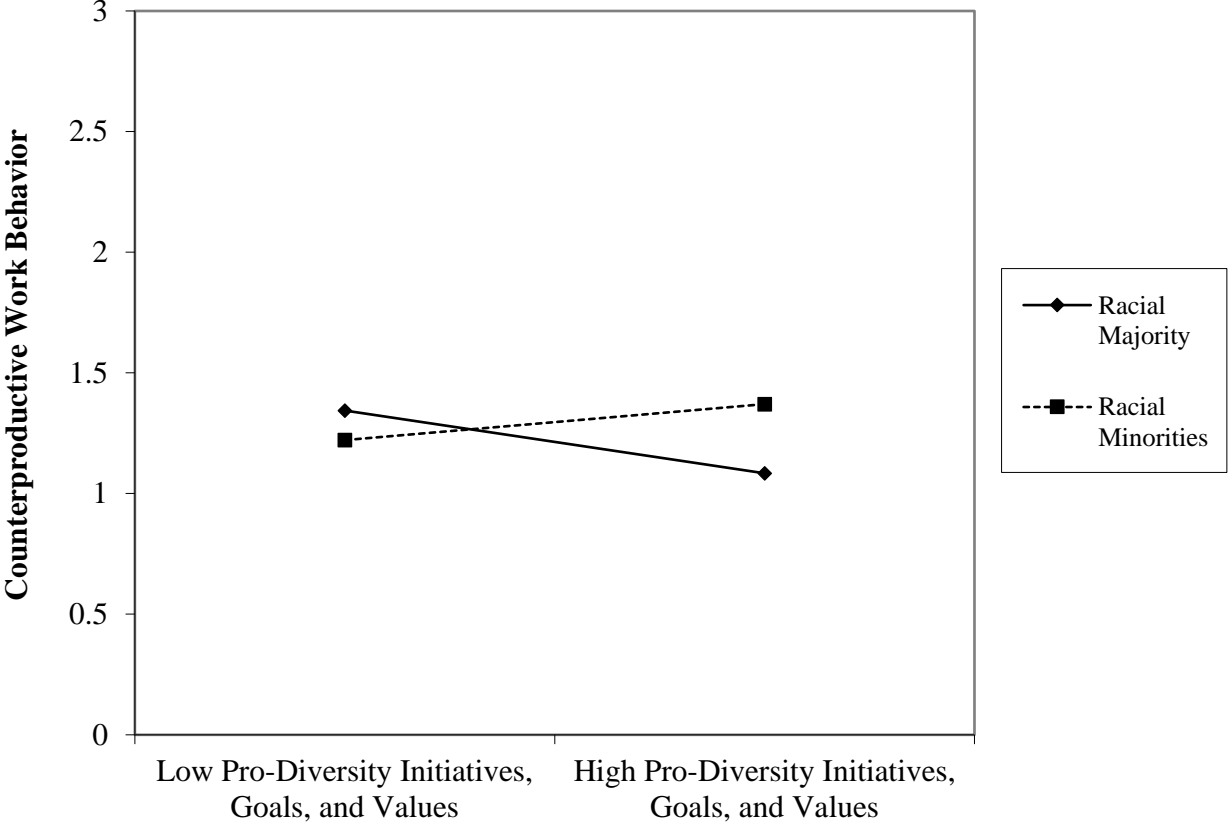


Figure 5. Interaction of Racial Minority Status and Pro-Diversity Organizational Initiatives, Goals, and Values Predicting CWBs



CHAPTER 4: CONCLUDING REMARKS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Given the rapidly shifting demographic composition within organizations and the growing importance of diversity as a societal value, the construct of diversity climate has garnered increased scholarly attention. In two essays, I sought to address two distinct questions relating to diversity climate in organizations. In Essay 1, I integrated multiple relevant theories (i.e., social exchange, signaling, and social identity theories) and drew on previously disparate literatures (i.e., psychological contracts, recruitment, and diversity management) to deepen our understanding of organizations' perceived ideological commitments regarding diversity climate and their role in workers' psychological contracts. In Essay 2, I examined and clarified the underlying structure of diversity climate. Based on evidence obtained from factor analyses of extant diversity climate measures and through an examination of the differential validities of diversity climate dimensions in relation to workplace criteria, I find empirical support for a multi-dimensional conceptualization of diversity climate.

Broadly, Essay 1 and 2 add to a growing body of literature that identifies diversity climate as an important construct for workers in contemporary organizations. Diversity climate matters for workers both during recruitment and once on the job, and has significant impacts on workers' job-relevant behaviours and attitudes. Clearly, there are benefits for organizations that are successful in fostering positive diversity climates. However, my work also points to a significant gap in the diversity climate literature – specifically, although it is apparent that diversity climate is important for worker and organizational outcomes, our understanding of the antecedents of diversity climate is still quite limited. Thus, there is currently little guidance available for organizations seeking to better fulfill the promises that employees perceive regarding diversity climate or to improve employees' perceptions of organizational support for diversity. With Essay

2, I aimed to take a step towards addressing this gap, by enabling researchers formulate and test more precise research questions regarding the factors that may give rise to the various underlying dimensions of diversity climate. However, it is clear that additional research is needed to explore the antecedents of diversity climate in organizations, as well as how these factors may differ in their impacts on individuals across diverse groups.

One limitation of my work is that the studies in Essay 1 were conducted prior to those in Essay 2 – this was because the theoretical gaps addressed by Essay 2 did not become apparent until after Essay 1 was complete. Because of this, I did not employ a multi-dimensional approach to operationalizing diversity climate promises and breach in Essay 1, instead employing an operational definition that focused on *organizational pro-diversity initiatives, goals, and values*. Our findings in Essay 2 indicate that assessing the three uncovered dimensions of diversity climate may have impacted our Essay 1 results. For example, it is possible that breach of *fairness, inclusion, and synergy* diversity climate promises may have incremented above traditional psychological contract breach to predict job-focused outcomes, including task performance and job satisfaction (whereas I had found that diversity climate breach only incremented above traditional breach to predict organization-focused outcomes). In addition, it would provide stronger support for the theorized explanatory mechanisms behind the moderating role of racial minority status if the same counter-intuitive pattern were observed for the relations between breach of each of the three dimensions of diversity climate and worker outcomes. Thus, future work employing a multi-dimensional conceptualization of diversity climate breach and fulfilment is warranted.

My work also highlights a broader need to understand how workers of specific backgrounds may differ in their responses and reactions to diversity climate. Like the majority of

studies in the existing diversity climate literature, in several of my studies (with the exception of Studies 2a and 2b in Essay 1) different specific racial minority groups (e.g., East Asians, Hispanics) were collapsed into the broader category of “racial minority” for the purposes of moderation analyses. However, my findings generally suggest that this practice may be problematic, as it obscures potentially important differences between racial groups. For example, in Essay 1 we find that Caucasians, Asians, and Blacks differ in the extent to which they have had prior experiences with racism, which influences how they react to breach or fulfillment of diversity climate promises. Similarly, our null moderation findings in Essay 2 may be indicative of potential differences between Asians and other, more typically studied racial minority groups such as Hispanics and Blacks. Overall, these findings point to a need to study specific groups, rather than broader categories of diverse workers.

Relatedly, the current studies are somewhat limited in that we focus on *demographic* racial group membership as a moderator of relationships of interest. In other words, we do not examine whether individuals self-identify as racial minorities or the importance of racial/ethnic identities to these individuals, which may have differing implications for our results. For example, because our sample in Essay 2, Study 2 was drawn from a Canadian sample in a context where multiculturalism and inclusion is the norm, it is possible that belonging to a specific demographic group is less important than self-identification as a racial minority in this context, explaining our largely null moderation findings. Because self-identity is largely shaped by one’s life experiences (e.g., experiences with racial discrimination; Berzonsky, 1990), it is possible that self-identification as racial minority moderates the relations between diversity climate and outcomes when demographic minority status does not. Specifically, self-identification as a racial minority member may be more closely linked with the social identity-

based cognitive mechanisms underlying responses to diversity climate dimensions. For example, workers who do not identify as racial minorities may be less likely to experience social identity threat in response to low levels of diversity climate, even if they are members of a racial minority demographic group. Thus, future research that examines workers' racial self-identity is necessary to further our understanding of diversity climate and its implications.

Finally, similar to much of the diversity climate literature, my work is somewhat limited given that I focused solely on racial group membership as a moderator of the relations between diversity climate and outcomes. However, there are other social groups that face disadvantages in workplaces, including workers with disabilities, older workers, and lesbian/gay/bisexual/transgendered/queer (LGBTQ) individuals (McKay & Avery, 2015). These groups may also have unique responses to diversity climate that are important for organizations to consider. For example, when organizational diversity climate is perceived to be mainly relevant to workers in terms of racial diversity, it is possible that individuals from these other disadvantaged groups may react negatively to "positive" diversity climates due to feelings of exclusion. Thus, research examining the implications of diversity climate for other marginalized groups is needed in order to inform organizational efforts to support *all* forms of diversity (i.e., beyond racial diversity).

Conclusion

The broad aim of this dissertation was to deepen our understanding of diversity climate and its implications in organizations. Taken together, Essay 1 and Essay 2 contribute to this aim by providing novel insights as to the consequences of diversity climate for workers and organizations, as well as by providing future researchers with direction for more precise conceptualization and assessment of the construct.

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APPENDIX A (Essay 1 Supplemental Materials)

Study 2a Experimental Stimuli

Diversity Climate Promises Breach

You have been working at ABC Company for a year. When you were hired, you felt they had promised you via words, actions, or their recruitment materials that leaders here would be extremely supportive of diversity, and that people of all backgrounds could trust the company without reservation to treat them fairly. Additionally, the company gave you the impression that they would greatly value the input of women and racial minorities, and that the workplace would be completely socially inclusive of all people.

Over the past year, you feel that these promises have been broken. In your day-to-day work here, you can see that this company and its leaders generally try to value diversity and treat its members relatively fairly and equally – however, not to the extent that you had felt that they had initially promised.

Diversity Climate Promises Fulfilment

You have been working at ABC Company for a year. When you were hired, you felt they had promised you via words, actions, or their recruitment materials that leaders here would generally be supportive of diversity, and that people of all backgrounds could trust the company to treat them fairly. Additionally, the company gave you the impression that they would normally seek to value the input of women and racial minorities, and that the workplace would be mostly socially inclusive of all people.

Over the past year, you feel that these promises have been upheld or kept. In your day-to-day work here, you can see that this company and its leaders generally try to value diversity and treat its members relatively fairly and equally. Thus, you feel that they have delivered on what they had initially promised.

No Diversity Climate Promises

You have been working at ABC Company for a year. When you were hired, the company did not provide much information via words, actions, or their recruitment materials regarding their leaders' views on diversity, and it was never implied that people of all backgrounds could trust the company to treat them fairly. Additionally, it was never addressed whether this would be a place that would value the input of women and racial minorities or whether this would be a socially inclusive workplace of all people.

Over the past year, you have had a chance to observe your company on these dimensions even though you did not feel that they had ever made you any promises on these factors. In your day-to-day work here, you can see that this company and its leaders generally try to value diversity and treat its members relatively fairly and equally.

Study 2b Experimental Stimuli

Diversity Climate Promises Breach

You have been working at ABC Company for a year. When you were hired, you felt they had promised you via words, actions, or their recruitment materials that leaders here would be very supportive of diversity, and that people of all backgrounds could trust the company to treat them absolutely fairly and equally. Additionally, the company gave you the impression that they would greatly value the input of women and racial minorities, and that the workplace would be socially inclusive of all people.

Over the past year, you feel that these promises to you have been broken. Even though the company and its leaders try to value and support diversity, you feel that the company has generally NOT delivered on what they had initially promised with regards to diversity. However, you feel your employer has held up their side of the deal in terms of providing you with the pay, support, and developmental opportunities that were originally promised to you during your recruitment process in exchange for your contributions.

Diversity Climate Promises Fulfilment

You have been working at ABC Company for a year. When you were hired, you felt they had promised you via words, actions, or their recruitment materials that leaders here would be very supportive of diversity, and that people of all backgrounds could trust the company to treat them absolutely fairly and equally. Additionally, the company gave you the impression that they would greatly value the input of women and racial minorities, and that the workplace would be socially inclusive of all people.

Over the past year, you feel that these promises to you have been kept. Because the company and its leaders try to value and support diversity, you feel that the company has generally delivered on what they had initially promised with regards to diversity. In addition, you feel your employer has held up their side of the deal in terms of providing you with the pay, support, and developmental opportunities that were originally promised to you during your recruitment process in exchange for your contributions.

No Diversity Climate Promises

You have been working at ABC Company for a year. When you were hired, the company did not provide much information via words, actions, or their recruitment materials regarding their leaders' views on diversity, and it was never implied that people of all backgrounds could trust the company to treat them fairly and equally. Additionally, it was never addressed whether this would be a place that would value the input of women and racial minorities or whether this would be a socially inclusive workplace of all people.

Over the past year, you have had a chance to observe your company on these dimensions even though you did not feel that they had made you any promises on these factors. You see that the company and its leaders try to value and support diversity. In addition, you feel your employer

has held up their side of the deal in terms of providing you with the pay, support, and developmental opportunities that were originally promised to you during your recruitment process in exchange for your contributions.

Table S1

Multiple Regression Analyses of Pre-Employment Diversity Recruitment Predicting Perceived Diversity Climate Promises (Study 1)

Predictors	Diversity Climate Promises	
	Step 1	Step 2
Intercept	3.40*** (.09)	3.39*** (.09)
Diversity Recruitment	.42*** (.06)	.32** (.10)
Racial Minority Status	.07 (.10)	.19 (.10)
Moderating Effects		
Diversity Recruitment x Racial Minority Status	—	.13 (.12)
R^2 (no interaction term model)	.12	—
ΔR^2 (after adding interaction term)	—	.00

Note: $N = 436$. Values are unstandardized regression coefficients; standard error estimates are in parentheses. Racial Minority Status was coded as 0 = Whites 1 = Racial Minorities. *** $p < .001$ ** $p < .01$

Table S2

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Alpha Reliabilities for Study 2a Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4
1. OCBs	3.72	0.73	(.91)			
2. Turnover Intentions	2.85	1.12	-.03	(.85)		
3. Recommendation Intentions	3.62	0.97	.66**	.00	(.89)	
4. Past Experiences with Racism	2.24	1.16	.01	.31**	.09	(.97)

Note. $N = 333$. The numbers on the diagonal are alpha reliability coefficients.

** $p < .001$

Table S3

Within- and Between-Individual Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study 2b Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4
1. OCBs	3.69	0.61	-	.19**	.71***	.26***
2. Turnover Intentions	2.83	0.97	-.32***	-	.14*	.76***
3. Recommendation Intentions	3.68	0.58	.45***	-.66***	-	.30***
4. Past Experiences with Racism	2.64	1.51	-	-	-	-

Notes. Within-individual correlations are shown below the diagonal and are based on within-individual centred scores ($N = 645$). Between-individual correlations are shown above the diagonal and are based on between-individual (aggregate) scores ($N = 215$). Means and standard deviations are based on between-individual scores.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$