DIVERSITY AS I SAY, NOT AS I DO:

THE IMPACT OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL AUTHENTICITY ON DIVERSITY

MANAGEMENT EFFECTIVENESS

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Thesis Summary

The research conducted in this thesis examined how a misalignment between an organization's espoused values and its realized practices regarding diversity can negatively affect employees' affective commitment, organizational identification, and turnover intentions. Further, it investigated whether these relationships were mediated by perceived organizational authenticity. Theoretically, this research was informed by both social identity theory and the social exchange perspective. Studies 1 and 2 tested the effects of both an organization's diversity management approach (espoused values) and its demographic representativeness (realized practices) on employee attitudes. Findings supported a moderated-mediation model, which was further tested in Study 3. The results showed that when an organization was less demographically diverse, participants reported lower identification and commitment when the organization also expressed instrumental diversity management approach values (i.e., diversity was *instrumental* to the organization's primary business objectives). Further, these relationships were fully explained by the extent to which the participants perceived the organization as (in)authentic, supporting the hypothesized moderated mediation. In Studies 4 and 5, an intervention was developed based on previous research involving hypocrisy and two-sided messaging. When either a university (Study 4) or a company (Study 5) included an "honest hypocrite" message acknowledging that they were not yet as diverse as they would like, it negated the negative effects of an espoused values / realized practice mismatch. Finally, Study 6 surveyed professionals in the United States and United Kingdom and found support for a serial mediation where the positive relationship between an organization's espoused — practiced discrepancy and employee turnover intentions was explained by perceived organizational authenticity and affective commitment / organizational identification in parallel. The discussion focuses on the contribution these six studies make to our understanding of the differential effectiveness of diversity management approaches.

Keywords: Diversity Management, Organizational Authenticity, Commitment, Diversity Climate, Organizational Identification

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

9

List of Figures

CHAPTER 1

General Introduction

In his journal on August 5, 1851, American philosopher and essayist Henry David Thoreau wrote, "The question is not what you look at, but what you see." In context, he was deriding a prominent scientific publication of the time for its dry, academic approach, which he felt failed to appreciate the more profound, poetic aspects of nature. Such an appreciation was perhaps the defining theme of his writing. In his most famous work, *Walden*, Thoreau recounts the two years he spent in solitude and humble reflection, living alone in a small cabin he built in the woods near Walden Pond in Massachusetts.

Some 168 years later, the discrepancy between what people look at and what they see is also a prominent theme in management research. Specifically, this thesis focuses on the diversity and inclusion efforts of organizations. While these efforts are many, and both well-funded and well-publicized, there is a sense that the employees of these organizations and the general public alike regard them with increasing skepticism (Thomas, 2012). Organizations generally express that they value the diversity of their employees from both a social and economic standpoint, but employees often do not perceive that to be the case in practice. This represents a pressing issue, as organizations continue to spend millions on developing and enacting diversity policies and practices that are often largely ineffective (Kalev, Dobbin, & Kelly, 2006).

However, one might be unwise to look to Thoreau for further wisdom on the matter. He neglects to mention in his account of isolated asceticism that his family home was just a 20-minute walk away from his cabin, and he would return several times a week for home-cooked meals from his mother and dinner parties with friends. This, in essence, reflects the

issue faced by organizations in their diversity and inclusion efforts; they talk the talk, but whether they walk the walk is often less clear.

To begin, it is useful to take a step back and examine the broader context of diversity and inclusion in 21st century organizations. Throughout much of the world, and in Europe and North America in particular, the last century has seen a marked shift from manufacturing to service-based economies (Buera & Kaboski, 2012). By its very nature, the type of knowledge work (i.e., work that emphasizes non-routine problem solving that requires non-linear and creative thinking) these new economies often entail involves diverse groups and teams collaborating toward a common goal (Blackler, 1995). Teams innately have a distinct advantage in this over individuals, in that their members incorporate a wide range of knowledge and intellectual resources (van Knippenberg, De Dreu, & Homan, 2004; van Knippenberg, van Ginkel, & Homan, 2013). By extension, diversity within such teams can serve to further increase the range and breadth of the team's collective knowledge and experience (Guillaume, Dawson, Woods, & Sacramento, 2013). Research has consistently shown that this diversity of knowledge and experience within teams can benefit decision making, creativity and innovation, and problem solving, as well as a variety of other performance metrics (Guillaume, Dawson, Otaye-Ebede, Woods, & West, 2017; van Knippenberg et al., 2004).

However, diversity only offers the *potential* for desirable outcomes for organizations; it can also have negative effects (Milliken & Martins, 1996; Van Knippenberg & Van Ginkel, 2010). While the potential benefits to organizations are well established, particularly regarding innovation and creativity (Guillaume et al., 2013; Homan, Buengeler, Eckhoff, Van Ginkel, & Voelpel, 2015), so too are the potential negative impacts on performance and employee well-being (Van Knippenberg, & Schippers, 2007). Various studies have attributed decreased employee morale, lower performance, increased conflict, and other negative

outcomes to diversity (Guillaume et al., 2017). On the most overt level, outright discrimination and disparate treatment based on race, gender, age, and a variety of other diversity variables remain persistent workplace issues, despite well-established legal protections in most of North America and Western Europe (Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008; Ragins, & Cornwell, 2001). This double-edged nature of diversity in the workplace has proven perplexing for researchers and organizations alike, and it represents one of the most significant challenges for organizations in the 21st century (Jackson & Joshi, 2011).

It is worth establishing at this stage that diversity has a variety of definitions across fields, and even within the organizational psychology literature. Some researchers have specified a difference between social category diversity (e.g., race, gender, religion) and informational/functional diversity (e.g., education, personality, experience) (van Knippenberg, De Dreu, & Homan, 2004). Others still have observed unique diversity effects for individuals who fall within more than one social diversity category (Berdahl & Moore, 2006). At the broadest level, diversity is defined as any difference between individuals on an attribute or experience that could potentially lead to the perception of difference between those individuals (van Knippenberg, De Dreu, & Homan, 2004). However, this thesis only measures and manipulates gender and ethnicity, as they are among the most readily salient differences between people in organizational settings. As such, readers should be cautious in making blanket applications to other forms of social category diversity, though previous research has generally viewed the effects of "diversity" holistically regardless of what specific category was measured or manipulated (Guillaume et al., 2014).

Technological advancement and sociological trends have left organizations in a position where they are compelled to address organizational diversity directly. The steady progress of globalization, along with the proliferation of internet and telecommunication technology, means organizations are inevitably becoming more diverse than ever before

(Jackson & Joshi, 2011). In many cases, employees now work together remotely from different cities, regions, countries, and even across continents (Gilson, Maynard, Young, Vartiainen, & Hakonen, 2015). With an eye on current trends, along with the continued improvement and increased affordability of international travel and telecommunication technology, it is fair to assume that this trend toward increased diversity in the workforce is likely to continue for the foreseeable future (Jackson & Joshi, 2011; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998).

Additionally, there remains a compelling argument that increasing the level of diversity in organizations is a moral and ethical imperative. In many countries, including the United States and United Kingdom, those from disadvantaged groups such as ethnic and cultural minorities, disabled individuals, women, and the elderly have historically been, and in many cases continue to be, under-represented in certain fields and limited in their advancement opportunities in organizations.[1] While the breadth of these societal issues is beyond the scope of any single line of research, it is worthwhile to note the extent to which organizations have a moral responsibility to develop and maintain diverse and inclusive workplaces.

Given all that, it is clear that there are both moral and business-focused motivations for organizations to attract, retain, and support diverse employees. However, this has proven easier said than done. Organizations often express to their employees and the public at large the degree to which they value diversity. I was unable to find a 2016 annual report from a Fortune 500 company that did not mention diversity in some capacity. Companies from Disney[2] to Budweiser[3] ran campaigns in support of Pride Week in 2019. Yet cynicism toward

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[1]CIPD. (2017). *The Manifesto for Work*. Retrieved from https://www.cipd.co.uk/Images/cipd-policy-manifesto-2017_tcm18-21544.pdf

[2] https://www.magicalpride.com

[3] https://budpride.co.uk/

these types of socially responsible corporate acts is growing (Archimi, Reynaud, Yasin, & Bhatti, 2018). Ninety-seven percent of large US companies have diversity programs in place, but only 25% of diverse employees feel that they have personally benefited.[4] Phrases like "faux woke"[5] and "diversity fatigue"[6] are being used in describing organizational efforts to promote diversity. Facebook's diversity web page tells us that, "To bring the world closer together, diversity is a must-have for Facebook, not an option", yet women make up only 23% of their tech employees.[7]

The focus of this thesis, broadly, is to better understand why the vast and varied diversity and inclusion efforts of organizations have been so consistently inconsistent. I propose that employees are unlikely to react positively to diversity-related messages that convey certain attitudes toward diversity unless the readily observable practices of the organization align with those messages. Put simply, when it comes to diversity and inclusion, it is apparent that at least some organizations have been asking their employees to do as they say, not as they do. This research will demonstrate that a better approach would be to focus on practicing what they preach.

Chapter Summaries

Chapter 2

Chapter 2 offers a comprehensive literature review that builds toward the conceptual model that is empirically tested in this thesis. It is broken down into three sections: Outcome Variables, Antecedents, and Processes. The first reviews the organizational psychology literature on organizational commitment, affective commitment, and turnover intentions, and

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[4] BCG. (2017). *Our Latest Thinking on Diversity & Inclusion.* Retrieved from https://www.bcg.com/capabilities/diversity-inclusion/insights.aspx
[5] Quart, A. (2017). *Faking 'wokeness': how advertising targets millennial liberals for profit.* Retrieved from https://www.theguardian.com/us-news/2017/jun/06/progressive-advertising-fake-woke
[6] Tsusaka, M. (2019). *Companies have no excuse for 'diversity fatigue'.* Retrieved from https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2019/01/company-diversity-fatigue-no-excuse/
[7] Facebook Diversity (2019). *2019 Diversity Report.* Retrieved from https://diversity.fb.com/read-report/

establishes them as critical outcomes for organizational diversity management programs. The section on antecedents established the key predictors of diversity management effectiveness. Demographic representativeness is introduced as an important signal to employees about the effectiveness of their organization's diversity practices. Further, organizational-level factors such as diversity climate and diversity management approach are discussed.

In the final section, the mechanisms underlying these relationships are outlined. Of particular note, the literature regarding behavioral integrity is reviewed, and the construct is integrated with authenticity on the organizational level. This serves to clarify and integrate several theoretically relevant outlooks and develops the conceptually coherent construct of *perceived organizational authenticity*. To conclude the chapter, a moderated mediation model is presented which integrates the relevant theoretical and empirical literature into a novel model of diversity management effectiveness, which positions perceived organizational authenticity as a mediating variable.

Chapter 3

Chapter 3 reports the findings of three experimental studies, which constitute the primary experimental testing of the proposed moderated mediation model. These studies make two principal contributions: (1) They investigate and clarify the interaction between an organization's values and practices related to diversity and (2) The results provide evidence that perceived organizational authenticity plays a mediating role between this interaction and relevant employee attitudes such as commitment and identification. The experimental design of these studies is beneficial in strengthening the causal claims regarding the findings, and the controlled nature of the studies offers high internal validity. Further, potential covariates (e.g., employee gender) are assessed in exploratory analysis, offering opportunities for future research.

Chapter 4

Given the necessity of developing stronger links between research and practice in the field of management, as well as the need for practical, effective tools which organizations can readily apply, Chapter 4 reports the results of two experimental studies that test a diversity management intervention in two distinct organizational settings. A two-sided messaging intervention is developed based on signaling theory and social psychology research on hypocrisy, in which the organization acknowledges its own shortcomings related to diversity while still expressing that it highly values a diverse workforce. Research from both social psychology and marketing / consumer behavior is integrated to support this novel approach; no similar intervention has been tested for its effects on organizational commitment or identification before, much less regarding diversity specifically. By focusing on both a university (Study 4) and a corporation (Study 5), the external validity of the findings is further enhanced.

The results demonstrated that a simple messaging intervention was effective at mitigating the negative effect of an organizational mismatch between words and actions regarding diversity. This directly addresses the catch-22 faced by organizations struggling to implement effective diversity management. If they say and do nothing, they are unlikely to improve. However, if they convey that they highly value diversity without acknowledging their record of observably ineffective diversity management, they face potential backlash effects from employees for failing to practice what they preach. The results presented in Chapter 4 offer a practical path forward for organizations that have struggled to effectively manage their diverse workforces.

Chapter 5

Chapter 5 is the final empirical chapter in this thesis, wherein the results of a field study (Study 6) are presented. By surveying employees about the organizations for which they

currently work, the findings greatly enhance the external validity of the previous experimental research. A new scale is developed which measures the discrepancy between what an organization *says* and what it *does* regarding its diversity practices. The results showed that this discrepancy score was negatively related to perceived organizational authenticity, such that as the discrepancy increased, the degree to which employees perceived their organization as authentic decreased.

As in the previous chapters, perceived organizational authenticity then predicted both commitment and identification. Another noteworthy contribution of Study 6 is the inclusion of turnover intentions as a final outcome variable; both commitment and identification were negatively related to turnover intentions, such that as they increased, turnover intentions decreased. This was tested together within a serial mediation model (DM discrepancy → authenticity → commitment/identification (in parallel) → turnover intentions), which proved to be the model that best fit the data. Overall, this served to extend the mediating role of perceived authenticity to turnover intentions, which offers a more tangible employee outcome for organizations to consider.

Chapter 6

Finally, Chapter 6 offers a thorough discussion of the empirical findings and theoretical developments presented in the preceding chapters. It lays out the overall narrative supported by the data collected for this thesis and positions it within the theoretical outline put forward in the literature review. It endeavors to link the experimental and field studies conducted and explain how they complement one another to offer a more holistic picture of diversity management effectiveness. It also offers rationales for why some hypotheses were not supported and addresses key limitations of the research. In the final section, directions for future research are discussed, a summary of empirical results is provided, and an overall conclusion is presented.

CHAPTER 2

Diversity Management in Organizations

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter offers a review of the empirical and theoretical literature concerning how organizations implement diversity management policies and practices to achieve their desired business outcomes. It builds toward a conceptual model of diversity management effectiveness, which is empirically tested in the chapters that follow. The original research conducted in this thesis exists at the interface of social and organizational psychology, while incorporating ideas from a broad range of topics such as acculturation, diversity management, organizational behavior, and social cognition. To begin this chapter, I lay out the work-related outcome variables relevant to this thesis and discuss their significance in the organizational psychology literature. Following that, the research on diversity management is reviewed, along with an examination of relevant variables and contextual factors. Finally, I consider research on diversity management approach values, diversity climate, behavioral integrity, and authenticity to develop a conceptual model that addresses a key gap in the existing literature and establishes the focus of the empirical work conducted as part of this thesis.

2.1 OUTCOME VARIABLES

2.1.1 Outcomes of Diversity Management

Though diversity management (DM) — defined as the implementation of practices and policies by which an organization attempts to facilitate the positive effects and inhibit the negative effects of diversity on both performance and employee well-being (Olsen & Martins, 2012) — remains a prominent focus in both research and practice, it can no longer be called an 'emerging' area (Leslie, 2019; Nishii et al., 2018). While specific figures are scarce, various reports have some companies such as information-technology giant Google spending

in excess of $100 million per year on diversity and inclusion initiatives[8] (Guynn, 2015), and

estimates put the total figure spent by US companies solely on diversity training at

approximately $8 billion (Kirkland & Bohnet, 2017). Perhaps predictably, organizations make

little effort to hide these exertions; there is evidence to support the notion that firms who

communicate their diversity management efforts are perceived more favorably by potential

recruits (Avery, McKay, & Volpone, 2012; Highhouse, Stierwalt, Bachiochi, Elder, & Fisher,

1999; Rau & Hyland, 2003) and consumers (Cox & Blake, 1991). There is also an increasing

body of evidence which suggests that organizational efforts to convey diversity and inclusion

practices can affect the interpersonal behaviors and the integration of current employees

(Smith, Morgan, King, Hebl, & Peddie, 2012), and it is well-established that diversity itself

can be positively related to performance in some contexts (Guillaume et al., 2017; van

Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007).

In recent years, it has become more common to see companies (e.g., Google[9], Apple[10],

Coca-Cola[11]), government organizations (e.g., NHS[12], CIA[13]), and non-profits (e.g., United

Way[14], Red Cross[15]) tout their focus on — and the supposed performance and productivity

increases that result from — maintaining a diverse workforce. It is difficult to pin down a

motivation for these public proclamations. While some organizations may publicly state such

values because they feel it is morally correct, it is also possible that perceived benefits in

recruiting (Smith et al., 2012), firm competitiveness (Gilbert & Ivancevich, 2000), and/or

employer attractiveness (Windscheid, Bowes-Sperry, Kidder, Cheung, Morner, & Lievens,

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[8] Guynn, J. (2015, May 6). Exclusive: Google raising stakes on diversity. *USA Today*. Retrieved from
https://eu.usatoday.com/story/tech/2015/05/05/google-raises-stakes-diversity-spending/26868359/
[9] http://www.google.co.uk/diversity/index.html
[10] http://www.apple.com/diversity/
[11] http://www.coca-colacompany.com/our-company/diversity/global-diversity-mission
[12] https://www.nhsemployers.org/retention-and-staff-experience/diversity-and-inclusion
[13] https://www.cia.gov/careers/diversity/diversity-initiatives.html
[14] https://www.unitedway.org/about/diversity-and-inclusion
[15] https://www.redcross.org/about-us/who-we-are/governance/corporate-diversity.html

2016) are motivating factors. Alternatively, diversity management is sometimes considered within the domain of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) research (e.g. Harjoto, Laksmana, & Lee, 2015; Roberson, Buonocore, & Yearwood, 2017), which opens an entirely distinct lens through which to view the impacts of diversity and diversity management (Voegtlin & Greenwood, 2016). Overall, it is abundantly clear that DM is a fundamental concern for many organizations.

Even given the continued growth of DM as a focus of research and practical innovation, there remains relatively little evidence-based guidance for organizations aiming to maximize the benefits and mitigate the potential drawbacks of their increasingly diverse workforces (Guillaume et al., 2017; Kulik, 2014; Leslie, 2019). Many of the world's largest and most prominent organizations openly struggle to retain and recruit diverse talent, and several have experienced well-publicized[16], reputation-damaging[17] instances[18] where they were criticized for their approach to diversity. Many, if not most, large organizations engage in a number of similar DM practices including, but not limited to, active recruitment, mentoring schemes, diversity training, career development workshops, networking groups, job design, and hiring quotas. While it is beyond the scope of this review to fully assess the effectiveness of each specific DM practice, it is fair to say that results for most have been mixed, at best (Bezrukova, Spell, Perry, & Jehn, 2018; Kalev et al., 2006). A prominent example is diversity training, which has been used often in organizations primarily as a tool to engender a general appreciation and respect for different cultures (Rynes & Rosen, 1995). Recent research from van Knippenberg, van Ginkel, and Homan (2013) argued that the majority of diversity training, as currently practiced, will fail to elicit the positive performance outcomes associated with diversity, even if it is successful at mitigating any

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[16] https://techcrunch.com/2018/09/16/uber-still-has-a-complex-relationship-with-diversity/
[17] https://www.theguardian.com/technology/2018/feb/21/google-lawsuit-tim-chevalier-diversity-james-damore
[18] https://www.theguardian.com/media/2019/mar/12/equality-commission-investigate-bbc-gender-pay-gap

negative outcomes. The extensive review conducted by Dobbin, Kalev, and Kelly (2006) found that diversity training, along with evaluations and network programs, have no positive effects in the average workplace.

Another critique of many diversity management initiatives is that they are often focused on legal defensibility, whether that be in the form of avoiding outright discrimination, or in pursuit of meeting legally defensible minority employment quotas (in the U.S., these are legally termed "disparate treatment" and "disparate impact" respectively) (Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000). Some researchers view this as an inherently reflexive approach and have encouraged organizations to move toward a more proactive approach to DM (e.g., Dwertmann, Nishii, van Knippenberg, 2016; Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000; Pringle & Strachan, 2015 in Bendl et al., 2015; van Knippenberg et al., 2013).

Given this, central to conducting any research assessing the effectiveness of organizational diversity practices is a consideration of which outcomes are most appropriate. There is ample research to suggest that diversity in organizations can have both positive and negative outcomes (Guillaume et al., 2017). While it can benefit an organization through improved decision-making and innovation (Cox & Blake, 1991; van Knippenberg et al., 2004), it can also increase conflict and reduce commitment (Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999). In their seminal model of the contingencies of work group diversity effects, van Knippenberg et al. (2004) identify the two dominant perspectives in the literature; a focus on either the positive cognitive processes relating to diversity (i.e., information elaboration), or a focus on the negative affective and categorization processes that occur in diverse work groups. Given this, the preeminent approach to diversity management research in recent decades has eschewed social justice or demographic trends in favor of the "value-in-diversity" hypothesis (Cox & Blake, 1991; McLeod, Lobel, Cox, 1996). Ostensibly, then, the goal of diversity management for many organizations is to maximize the positive outcomes and minimize the

negative outcomes that diversity has on the organization and the individuals within it
(Guillaume et al., 2014; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007).

In this pursuit, previous research on diversity management has considered a number of
outcomes on the organization, unit, and individual levels using both self-report and objective
measures (Groeneveld, 2015; Guillaume et al., 2017). These have included job satisfaction
(Kooij, Jansen, Dikkers, & De Lange, 2010; Van Dick et al., 2004), commitment (Triana,
Garcia, & Colella, 2010), identification (van Dick, van Knippenberg, Hägele, Guillaume, &
Brodbeck 2008), job pursuit intentions (Avery et al., 2013), organizational competitiveness
and effectiveness (Cox & Black, 1991; Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009), employee engagement
(Downey, van der Werff, Thomas, & Plaut, 2015), creativity (Homan et al., 2015), and
employer attractiveness (Windscheid et al., 2016).

In the empirical work reported in the following chapters, organizational identification,
affective commitment, and turnover intentions are focused on as outcome variables. Going
back to the aforementioned value-in-diversity hypothesis (McLeod et al., 1996) and van
Knippenberg and colleagues' (2004) categorization-elaboration model, these job attitudes are
well-established predictors of both individual and organizational performance in the
organizational psychology literature (Mercurio, 2015; Ng, 2015). Commitment is an
antecedent of employee turnover (among various other work outcomes), which is arguably the
costliest issue faced by organizations (Douglas & Leite, 2017; Tett & Meyer, 1993). On the
other hand, Ng (2015) demonstrated empirically that organizational identification offers
incremental validity over and above organizational commitment in predicting turnover. The
evidence also suggests that identification is strongly related to task performance and
organizational citizenship behaviors (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Ng,
2015). Further, these employee attitudes reflect the social exchange and social identity
theoretical perspectives respectively (van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006), which allows for a

more comprehensive theoretical approach to the research. In the following sections, a thorough review of these job attitudes is conducted to establish their relevance and value in this work.

2.1.2 Organizational Identification

Organizational research often draws from the field of social psychology, and this is particularly true when dealing with groups and diversity in organizations. There is a preponderance of social psychology research and theory from which one can draw to support this type of organization-specific research. Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and Social categorization theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987) have been perhaps the preeminent fundamental theories behind much of the workplace diversity research. Together, these two theories are often referred to as the Social identity approach (Turner, 1982). Given that it is foundational in van Knippenberg and colleagues' (2004) categorization-elaboration model, the social identity approach forms the most widely accepted theoretical basis for our understanding of the negative performance effects that can result from social categorization processes in diverse groups (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Guillaume et al., 2013; van Knippenberg et al., 2013).

Social identity theory (SIT) is one of the primary models by which we understand a wide variety of intergroup and intragroup interactions. It was originally proposed as a way to use peoples' perceived social identity — a person's self-image, which they draw from the social categories or groups to which they perceive themselves belonging — to explain intergroup interactions (Abrams & Hogg, 2006; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Drawing on this concept of categorization, the premise of social identity theory is that humans are innately driven to categorize themselves and others into social categories and groups, to which they perceive that they belong, and particularly into those that reflect positively on their self-

esteem or reduce uncertainty (Hogg & Terry, 2000). This process can be conscious or not, but the belief that they are part of a certain group or social category can influence their actions and attitudes in a variety of ways. Groups only exist when seen in relation to other groups, so people derive the meaning of their own group membership through comparison to other perceived groups (Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Because the focus of social identity is based on the distinctions between one's own group and other groups, individuals are often focused on the perceived differences between groups (Abrams & Hogg, 2006). Those seen as within your own group are known as in-group members, whereas those in other groups are known as out-group members.

Though social identity theory can be applied to any difference between people, it has often been considered in relation to gender, ethnicity, or other demographic diversity. These differences are often readily visible, making them salient dimensions of social identity based on which individuals form group memberships (Riordan, 2000), reduce uncertainty (Hogg & Terry, 2000), and enhance their self-esteem while developing a more positive image of their identity (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). Turner's (1982) Social categorization theory attempts to explain the underlying cognitive processes within SIT, which is particularly valuable in understanding intragroup interactions. This includes those interactions within small, diverse groups, which are more common in organizational settings. Hogg and Terry's (2000) work, which was central to initial efforts to apply SIT to the study of the workplace, proposes that people may be able to structure their social identities in such a way that diversity becomes a defining characteristic of their in-group, thus limiting the potential for any negative performance effects. Taken further, it follows that it may also be possible to influence the construction of social identities that celebrate diversity, potentially allowing for interventions that utilize the presence of diversity as a catalyst for performance improvement. This phenomenon was further conceptualized by van Knippenberg et al. (2013)

as a *diversity mindset* and represents another important new direction in the workforce diversity literature.

If social identity can be conceptualized as one's perception of their belonging to a group or category, the individual and the group then become psychologically intertwined, such that the group's successes or failures reflect back on the individual's sense of themselves. Applying this to an organizational setting, organizational identification (OID) can be viewed as the extent to which an individual defines themselves in terms of their membership in the organization. Within this organizational conceptualization, the same central aspects that guide the social identity approach still apply. Identification is based on comparisons with other groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), as the individual is defined in relationship to individuals in those "out-groups." Further, individuals identify at least in part to maintain and / or enhance their self-esteem (Abrams & Hogg, 1988). Finally, identification is a cognitive construct in nature, such that is not necessarily or consistently associated with any attitudes or behaviors (Turner et al., 1987).

Organizational identification is defined by Mael and Ashforth (1992) as "a perceived oneness with an organization and the experience of the organization's successes and failures as one's own." While generally viewed as a critical construct in organizational behavior, it has often overlapped or been confused with related constructs such as organizational commitment and internalization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) considered OID primarily through the lens of affective and motivational processes, while Pratt (1998) conceptualized it as an alignment between individual and organizational values. However, Ashforth and Mael's (1989) conceptualization grounded in social identity theory has proven the most enduring in modern OID research. The social identity perspective has been central in much of the previous research on diversity and inclusion in organizations, which makes OID a coherent choice as an outcome variable for this line of empirical research.

27

OID also has a robust history of empirical research (e.g., Epitropaki, 2013; Lee, Park, & Koo, 2015; Meleady & Crisp, 2017). It has been shown to be related to a variety of work-related outcomes such as turnover intention, job motivation, job satisfaction, and absenteeism, among others (van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). A meta-analytic review from Lee et al. (2015) found that OID was significantly associated with various key job attitudes and behaviors (and additionally, that the effects were stronger in collectivist cultures), as did an earlier meta-analysis from Riketta (2005). It should be noted that, while most research focuses on positive or desirable outcomes associated with OID, other research has found support for undesirable behaviors. For example, recent field research found that OID would predict unethical pro-organization behavior (Umphress, Bingham, & Mitchell, 2010). Further, Galvin, Lange, and Ashforth (2015) recently made the theoretical argument for a form of OID they dubbed "Narcissistic Organizational Identification", which they suggested might lead to negative and / or unethical behaviors. While it is important to be aware of these results, it does not change the fact that OID seems to be a significant predictor of many job-related outcomes, and that largely, these seem to be overwhelmingly desirable, from both the organizational and individual perspectives. Hence, organizational identification has clear value in research focused on the outcomes of diversity management.

2.1.3 Affective Commitment

In addition to considering organizational identification as an outcome variable from a social identity perspective, it is also valuable to consider affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991) as an outcome, grounded in the social exchange perspective (Rousseau & Park, 1993). Allan & Meyer (1990, p.1) define affective commitment as an "emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization." The most prominent conceptualization of organizational commitment in the literature is based on Meyer and Allen's (1991) work, who propose that commitment consists

of three distinct components: Affective (a desire), Continuance (a need), and Normative (an obligation). For the sake of this thesis, the focus is exclusively on affective commitment, which Mercurio (2015, p. 403) describes as the "core essence of organizational commitment." Consistent with that assessment, previous research on diversity management has focused on affective commitment as the most theoretically relevant of the three (e.g., Kooij et al., 2010; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). Further, affective commitment has generally been shown to have the strongest correlations with favorable job-related outcomes (e.g., attendance, performance, organizational citizenship behaviors) (Meyer et al., 2002) and has been consistently identified in the human resources literature as an outcome of positive HR practices (Kooij et al., 2010; Mamman, Kamoche, & Bakuwa, 2012).

Before delving further into the theoretical underpinnings of affective commitment, it is worth addressing the overlap between affective commitment and organizational identification. They both represent a psychological relationship between the individual and the organization and are often related to the same antecedents and outcomes (Ng, 2015), which begs the question of whether or not they are truly distinct constructs. Some researchers view OID as a facet of commitment (e.g., Wiener, 1982), while many have put forward arguments in support of OID and commitment as unique (though perhaps related) constructs (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Pratt, 1998). Van Knippenberg and Sleebos (2006) argue that OID's emphasis on self-definition, as opposed to commitment's focus on exchange, represents the fundamental difference between the constructs. By its nature, identification implies that there is a psychological unity between the individual and the group (in this case, the organization). In contrast, commitment refers to a relationship between the individual and the group (again, the organization) in which both remain separate psychological entities. Indeed, a Meta-analysis by Ng (2015) found that OID did offer (modest) incremental validity in relation to organizational commitment and organizational trust.

Serving as the theoretical foundation for affective commitment, social exchange theory is one of the most influential and lasting conceptual paradigms in organizational psychology research and can trace its foundations to social psychology, sociology, and economics (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Traditionally, this theoretical approach was used to explain interactions between individuals. However, in taking a social exchange perspective in organizational research, the primary application is the employee / employer relationship based on the exchange of effort, job performance, or loyalty from the employee for benefits such as pay and recognition from the employer (van Knippenberg, Van Dick, & Tavares, 2007). As such, employees' perceptions of their exchange relationships with the organization and its representatives are predictive of their attitudes, performance, and behaviors; the higher the perceived quality of the exchange relationship, the more motivated the individual employee is to perform duties on behalf of their organization and to remain within the relationship.

Social exchange theory has been widely applied to organizational research; however, this extensive and diverse application has led to a lack of conceptual and theoretical clarity (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Emerson (1976) proposes that certain rules are necessary to establish a shared definition of what constitutes an exchange relationship between entities. In the context of this dissertation, I will focus on the idea of "reciprocity rules" within social exchange (Gouldner, 1960), as opposed to negotiated rules, altruism, group gain, or competition. This approach is most valuable when considering organizational commitment as an outcome variable; negotiated rules are too formal to capture the complexity of commitment as a construct, and the other reciprocity rule paradigms are more beneficial when considering the exchange between individuals.

Building on this idea, Rousseau & Parks (1993) developed a conceptualization of the psychological contract as a fundamentally multi-level construct, representing agreements

between individuals and an organization. Grounded in the social exchange perspective, a psychological contract represents the individual's beliefs regarding their reciprocal obligations to the organization in their exchange relationship (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Rousseau & Park (1993) differentiate social contracts and promissory contracts, wherein social contracts are normative and based on norms of exchange or reciprocity, whereas promissory contracts are more literal, economic exchanges wherein a commitment for a certain behavior is offered in exchange for payment. The former is most relevant in this research context, as climate, diversity approach, diversity management, and organizational messaging in general are inherently immaterial to some degree and incompatible with formalized economic exchanges between organization and employee. Indeed, given their relative conceptual clarity and strong empirical support thus far, psychological contracts have been studied extensively over the past two decades (Alcover, Rico, Turnley, & Bolino, 2017; Solinger, Hofmans, Bal, & Jansen, 2015).

Overall, the key predictions of the social exchange perspective have received strong support in the literature (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The social exchange relationship between an individual and the organization and / or its representatives has been shown to be related to a number of relevant outcome variables such as job satisfaction, job performance, and most central to this thesis, organizational commitment and turnover intentions (Ng et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Solinger et al., 2015). As such, the social exchange perspective establishes the theoretical framework for the inclusion of affective commitment as an outcome variable.

2.1.4 Turnover Intentions

As in much organizational research, commitment and identification are measured in this research due to the work outcomes they predict (Haslam, Postmes, & Ellemers, 2003;

Van Dick et al., 2004). Commitment is so often measured as an outcome variable because it is assumed to influence many behaviors that are beneficial to organizations (e.g., performance, attendance, turnover) (Riketta, 2005). Identification is treated similarly in the literature (Lee et al., 2015), though it is also more often considered as a predictor of organizational citizenship behaviors (Van Dick, Grojean, Christ, & Wieseke, 2006) and well-being (Avanzi, van Dick, Fraccaroli, & Sarchielli, 2012).

However, a benefit of conducting organizational research in the field is that one can assess work outcomes more directly, which adds to the face validity of the findings. While objective measures (e.g., turnover, performance) would be ideal, *turnover intentions* was a more realistic alternative given the time restrictions on this research. While turnover intentions and objective turnover should be viewed as unique constructs (Tett & Meyer, 1993), empirical work consistently shows that the former is an excellent predictor of the latter (Griffeth, Horn, & Gaertner, 2000). Further, Ashforth and Mael (1989) argue that organizational identification should be associated with support for the organization, which in turn predicts turnover intentions (van Dick et al., 2004). Similarly, Tett and Meyer's (1993) meta-analysis finds that organizational commitment predicts turnover intention. As such, turnover intentions can be measured in a field study (Study 6) and added to my model (see Chapter 5) as a separate and distinct outcome variable which furthers the overall contribution of this research.

2.2 ANTECEDENTS

2.2.1 Demographic Representativeness

Given that commitment, identification, and turnover intentions represent important and desirable outcomes of diversity management, one must then consider the factors that are positively related to these outcomes. Diversity management incorporates a wide range of

organizational policies and practices — everything from diversity training and mentorship programs to recruitment practices and internal communications (Kulik, 2014). However, no variable has been shown to be as consistently and significantly relevant to employee reactions to diversity management than the objective demographic heterogeneity of an organization's employees (Avery et al., 2008; Lindsey et al., 2017) or its board members (Miller & del Carmen Triana, 2009; Windscheid et al., 2016). That is to say, when a company is observed to be demographically diverse, people perceive its diversity management practices as being effective.

Of particular note on this front, Smith and colleagues (2012) conducted two experimental studies which both showed a medium to large main effect of the racial demographics of an organization on participants' evaluations of the organization's commitment to diversity. In another example based on three studies using both secondary and survey data, Lindsey et al. (2017) found that the ethnic representativeness of an organization's managers was negatively related to interpersonal mistreatment at work. In yet another relevant empirical example, Purdie-Vaughns and colleagues demonstrated in a series of three experiments that low minority representation in a workplace setting can have negative effects on trust among African American professionals (when paired with a 'colorblind' environment) (Purdie-Vaughns, Steele, Davies, Ditlmann, & Crosby, 2008). Overall, research suggests that the numerical representation of female and minority employees is one of the primary indicators of an organization's commitment to diversity (Smith et al., 2012).

While the majority of research on demography in organizations has been approached from a social identity perspective (i.e., the similarity-attraction paradigm, see Avery et al., 2008), I adopt Lindsey and colleagues' (2017) suggestion that signaling theory is also relevant to understanding how employees react to demographic diversity within their organization. Signaling theory is well established and has become increasingly popular in management

research (Connelly, Certo, Ireland, & Reutzel, 2011). While it is more commonly applied in research assessing external stakeholders rather than current employees (e.g., an investor trying to decide whether to invest in a company), Lindsey et al. (2017) demonstrate that it can also be applied to those already within an organization. Put simply, individuals use signals — observable actions that provide information about unobservable attributes (Spence, 1978) — to help close the gap between what they *know* about an organization and what they *want to know* (Bergh, Connelly, Ketchen, & Shannon, 2014). Demographic diversity is just such a signal; an employee *knows* that an organization has certain diversity policies and practices, but demographic representativeness signals the degree to which the organizations actually values diversity (i.e., what the employee really *wants to know*).

From a more tangible perspective, demographic representativeness has been demonstrated to improve performance outcomes in organizations. Notably, research on data from 142 hospitals in the United Kingdom found that the degree to which the ethnic demography of each hospital was representative of the community that it served was positively related to organizational performance metrics like patient mortality and shorter waiting times (King, Dawson, West, Gilrane, Peddie, & Bastin, 2011). Further, returning to van Knippenberg and colleagues' (2004) categorization-elaboration model, there is extensive evidence that ethnic diversity within groups can improve performance on a variety of metrics (Guillaume et al., 2017; McLeod et al., 1996).

However, there is also evidence that heterogeneity within groups can create faultiness between members, which can have negative effects on group functioning and performance (e.g., Homan, van Knippenberg, van Kleef, & De Dreu, 2007; Homan et al., 2015). Further, there is some mixed evidence that for certain types of tasks (e.g., low difficulty, performance tasks), team homogeneity may be beneficial for work teams (Bowers, Pharmer, & Salas, 2000). In general, it is accepted that diversity within teams and organizations can have

positive as well as negative effects on performance, and that a focus on managing diversity and understanding the contingencies of the positive and negative effects is the ideal way forward (van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). Thus, while it is fair to say that diversity is not necessarily beneficial across every context, most large organizations view demographic heterogeneity as a significant goal in and of itself (Roberson et al., 2017). This may be motivated by morality or a belief in social justice, positive publicity and recruitment benefits, or a genuine belief in the value-in-diversity hypothesis. However, particularly in regard to the latter motivation, it is clear that research like this is needed to better understand the contingencies which elicit the positive (and mitigate the negative) effects of demographic diversity in organizations.

Taking this into account, research has also established that there are evidence-based actions organizations can take to increase demographic representativeness (Avery et al., 2012). Rau and Hyland (2003) demonstrated in an experimental study that certain teamwork statements in college recruitment brochures have particularly strong effects on attraction to an organization among ethnic minority and female applicants. Roberson et al. (2017) outline a number of best practices in selection for hiring diverse candidates. Further, a number of studies have assessed the viability of quota-based hiring policies and made relevant recommendations on increasing diversity within organizations (e.g., Kalev et al., 2006; Shaughnessy et al., 2016). In sum, the literature establishes that it is possible for an organization to increase the diversity of its workforce. As such, employees are reasonably justified in viewing the demographic heterogeneity of their organization's current employees as a relevant signal of its diversity policies and practices.

Overall, there is a consensus that the demographic representativeness of an organization (or its board members) can affect employee perceptions of its diversity practices. Further, it is clear that these perceptions are justified; demographic representativeness (and

heterogeneity more broadly) has the potential to affect key work-related outcomes and is something that organizations can reasonably be expected to focus on. Building on the definition used by King et al. (2011), *demographic representativeness (DR)* is defined in this work as the degree to which the composition of an organization's employees is representative of the community which it serves. As in previous research, DR is positioned as a key indicator by which employees judge the overall effectiveness of their organization's diversity management practices (Avery et al., 2008, Cox & Blake, 1991; Lindsey et al., 2017).

2.2.2 Diversity Climate

So far, this review has established why affective commitment, organizational identification and turnover intentions are key metrics by which the effectiveness of diversity management can be assessed. Further, it has laid out why demographic representativeness serves as a signal to employees regarding the effectiveness of their organization's DM practices. However, an organization's demographic diversity does not exist in a vacuum; there is a difference between numerical diversity and what might be described as *inclusiveness* (i.e., the degree to which an organization integrates its employees into its primary activities at various levels (Cox & Blake, 1993; Roberson, 2006). Diversity on its own is as likely to lead to faultlines and negative work outcomes as it is to enhance performance (Guillaume et al., 2017; Homan et al., 2007; Homan et al., 2015; van Knippenberg et al., 2004). However, there is ample evidence to suggest that the degree to which employees believe an organization is inclusive can directly affect whether demographic diversity is beneficial or detrimental.

This concept of inclusiveness is most often conceptualized in the literature as *diversity climate* (Mor Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998; McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007; Dwertmann et al., 2016). McKay and colleagues (2007) define diversity climate as "employees' shared perceptions that an employer utilizes fair personnel

practices and socially integrates underrepresented employees into the work environment."

This draws heavily on the broader construct of organizational climate (James & Jones, 1974)

to establish a shared-perception model which is specifically focused on diversity-relevant

perceptions. Kossek and Zonia (1993) note that this construct includes both (1) the degree to

which efforts to increase diversity in the organization are valued and (2) the general belief that

minority individuals (as well as women) are equally capable and qualified as their majority

counterparts.

Both diversity climate and DM approach (discussed in the following section) draw

their theoretical underpinnings from sociological research into acculturation (Olsen &

Martins, 2012), in which research focuses on how individuals from one culture adapt to a new

country or culture into which they have immigrated, and in turn, the process by which they

resolve conflicts between their original cultural identity with their new cultural reality (Berry

& Annis, 1974). Additionally, acculturation research in general constitutes a significant

foundation (or perhaps inspiration) for several diversity and inclusion-related theories (e.g.,

Cox & Blake, 1991; Dwertmann et al., 2016; van Knippenberg et al., 2013).

One of the predominant and perhaps most relevant models of acculturation is known

as the fourfold model, put forward by Berry (1997). This model established four acculturation

strategies based on the following two-dimensions: The extent to which an individual views

their cultural identity and characteristics as important, and the extent to which they perceive

they should become involved in other cultural groups. The four strategies proposed are

assimilation, integration, segregation, and marginalization (Berry, 1997). For most

organizational research (as well as for the purposes of this dissertation), segregation and

marginalization are largely ignored, as these outcomes would be broadly seen as socially and

legally unacceptable in most North American and European organizations (Dwertmann et al.,

2016). However, the discussion between the respective value of the assimilation and

integration strategies remains prevalent, both in the workplace and society as a whole (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Olsen & Martins, 2012). These ideas are often discussed informally in the literature using terms like a "melting pot approach" (i.e. assimilation, where different cultures come together to form one overarching culture) versus a "multicultural society" (i.e. integration, where different cultures coexist together). The model has both adamant proponents and detractors. Escobar and Vega (2000) note a lack of predictive power, and Rudmin (2003) critiques a lack of construct clarity with regard to the differentiation between dimensions, an overall lack of validity, and for being overly focused on minority groups (as opposed to the non-minority comparison group). Even still, evidence of the Berry's (1997) fourfold model is still readily apparent in both Dwertmann et al. (2016) diversity climate and Olsen and Martin's (2012) DM approach frameworks.

From a value-in-diversity perspective, the literature on social cognition also offers useful insights. Crisp and Turner's (2011) Categorization-Processing-Adaptation-Generalization (CPAG) model outlines the cognitive process by which individuals mentally adapt to diversity and reap the resultant benefits of this adaptation. Central to this process is the extent to which the individual is *motivated* to engage with the process cognitively. This is in line with Berry's (1997) acculturation work, in which he argued that immigrants will only attempt to integrate their original and host culture identities when they are motivated to do so. This links to the value-in-diversity hypothesis directly through the aforementioned categorization-elaboration model (van Knippenberg et al., 2004). Motivation to engage in elaborative processing fosters cognitive flexibility (Crisp & Turner, 2011). In turn, this allows for the information elaboration processes which enhance team performance in the categorization-elaboration model to take place (van Knippenberg et al., 2004). Taken together, motivation to engage with diversity can be viewed as a critical cognitive antecedent

to positive work outcomes derived from diversity, and a positive diversity climate is crucial to engendering that motivation.

This is evidenced in the latest empirical literature, in which there is a clear consensus that diversity climate is a relevant factor when considering a number of outcomes for both current and potential employees. McKay and colleagues (2009) found that the diversity climate perceptions of managers and their subordinates had a direct effect on sales performance across 654 locations of a U.S. retailer. Avery et al. (2013) found in two experimental studies that potential employees were more likely to pursue employment with an organization that they perceived to have a positive diversity climate. Of particular relevance to the outcome variables assessed in this research, Gonzalez and DeNisi (2009) find that diversity climate moderates the effect of demography on affective organizational commitment, organizational identification, and turnover intention. That is to say, the authors find that demographic dissimilarity has stronger negative effects when climate is adverse and weaker negative effects when the diversity climate is supportive

In their recent review, Dwertmann and et al. (2016) differentiate between two broad perspectives on diversity climate: "Synergy" and "fairness and discrimination." Those authors, building on previous research from Ely and Thomas (2001), describe the *synergy perspective* primarily around an organizational focus on diversity as a resource which can be leveraged for performance benefits. This perspective is very much in line with the value-in-diversity hypothesis (Cox & Blake, 1991; McLeod et al., 1996) discussed earlier in this chapter. This is distinct from the *fairness and discrimination perspective*, in which an organization is concerned primarily with creating equal opportunities and avoiding any discriminatory practices rather than achieving any performance benefits. However, as Gonzales and DeNisi (2009) note, diversity climate encompasses employee perceptions about both the formal structural characteristics of an organization and the informal values an

39

organization holds toward diversity. Overall, the literature makes it clear that diversity climate is a valuable construct in understanding the outcomes of diversity management.

2.2.3 Diversity Management Approach

Central to this thesis is investigating the effects of any inconsistency between an organization's espoused values and its realized practices relating to diversity management. An organization might say the right things in attempting to develop a synergy climate, but what happens if there is a misalignment between those DM values and the observable signals that reflect the actual effectiveness of its practices (e.g., the demographic representativeness of its employees)? To address this issue, I turn to *diversity management (DM) approach,* a closely related construct proposed by Olsen and Martins (2012), defined as the explicitly or implicitly held diversity-related values and strategies that underlie an organization's various DM programs and affect the diversity-to-performance relationship (see Figure 2.1). If diversity climate is based on the concept of organizational climate, one might argue that DM approach relates more closely to organizational culture. In the management literature, climate is unique from culture in that it refers to a specific situation within an organization, and how it relates to the behaviors and attitudes of its members, whereas culture refers to a context more rooted in history, collectively held, and complex (Denison, 1996). Climate is temporally subjective and most often approached quantitatively, while culture has most often been studied with qualitative methods.

Diversity Climate vs. DM Approach

Diversity Climate   **Diversity Management (DM) Approach**

➤ Temporally flexible —
  can change on a day-to-
  day basis
➤ May vary by team or
  unit
➤ Impacted by the action
  of individuals,
  especially leaders

➤ Shared
  employee
  perceptions
  about an
  organization's
  implicit &
  explicit
  diversity
  practices

➤ Based on the norms,
  beliefs, and values which
  an organization holds
  toward diversity
➤ Temporally stable — may
  change gradually but
  generally consistent
➤ Set from the top of the
  organization down
➤ Rooted in the history of
  the organization

Figure 2.1. Comparing diversity climate and diversity management approach

In the broader management literature, Denison (1996) went so far as to suggest that culture and climate represent different interpretations of the same phenomenon, though most still consider them unique constructs (Ostroff, Kinicki, & Muhammad, 2012). While there is some lack of clarity here, it is clear that these two concepts — diversity management approach and diversity climate — are closely connected and influence each other considerably. In the research I report in this thesis, it is not necessary to establish their exact relationship — indeed, the degree to which they are unique constructs at all is debatable. I primarily focus on DM approach (rather than diversity climate) as its definition more accurately reflects the organizational *norms, beliefs, and* values that this research is focused on (Olsen & Martins, 2012).

As an example, if an organization hires or fires a minority employee, or promotes a woman to an executive role, this might have an immediate, tangible effect on how employees perceive the diversity climate within the organization or work unit. Conversely, the DM

approach is more constant; years of consistently pro-diversity actions may gradually shift how employees perceive an organization's DM approach, but the underlying norms, beliefs, and values on which DM approach is based are not easily swayed by any one action. Thus, to best capture an organization's espoused values (rather than the effects of any specific practices), I focus predominately on DM approach in outlining the conceptual model that guides this research. That said, it was necessary to consider the comparatively more extensive literature on diversity climate in developing hypotheses and a comprehensive model.

Given that, it is beneficial then to consider Olsen and Martins' (2012) work outlining the construct of DM approach. Their model splits DM approach into two parts: value type and acculturation strategy. For the sake of this research, only the former will be discussed. An organization's DM approach value can be terminal or instrumental *(*see Figure 2.2*)*. A *terminal value* reflects an approach in which a diverse workforce is an objective in and of itself, without considering it as a means to improve business outcomes or unit performance, whereas an *instrumental value* reflects an approach that focuses on leveraging diversity to improve performance and achieve business outcomes (i.e., diversity is *instrumental* to achieving business success) (Olsen & Martins, 2012). Though the subtle but meaningful differences between DM approach and diversity climate have been noted, Olsen and Martins' (2012) approach values can clearly be linked to the synergy climate (instrumental) and the fairness and discrimination climate (terminal) described earlier (Dwertmann et al., 2016).

Diversity Management Approach Value	
Instrumental	**Terminal**
➢ Diversity is *instrumental* in achieving business success ➢ Focus on information elaboration ➢ Employees encouraged to share diverse perspectives ➢ Employees encouraged to listen to and seek out diverse perspectives ➢ Everyone's opinion is given serious consideration ➢ Belief that the whole can be greater than the sum of its parts	➢ Diversity is a *terminal* objective in and of itself without considering its relevance to business success ➢ Focus on equal opportunities ➢ Avoid discrimination ➢ Purely moral or social responsibility ➢ Fair implementation of diversity practices ➢ Diversity-specific practices aimed at improving employment outcomes for underrepresented employees

Figure 2.2. Description of instrumental vs. terminal diversity management approach values

Regardless of DM approach value, organizational diversity practices are likely to involve seeking to increase the demographic diversity of the organization (Kalev et al., 2006). In Olsen and Martins' (2012) framework, it is the underlying value driving this goal that differs between organizations. This is especially relevant, as previous research has asserted that employees react more positively to hiring decisions (in the context of diversity management) when a justification is given (Richard & Kirby, 1999). Of note, Cox and Blake (1991) also propose that either a social responsibility rationale or a business performance rationale for diversity management may elicit different reactions from employees. All told, there is support for the idea that employees may react differently to varied justifications for DM practices.

Whether in the literature involving DM approach values (Olsen & Martins, 2012), diversity climate (Dwertmann et al., 2016), or diversity perspectives (Ely & Thomas, 2001), the instrumental versus terminal debate has been discussed in the literature for decades.

Despite the apparent lack of construct clarity and empirical support, there is consistent agreement that an instrumental DM approach value is likely to have more positive effects from the standpoint of organizational attractiveness to both current and potential employees (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Olsen & Martins, 2012; Richard & Kirby, 1999), as well as from a business and unit-level performance standpoint (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Kossek & Zonia, 1993; van Knippenberg et al., 2004).

However, as Simons (2002) notes, "values" do not necessarily have to be explicitly stated; instead, they can sometimes be inferred by employees based on a combination of statements, policies, and observed practices. In this, there is limited but valuable guidance in previous empirical work. Smith et al. (2012) conducted the first research to experimentally manipulate the diversity-relevant values expressed by an organization by creating a stimulus which they described as a "projected diversity image." To do this, they used a fictitious newspaper article which included statements from a company's HR spokesperson and a quote from an anonymous employee. They then assessed participants' affective reactions toward the organization, as well as how participants perceived the organization's commitment to diversity. Notably, they also manipulated the demographic heterogeneity of the fictitious organization and found significant interaction effects between these two variables such that both an authentic projected diversity image (i.e., values) and demographic heterogeneity (i.e., observed practices) were necessary to create a reputation for commitment to diversity.

In another relevant example that most directly guided the experimental manipulations developed for this thesis, Windscheid et al. (2016) also focused on employer attractiveness to non-employees. In a series of experimental studies, they use a fictitious organization's "diversity statement" as presented on a mock company web page as a stimulus (written in German, the country in which this research was conducted). They find that a "diversity mixed-message" (that is, when the stated values did not align with the demographic

composition of the company's board) was negatively related to perceived behavioral integrity, which in turn reduced employer attractiveness to outsiders. While they combined values and observed practices into a single variable, the outcome was largely consistent with the findings of Smith et al. (2012).

The abovementioned studies provide useful examples of how the espoused values of an organization regarding diversity can be manipulated experimentally. However, the research conducted herein focuses instead on how the work-related attitudes of the current employees of an organization are affected by its DM practices. As established earlier in this chapter, demographic representativeness serves as an observable signal of diversity management practices from an employee's perceptive — *"My company is diverse, therefore, its diversity management practices must be working."* However, conceptualizing the "espoused values" of an organization is a more challenging endeavor which has not been approached consistently in the existing literature. Given this, DM approach is a useful framework within which these organizational diversity values can be grounded.

Overall, it is clear that (1) employees make implicit judgments about the values of an organization based on observed policies, practices, and procedures (Olsen & Martins, 2012) and (2) a misalignment between these observable actions and the explicitly expressed values of the organization can have negative consequences (Smith et al., 2012; Windscheid et al., 2016). Thus, the risk for organizations is apparent, as is the gap in the current literature. To extend these previous findings and ground them more firmly within the DM approach / diversity climate literature, this research seeks to investigate the effects of a misalignment between the expressed DM approach values and the observable practices of an organization.

2.3 PROCESSES

2.3.1 Perceived Organizational Authenticity

So far, this review has discussed at length the factors that affect how employees perceive the diversity management efforts of their organization. The practices themselves are assessed through clear signals (such as the demographic diversity of the workforce), while employees also make both explicit and implicit judgements about the underlying values they perceive as motivating their organization's actions. Further, I have discussed the work-related outcomes (affective commitment, organizational identification, turnover intentions) that are most relevant to diversity management effectiveness. A central focus of this research is investigating the interaction between the observed diversity management practices and the values expressed by organizations. However, I also seek to explain the underlying mechanisms by which that interaction connects to the aforementioned work-related outcomes. To do this, I consider *perceived organizational authenticity*.

Authenticity as a concept has been extremely popular across a number of different fields of research and practice, and organizational psychology is no exception. Politicians are extolled for their perceived authenticity[19], advertisers strive to convey it (Becker, Wiegand, & Reinartz, 2019), and "authentic leadership" was one of the most popular topics in management research throughout the aughts (Avolio & Gardner, 2005) — though it is also often criticized as being a nebulous and poorly defined construct (Ibarra, 2015). Walumbwa and colleagues' widely used Authentic Leadership Questionnaire incorporates measures of self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wensing, & Peterson, 2008). However, this leadership construct has been criticized as offering little explanatory power above and beyond

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[19] https://www.nytimes.com/2016/07/10/magazine/what-makes-a-politician-authentic.html

previously developed leadership constructs (Banks, McCauley, Gardner, & Guler, 2016), and regardless, it is difficult to translate this individual-level construct to the organizational level.

This dissertation focuses on just that (authenticity on the organizational level), which has received less attention than individual-level, authenticity-related constructs. Indeed, Cording, Harrison, Hoskisson, and Jonsen (2014) were perhaps the first to flesh out the construct on the organizational level; they parsimoniously define it as the "consistency between a firm's espoused values and its realized practice", which in essence recalls the classic notion that if one "talks the talk", they must also "walk the walk." The authors firmly ground this construct in social exchange theory and explicitly reference Rousseau and Park's (1993) psychological contract theory in its development. The values espoused by organizations (e.g. fairness, accountability, diversity, equality) lead employees to develop expectations about how the firm will behave. In turn, these expectations form an implicit contract between the organization and its employees. When an organization adheres to these values (i.e., it acts authentically), it results in a positive, reciprocal relationship with employees (Blau, 1964; Bosse, Phillips, & Harrison, 2009). Alternatively, a violation of this implicit contract on the part of an organization can result in negative reciprocity between employee and employer, which can result in undesirable job-relevant outcomes (e.g. organizational commitment, turnover intentions).

There are limited examples of organizational authenticity as a construct in the organizational behavior area. Smith et al. (2012) developed a measure of organizational-level authenticity based in part on Mor Barak and colleagues' (1988) work. They were the first to demonstrate explicitly that organizational-level authenticity may be relevant to both recruitment of perspective employees and current employees' attitudes and behaviors. While the findings regarding current employees influence this research more directly, the former finding brings up the important point that organizations will also have relationships with other

stakeholders beyond their own employees in which their values and actions are assessed (e.g., customers, suppliers, the broader public). Considering generalized exchange theory (Molm, Collett, & Schaefer, 2007), the attitudes and behaviors of employees toward the organization are also influenced by the organization's behavior toward other parties (i.e., employee attitudes toward their organization may be affected by the organization's relationship with its customers) (Harrison, Bosse, & Phillips, 2010). Broadly, from the social exchange perspective and considering norms of reciprocity, being perceived as authentic should then be seen as a priority for organizations. Indeed, in the context of post-merger firm performance, Cording et al. (2014) found that a lack of organizational authenticity is associated with lower firm-wide productivity, which was in turn related to long-term merger performance.

Discussed in the previous chapter, Windscheid and colleagues (2016) were among the first to conceptualize behavioral integrity as an organizational construct. As noted, they found that "diversity mixed messages" — that is, when an employer's words and actions are not aligned in regard to diversity management — were negatively related to employer attractiveness among perspective employees. Crucially, this relationship was mediated by behavioral integrity (i.e., organizational authenticity; consistency between words and actions). This experimental study built on the work of Leroy, Palanski, and Simons' (2011), who found in a survey of 49 teams that behavioral integrity mediates the relationship between authentic leadership and affective commitment. They also found evidence of a serial mediation, in which commitment was further related to leader-rated work role performance, highlighting again the relationship between organizational commitment and tangible performance benefits.

Despite the epithetical similarities to the organizational behavior construct of authentic leadership, organizational authenticity in the present research borrows more directly in its development from the individual-level construct of behavioral integrity (Simons, 2002; Simons, Friedman, Liu, & McLean Parks, 2007). While both authenticity and integrity have

been occasionally studied on the organizational level as distinct (though often overlapping) constructs (e.g. Arnold, Goodstein, Beck, Stewart, & Shumski Thomas, 2016; Smith et al., 2012), the term "authenticity" is a more semantically-sound descriptor; integrity connotes a broader range of behaviors on the organizational level which go beyond the definition put forward by Cording et al. (2014) (i.e., an organization that sells its products to a violent, authoritarian regime, or one that pays its employees unreasonably low wages, would generally be considered to have low "integrity", despite the lack of any necessary inconsistency between its words and action). As such, "perceived organizational authenticity" is used throughout this thesis. Given this semantic inconsistency, though, I do thoroughly consider works that deal with both behavioral integrity (at the organizational level) and organizational authenticity in my review of the somewhat limited existing literature.

As stated previously, authenticity on the whole has a broad but somewhat muddled history in management research, and it has been most often studied through the lens of leadership (e.g. Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011) or marketing (e.g. Leigh, Peters, & Shelton, 2006). Relatively few studies have used the well-known behavioral integrity construct (Simons, 2002) on the organizational level, with a few notable exceptions (e.g., Leroy et al., 2012; Windscheid et al., 2016). While a focus on organizational-level factors when studying workforce diversity is not a new approach (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Rynes & Rosen, 1995), more experimental research based on this approach has been suggested as an opportunity for future exploration (Dwertmann et al., 2016). Given that, I build on the findings of Leroy et al. (2012) and Windscheid et al. (2016) in positioning perceived organizational authenticity as a mediating variable in my conceptual model.

2.3.2 A Moderated Mediation Model of Organizational Authenticity in Diversity Management

Thus far, this work has reviewed the existing literature on three relevant work-related outcome variables, explored the predictors of these outcomes, and proposed a potential underlying mechanism that explains the relationship between them. I review organizational identification, affective commitment, and turnover intentions and discuss their relevance as outcomes in the context of diversity management. Diversity management approach is explored as a factor that represents the espoused values of an organization regarding diversity. Further, the degree to which demographic representativeness serves as a signal to employees about the diversity management practices of their organization is discussed. Finally, the concept of perceived organizational authenticity is put forward and grounded within both the broader management and behavioral integrity literatures. In the broadest terms, the overarching aim of this research is to investigate whether a disconnect between the espoused values and realized practices observed in an organization's diversity management efforts will have a negative effect on key outcomes for employees. Specifically, whether an *instrumental* value paired with a demographically non-diverse organization will be perceived by employees as being less authentic, which in turn will lead employees to identify less with the organization (see Figure 2.3). In essence, is there a backlash effect for organizations that talk the talk but do not walk the walk?
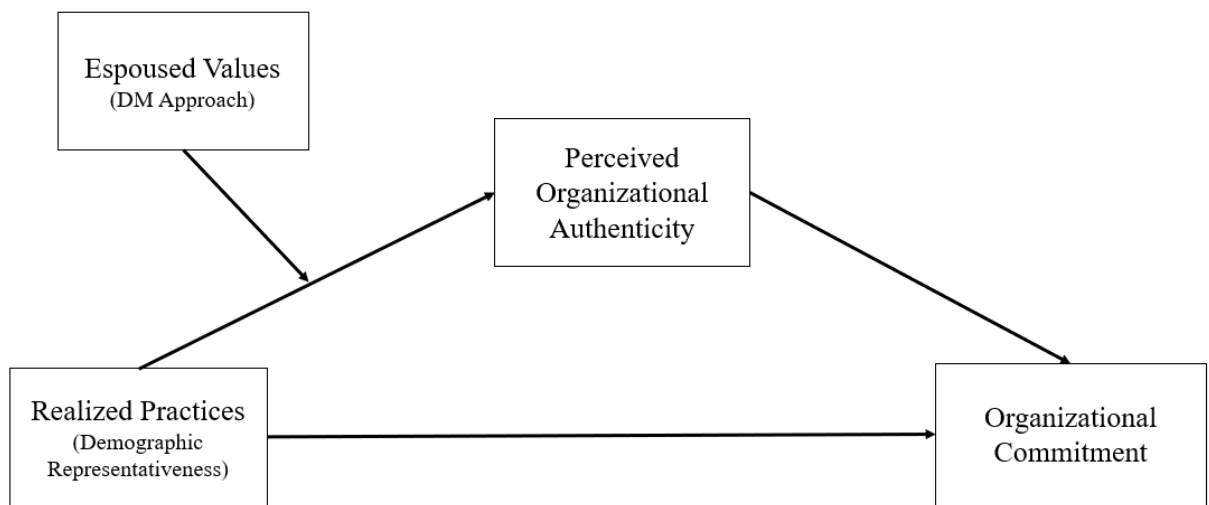
Figure 2.3. A moderated mediation model depicting the proposed conceptual model

Taken together, this review serves to outline a moderated mediation model, which will be empirically tested in the following chapters (see Figure 2.3). The two chief contributions of this research lie in (1) investigating the existence and nature of the interaction between DM approach and demographic representativeness (espoused values vs. realized practices) and (2) testing the explanatory role of perceived organizational authenticity. Both points address critical gaps in the management literature that has tangible and readily apparent applications in real world organizations.

2.4 Chapter Summary

In reviewing the current state of diversity management research, it is clear that it has reached something of an inflection point where novel approaches are required (Kulik, 2014; Leslie, 2019). Recent meta-analyses suggest inconsistent effects of DM practices (Bezrukova et al., 2016) and demonstrate the value of new approaches (Mor Barak et al., 2016). Kalev et al. (2006) note similarly inconsistent and modest effects of various diversity policies in their seminal systematic review. With the value-in-diversity hypothesis (Cox & Blake, 1991) having continued to gain acceptance in research and practice (Guillaume et al., 2017), recent

research has focused on contextual factors which might allow organizations to realize the advantageous outcomes that organizational diversity purportedly offers (Mor Barak et al., 2016). Specifically, multiple separate streams of research have proposed that employee perceptions of an organization's overall attitude / approach toward diversity (i.e., diversity climate, DM approach) may be particularly important (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Olsen & Martins, 2012).

Within this new outlook, it is most consistently advised that organizations should approach diversity management as a means by which to leverage the diversity of their employees for positive business outcomes (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Mor Barak et al., 2016). However, there is no empirical research to my knowledge exploring any potential drawbacks of pursuing this approach. This seems a considerable gap in the literature given the extensive findings showing potential negative effects of various diversity-related organizational practices (e.g., Kalev et al., 2006; Shaughnessy, Braun, Hentschel, & Peus, 2016). In particular, this review draws attention to the work of Smith et al. (2012) and Windscheid et al. (2016) in demonstrating the negative effects of an inconsistency between an organization's words and actions regarding diversity management. Given the overall state of research in this area, the empirical work in this thesis exploring moderators and underlying mechanisms that explain the outcomes of these new approaches to diversity contributes to the diversity management literature in a substantial way.

Overall, this review has served to make clear how the proposed conceptual model will contribute to the knowledge of this area. Given the limited previous empirical work on the topic, it is appropriate that the model is reasonably straightforward and firmly grounded theoretically in the social identity approach and the social exchange perspective, two of the most common theoretical approaches in organizational diversity research. The following three chapters present the findings of six empirical studies, which assess the validity of the key

claims laid out in the conceptual model. Following that in Chapter 6, I revisit the argument

laid out here and discuss it in the context of those empirical findings.

CHAPTER 3

The Effects of Organizational Diversity Management Approach and Demographic Representativeness on Employee Attitudes

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter reports the findings of three studies that explore how an organization's diversity management (DM) approach affects employee attitudes, as well as how DM approach interacts with an organization's observed demographic diversity. As discussed in the previous chapter, these variables represent the espoused values versus the realized practices of an organization. Study 1 tested the direct effects of instrumental versus terminal DM approach value signals on affective commitment, organizational identification, and perceived organizational authenticity, and probed for interaction effects with diversity beliefs. Building on the findings of Study 1, Studies 2 and 3 tested the interactive effects between DM approach value signals and demographic representativeness on the same work-related attitudes as Study 1. Results indicated that DM approach on its own had no significant effects on employee attitudes. However, an interaction effect between DM approach and demographic representativeness was observed, such that an "instrumental" DM approach was negatively related to employee attitudes only when demographic representativeness was low. Further, perceived organizational authenticity mediated the relationship between demographic representativeness and both affective commitment and organizational identification, supporting the overall moderated mediation model proposed in the previous chapter.

3.1 Methods

In order to understand the nature and direction of any main effects and to establish internal validity, an experimental design was deemed appropriate for Studies 1, 2, and 3 (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; Antonakis, Bendahan, Jaxquart, & Lalive, 2010). This allows me

to rule out alternative explanations for covariations and to develop a clearer understanding of the underlying mechanisms resulting in attitudinal changes (Colquitt, 2008; Stone-Romero & Rosopa, 2010). This is a common approach in both social and organizational psychology research that has continued to gain popularity in recent years (Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2019). Further, it has also been a common approach in studies of workforce diversity and organizational climate specifically (e.g., Homan et al., 2007; Phillips, Mannix, Neale, & Gruenfeld, 2004; Windscheid et al., 2016).

Participants for Study 1 and Study 3 were recruited using Prolific Academic, an online participant recruitment service. This source was chosen as participants recruited though Prolific have been shown to be more naïve and less dishonest than those on Amazon Mechanical Turk (a similar service) (Peer, Brandimarte, Samat, & Acquisti, 2017) and online crowd sourcing platforms in general can be a suitable source of high-quality data (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). Further, using paid participants from online recruitment services is common in this type of research (e.g. Jordan, Sommers, Bloom, & Rand, 2017; Meleady & Crisp, 2017; van Gils, Hogg, Van Quaquebeke, & van Knippenberg, 2017). The participants in Study 2 were recruited from a post-graduate business degree program at a UK university, which is also a common approach (e.g., Homan et al., 2007; Olsen & Martins, 2016).

Data was analyzed using independent sample t-tests in Study 1, and interactions were probed using a bias corrected bootstrapping procedure within the Process Macro in SPSS (Hayes, 2018). In Studies 2 and 3, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test for main and moderation effects, because the variables were categorical rather than continuous as in Study 1. ANOVA is a standard statistical procedure for testing moderation in experimental designs (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2019). In addition to the two independent variables, the effects of participant gender (dummy coded as 0 = male, 1 =

female) were also explored. This is justified because there is compelling evidence that women and other non-majority groups may react differently to diversity management practices (Cox & Blake, 1991; Gündemir, Dovidio, Homan, & De Dreu, 2017). Additionally, because there were participants from only two countries in Study 1 (UK – 60, USA – 18) and three countries in Study 3 (UK – 103, USA – 66, Canada – 19), separate independent sample *t*-tests were run to ensure there were no significant differences between the countries' respondents on any of the three outcome variables. No significant differences were observed.

In Studies 2 and 3, mediation and the overall moderated mediation model was tested using a bias corrected bootstrapping procedure within the Process Macro in SPSS (Hayes, 2018; Hayes, 2015; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). This procedure generates a sampling distribution of the product of the regression coefficients through approximating the coefficients in numerous resamples that are representative of the population from which the study sample was drawn (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). Coefficient estimates are then used to compute the product of the regression coefficients which are then rank ordered to locate percentile values that form 95% confidence interval (CI) (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). A bias-corrected confidence interval is then obtained by adjusting the confidence intervals for differences between the product from the sample and the median of the products estimated from the bootstrap samples (Preacher et al., 2007). If zero does not fall within the high and low confidence interval values, then there is proof of moderated mediation (Preacher et al., 2007). Based on the recommendation of Hayes (2015), 10,000 bootstrap resamples will be used for this analysis.

3.2 STUDY 1

While DM approach is an emerging research focus that has the potential to make diversity management initiatives more effective, there remains a lack of experimental work in

this area (Dwertmann et al., 2016). In a recent study, Olsen and Martins (2016) experimentally manipulated an organization's DM approach value signals using fictitious recruitment advertisements in a within-subject experimental design and found that signaling an instrumental DM approach had a significant positive effect on organizational attractiveness and merit-based attributions as compared to a terminal DM approach. In Study 1, I attempt to demonstrate a similar effect for current (rather than perspective) employees with a between-subject experimental vignette design which asks people to imagine themselves as students at a fictitious university. Further, I probe for an interaction with diversity beliefs. The rationale and theoretical justifications for this research and the hypotheses are presented in the following sections.

3.2.1 Diversity Management Approach as a Predictor of Employee Attitudes

Diversity management (DM) approach represents the diversity-related values and strategies that underlie an organization's various DM policies and practices (Olsen & Martins, 2012). Given the well-established focus on the value-in-diversity hypothesis (Cox & Blake, 1991; Robinson & Dechant, 1997) and the suggestion that an instrumental DM approach can maximize the positive outcomes diversity elicits (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Olsen & Martins, 2012), it is unsurprising that organizations would pursue this as a strategy.

However, DM approach is based on shared employee perceptions, and both the implicit and explicit values and strategies that underlie an organization's diversity-related policies and practices are taken into account (Olsen & Martin, 2012). That is to say, some organizational actions may objectively reflect a certain DM approach, but the way employees subjectively interpret any given policy or practice is also relevant. For example, diversity training might be seen as conveying an instrumental value if employees perceive it as

genuinely focused on leveraging employee diversity for performance. Conversely, it could be seen as terminal if employees believe it is only being done for legal defensibility purposes. Similarly, organizations often signal an instrumental DM approach through web pages and various corporate communications (e.g., "We believe that an inclusive work environment within which every employee has equal opportunity to contribute and develop is critical for our business" – The Heineken Company[20]). However, it is unclear how employees perceive these types of communication, and there is limited empirical evidence that instrumental value statements impact key employee attitudes one way or the other (see Olsen & Martins, 2016).

Nevertheless, as discussed in the previous chapter, we can take lessons from research on diversity climate and apply them to DM approach values, and there is compelling evidence that a positive diversity climate can lead to desirable business outcomes. For example, McKay et al. (2009) found that sales improvements were most positive when the organization had a supportive diversity climate, while Gonzalez and DeNisi (2009) found that the degree to which an organization's workforce is demographically diverse was positively related to performance only when diversity climate was positive. Thus, organizations are inclined to adjust their diversity policies and practices with the intention of increasing diversity climate (Kossek & Zonia, 1993). Given this, taking steps to develop and convey an instrumental DM approach — one in which employees perceive that the organization values diversity for its positive impact on performance and business outcomes — is a rational decision.

That said, there has been no research conducted to date examining how organizational attempts to express a certain DM approach value might affect or be interpreted by employees. Do an organization's espoused DM approach values impact employees' attitudes toward the organization? Do other contextual factors such as the demographic diversity of current

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[20] https://www.theheinekencompany.com/Sustainability/Values-and-Behaviours/Inclusion-and-diversity

employees or specific diversity management practices (diversity training, affirmative action, etc.) affect this? These questions are of vital importance to an organization seeking to convey a diversity management approach that will help it maximize the performance benefits derived from its diverse employees. Given the previous findings surrounding what has been variously called supportive, inclusive, or positive diversity climates (McKay et al., 2009; Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Mor Barak et al., 2016) and the theoretical DM approach framework put forward by Olsen and Martins (2012), I hypothesize that an organization expressing instrumental DM approach values will result in higher levels of affective commitment (Hypothesis 1a), organizational identification (Hypothesis 1b), and perceived organizational authenticity (Hypothesis 1c) among employees than an organization expressing terminal DM approach values.

3.2.2 Diversity Beliefs as a Moderator of the DM Approach – Employee Attitudes Relationship

To further understand how individual differences impact employee reactions to DM approach value signals, this research also considers diversity beliefs as a potential moderating variable. In line with previous work, *diversity beliefs* can be defined as the extent to which individuals believe diversity is either beneficial or detrimental to a group's functioning (Van Dick et al., 2008). Research has shown that a group achieving performance benefits based on the diversity of its members is contingent on individual team members' diversity beliefs (Homan et al., 2007). Van Dick et al. (2008) show that pro-diversity beliefs can reduce the strength of the negative relationship between diversity and group identification. Further, Homan et al. (2015) found that diversity training is more effective at increasing creative performance in diverse teams for those teams that had low diversity beliefs prior to training.

Given these previous findings, there appears to be some consensus that diversity beliefs are relevant to the diversity – performance relationship. That value-in-diversity relationship is crucial to the proposed usefulness of an instrumental DM approach (Olsen & Martins, 2012). As such, it stands to reason that pro-diversity beliefs may enhance any positive effects of a DM approach that focuses on the value of diversity. Therefore, I predict that the relationships outlined in Hypothesis 1 will be moderated by diversity beliefs, such that the relationships will be more positive for individuals holding pro-diversity beliefs (Hypothesis 2).

3.2.3 Sample and Design

Participants

The sample consisted of eighty-four students recruited using Prolific Academic. They were compensated at an average rate of £7.50 per hour. All participants were from the United States or the United Kingdom, 18 or older, and spoke English as a first language. Six respondents were removed from the analysis as they answered an attention-check question about the name of the organization in the manipulation incorrectly, resulting in $N = 78$ (60.30% female, 39.70% male) with an average age of 31.24 ($SD = 9.87$).

Procedure

Participants were asked to take part in a study about an organization's website and then directed from Prolific Academic to a Qualtrics survey. After reviewing an information sheet and completing an informed consent document, they were presented with a webpage from a fictitious university and then asked to respond to a questionnaire (see Appendix A). They were then shown a debrief upon completion.

Design and Manipulations

The study adopted a between-subjects design with DM approach (instrumental vs. terminal) as the independent variable and organizational identification, affective commitment,

and perceived organizational authenticity as the dependent variables. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions.

In designing the manipulations, dozens of corporate, government, higher education, and non-profit diversity and inclusion web pages were reviewed in an attempt to ensure a high level of realism and increase external validity. Language and certain phrases that appeared repeatedly in the real world and fit within Olsen and Martin's (2012) DM approach framework were incorporated into the fictitious website (see Figure 3.1). A webpage for a fictitious university called "Glenmore University" was designed in Microsoft Word. The name "Glenmore" was selected as an ambiguously Anglo name that is not currently associated with any widely recognized organizations or universities which might skew participants' opinions. As an example of the differences between the conditions, the instrumental condition included the sentence "The university strongly believes that a diverse faculty and student body leads to better discussions, decisions, and outcomes for everyone involved", which was replaced in the terminal condition with "The university strongly believes in taking steps to maintain a faculty and student body that reflect the diversity of the population." These changes clearly reflect an instrumental vs. terminal DM approach; the former signals that diversity is valued as "instrumental" to the university's primary goals as an organization, while the latter signals that diversity is valued only as an independent goal in and of itself. The webpages were made to look as similar as possible between the two conditions, with identical tone, formatting, images, and only subtle changes to the text.

3.2.4 Measures

This section contains the list of measures used in Study 1, along with their respective Cronbach's alpha value. See the Appendix B for a complete list of items for each.

Organizational Identification. Participants' organizational identification was measured using a 5-item scale adapted from Smidts, Pruyn, and Van Riel (2001). An example item is "I would feel strong ties with Glenmore University", and participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "Strongly Disagree" to 5 = "Strongly Agree". The scale demonstrated adequate reliability (α = .93).

Affective Commitment. Participants' affective commitment to the fictitious university was measured using a 5-item scale adapted from Meyer and Allen (1991). A sample item is "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own." Participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "Strongly Disagree" to 5 = "Strongly Agree". The scale demonstrated adequate reliability (α = .85).

Perceived Organizational Authenticity. To assess perceived organizational authenticity, I used a version of the Simons et al. (2007) Behavioral Integrity scale adapted to assess an organization. A sample item is "There is a match between the organization's words and actions", to which participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "Strongly Disagree" to 5 = "Strongly Agree". The scale demonstrated adequate reliability (α = .91).

Diversity Beliefs. To measure diversity beliefs, I used the scale developed by Van Dick et al. (2008). A sample item is "A good mix of group members' backgrounds helps doing the task well" and participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "Strongly Disagree" to 5 = "Strongly Agree". The scale demonstrated adequate reliability (α = .75).

3.2.5 Results

See Table 3.1 for intercorrelations, means, and standard deviations for all study variables. Independent sample *t*-tests were conducted to test the effects of condition

(Instrumental vs. Terminal) on organizational identification $t(78) = .06$, $p = .95$), affective

commitment $t(78) = -.21$, $p = .83$), and perceived organizational authenticity $t(78) = .59$, $p =$

.57). None of these measures varied significantly between the two conditions, meaning the

null hypothesis was not rejected for Hypothesis 1. No statistically significant differences were

observed between the instrumental and terminal condition on any of the three employee

attitudes. See Table 3.2 for means and standard deviations between groups.

Table 3.1

Study 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Key Variables

Variable	Mean (*SD*)	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. DM Approach	.50 (.50)	.07	-.03	.01	.03	-.09	.08
2. Perceived Organizational Authenticity	5.13 (.88)		.42**	.47**	.07	-.10	.11
3. Affective Commitment	4.87 (1.03)			.87**	.21	.26*	-.01
4. Organizational Identification	5.06 (1.12)				.28*	.17	.02
5. Diversity Beliefs	4.27 (.71)					.10	.33**
6. Age	31.24 (9.87)						.10
7. Gender	.60 (.49)						

Note. $N = 78$. DM approach dummy coded 0 = Instrumental, 1 = Terminal. Gender 0 = Male, 1 = Female. Other variables were scored on a 5-point scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree). *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Table 3.2

Study 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Cell Sizes for Each Condition

Condition		
	Instrumental Value Signal	Terminal Value Signal
Cell Sizes	$N = 39$	$N = 39$
1. Perceived Organizational Authenticity	5.18 (.76)	5.07 (.99)
2. Affective Commitment	4.85 (1.04)	4.90 (1.04)
3. Organizational Identification	5.07 (1.04)	5.05 (1.21)

Note. Values represent means and (standard deviations)

Moderation analysis was conducted using the Hayes (2018) Process Macro with 10,000 bootstraps to test whether diversity beliefs moderated the relationship between DM approach and any of the outcome variables. Moderations results for organizational identification $F(1,77) = .09$, $p = .76$), affective commitment $F(1, 77) = .006$, $p = .94$, and perceived organizational authenticity $F(1, 77) = .001$, $p = .98$) were not significant, failing to support Hypothesis 2.

3.3 Discussion

Following on the findings of Olsen and Martins (2016), who found positive outcomes of an instrumental DM approach (as opposed to terminal) among perspective employees, I proposed that an organization signaling an instrumental DM approach would result in increased perceived organizational authenticity, affective commitment, and organizational identification from employees (Hypothesis 1). Further, I predicted that diversity beliefs would moderate these relationships, such that they would be stronger for people with high diversity beliefs and weaker for those with low diversity beliefs (Hypothesis 2). The results of the experiment did not support either of these predictions. Given the extent to which climate —

and by extension, DM approach — has been suggested to be an important factor in diversity management effectiveness (McKay et al., 2008; Dwertmann et al., 2016; Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Kossek & Zonia, 1993), and the degree to which the individuals react to the values espoused by organizations (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Smith et al., 2012; Windscheid et al., 2016), I expected to find both main and interaction effects among imagined employees in this vignette study.

While the manipulations were designed to maximize experimental realism and were thus relatively indirect by experimental standards, it is possible that they were too subtle to elicit a significant difference among respondents. However, realism is essential to achieve a high level of external validity and making the difference between DM approach conditions any starker would have been too dissimilar from what is seen on real-world diversity websites.

Alternatively, it is possible that the manipulations did not contain sufficient information about the organization necessary to elicit employee reactions to the DM approach value signals. Previous research has found that trust (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002) and employee cynicism (Archimi, Reynaud, Yasin, & Bhatti, 2018) may affect the impact of organizational signals relating to corporate social responsibility and organizational justice respectively. As such, it would be necessary to add additional contextual information about the organization in addition to the DM approach signals, such that participants may assess whether or not they should trust the organization's words. This is addressed in Study 2 by adding employee demographic information to the manipulation, which reflects that actual, observed diversity management practices of the organization, in addition to its DM approach value signals.

3.4 STUDY 2

Given the results of Study 1, a second study was conducted with *demographic representativeness* (DR) — defined as the degree to which the demographic composition of an organization's employees is representative of the community in which it is based (King et al., 2011) — included as a second independent variable. Because it did not demonstrate any evidence of interaction or direct effects in Study 1, no predictions are made regarding diversity beliefs in Study 2. An organization's DM approach value signals (e.g., their statements or policies, such as those in the web page manipulation from Study 1) might be less meaningful to employees without readily observable practices or outcomes with which to contrast them and assess their trustworthiness. As such, DR is included as a second independent variable because it has consistently been viewed as a key indicator of diversity management effectiveness (Cox & Blake, 1991) and has been meta-analytically linked to performance (King et al., 2011), as discussed in the previous chapter. Simply put, its inclusion would give the employees additional context in light of which the DM Approach value signals could be interpreted.

3.4.1 Interaction Effects Between DM Approach and Demographic Representativeness

An organization that takes an instrumental DM approach is one that is focused on leveraging diversity to achieve desirable business outcomes. On the other hand, a terminal DM approach is focused on fairness and avoiding discrimination, in that it views a diverse workforce in and of itself as an independent objective untethered to its primary business goals (Olsen & Martins, 2012). As described in the previous chapter, the instrumental approach — otherwise known as the synergy perspective (Dwertmann et al., 2016) or the integration and learning perspective (Ely & Thomas, 2001) — is widely considered the superior approach from the standpoint of business outcomes.

A review of dozens of organizations' diversity and inclusion webpages makes it very apparent that a majority of firms tend to espouse instrumental DM approach values. That is, they generally focus on the importance of diversity to their broader organizational success, rather than as a terminal goal in and of itself. It is perhaps unsurprising that organizations would espouse these values, as both Olsen and Martins (2012) and Dwertmann et al. (2016) suggest that these specific "approaches" or "climates" respectively would theoretically be an effective way for organizations to maximize the performance benefits achieved from their diverse workforces.

However, given the rising employee cynicism (Archimi, Reynaud, Yasin, & Bhatti, 2018) and the ubiquity of this "instrumental" messaging, it is conceivable that many employees would be skeptical toward such a message. Perhaps instrumental DM approach value signals only lead to positive behavioral and attitudinal outcomes (e.g., increased commitment and identification, reduced turnover) when employees judge that the signals are sincere. Thus, demographic representativeness is included as a second independent variable; it stands to reason that if an organization is demographically diverse, an employee would be less skeptical toward their DM approach value signals, and vice versa if the organization is not diverse. This approach fits well with previous findings that examined similar instances in which DM-related words and actions / results were misaligned (Smith et al., 2012; Windscheid et al., 2016). Further, my approach serves to integrate this interaction within the DM approach (and by extension, diversity climate) literature. Given that demographic variation is in and of itself a key indicator of effective diversity management (Cox & Blake, 1991; Olsen & Martins, 2012), and demographic representativeness has been shown to be an antecedent of various work-related outcomes in its own right (King et al., 2011; Lindsey et al., 2017), it is a logical choice as a second independent variable. Further, the value of these findings can reasonably be extended to other aspects of diversity, as demographic diversity is

often referenced as a proxy for other, deep-level differences in thought and perspective (Ely & Thomas, 2001).

Based on the DM approach literature that informed Study 1, in addition to the abovementioned research on demographic representativeness, Study 2 began with two hypotheses. 1.) Demographic representativeness will be positively related to affective commitment (1a) organizational identification (1b), and perceived organizational authenticity (1c). 2.) DR and DM approach will interact such that an instrumental DM approach signal will increase the strength of the positive relationship between high DR and the DVs and increase the strength of the negative relationship between low DR and affective commitment (2a), organizational identification (2b), and perceived organizational authenticity (2c).

3.4.2 Sample and Design

Pilot Study. A pilot study was conducted with a similar sample ($N = 101$) from the same UK business school the week prior to Study 2. A few key results were noted and guided the recruitment and procedures for Study 2. First, 24 participants were removed from analysis for incorrectly answering a simple attention check question (22) or missing data (2) leaving $N = 77$. Based on the observations of the trained facilitators and the nationalities of the excluded participants, it is likely that language skills were an issue (many of the participants were international students within their first month in the UK). I address this in Study 2.

Further, initial analysis with the remaining sample ($N = 77$) indicated that the demographic representativeness (DR) manipulation had an effect on perceived organizational authenticity $t(1, 76) = 3.42, p < .001$ and organizational identification $t(1, 76) = 2.04, p = .045$, with both being rated higher in the high DR condition. However, affective commitment did not differ significantly between conditions $t(1, 76) = -.45, p = .658$. This may have been due to language issues as well, as the affective commitment scale include three reverse-coded

68

items and achieved an unacceptably low Cronbach's alpha of $\alpha = .303$ (non-native English speakers were possibly more likely to miss the "not" in the item). In contrast, the organizational authenticity scale ($\alpha = .866$) and the organizational identification scale ($\alpha = .857$) did not include reverse-coded items and demonstrated acceptable reliability. Finally, no direct or interaction effects of DM approach values were observed. However, this manipulation is entirely language based, whereas the DR manipulation is visual (pie charts). Again, this was possibly due to the large proportion of non-English fluent participants. As such, the language issue is addressed in future studies and these results are taken to show that the DR manipulation is effective.

Participants. Participants for Study 2 were recruited as a convenience sample over the course of one week during induction workshops for a master's program at a UK business school. Based on the abovementioned pilot study conducted the previous week ($N = 101$) with a similar population, it was determined that the DM approach manipulation was only effective for respondents with near-native fluency in English. However, because the participant recruitment policy outlined in the ethics proposal did not allow me to restrict recruitment based on English fluency, I collected data from all students and made the a priori decision only to include those from the UK, Western Europe, and other native English speakers in the analysis.[21] Given that, 78 of 142 total respondents were excluded prior to analysis, leaving 64 participants ($N = 64$), which included 18.8% from the United Kingdom

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[21] In making the decision to exclude the data from some participants in the analysis, it is important to acknowledge recent debates about the dangers of "p-hacking" and data manipulation in the social sciences (Simmons, Nelson, & Simonsohn, 2011). However, in this case the decision was made a priori and was necessary and justified given the available sample and the ethical stipulations regarding data collection. I was not ethically able to exclude any groups from participating, but there was evidence during pilot testing that the manipulations were not relevant or effective for some groups within the sample. However, in the interest of transparency, all analyses were also run with the original sample of 142. Three participants were removed for incomplete data and 13 were removed for answering attention checks incorrectly, leaving $N = 126$. Significant main effects of demographic representativeness were observed on perceived organizational authenticity $F(1, 125) = 7.96$, $p = .006$ and organizational identification $F(1, 125) = 3.96$, $p = .049$, but not affective commitment $F(1, 125) = 1.64$, $p = .20$. No significant interaction effects were observed.

and France respectively, 15.6% German, 7.8% Italian, 6.3% Dutch, 4.7% from Greece and India, 3.1% from Austria, Belgium, Finland, Norway, and the United States, and 1.6% Gibraltarian, Jamaican, New Zealander, Slovenian, and Spanish respectively. They included 34 men and 30 women (53.13% male) and ranged in age from 21 to 31 with an average of 23.52 years old (with three participants choosing not to disclose their age). All were enrolled in post-graduate study at a UK business school.

Procedure. Participants were given the option to participate in this research as part of a pre-term leadership skills workshop for their MSc course. Each was given time to read and sign an information sheet and informed consent document and given verbal instructions that stressed the non-mandatory nature of the research and their right to withdrawal at any time.

Those who agreed to participate were then asked to imagine themselves as students at a fictitious university, based in part on the manipulation used by Windscheid et al. (2016) but adjusted to increase experimental realism and to be more relevant to student participants. This style of vignette manipulation is common in psychological research (Stolte, 1994). Participants were provided with three pages meant to simulate pages that might be found on a typical university website, including a generic landing page, a page specifically evoking the University's approach to diversity (identical to the one from Study 1), and a "faculty demographics" page with pie charts displaying the demographic information of the University's faculty (see Appendix A). These pages were developed following a review of dozens of similar, real-life university websites and incorporated many of the most common sentiments and designs and were reviewed by external experts in diversity and inclusion practice.

Participants were then given a questionnaire that included scales to measure the dependent variables and some basic demographic questions. They were told they had 15

minutes to complete them. All of this was conducted by trained facilitators who were blind to the focus and hypotheses of the experiment.

Design and Manipulations. A 2 (DM approach: instrumental vs. terminal) x 2 (demographic representativeness (DR): Low DR vs. high DR) between-subject design was used for this study. Participants were randomly assigned to one of four possible experimental conditions. The number of participants per condition ranged from 13 (terminal – low DR & terminal – high DR) to 23 (instrumental – low DR).

For the first page of the manipulation, participants viewed one of two DM approach conditions identical to those used in Study 1 (see Figure 3.1). Demographic representativeness was manipulated on a second webpage which included two pie charts displaying the ethnic and gender composition of the university's faculty (see Appendix A). The percentages were chosen based on roughly the demographics of the large city in which the university was located[22], and the pie charts were designed and oriented in such a way to make the degree of representativeness readily apparent. Two faculty members not involved with this research were consulted as to which percentages would signify a representative versus a non-representative university in this context. While "representative" may mean different things to different participants, particularly because many had just moved to the United Kingdom to undertake their postgraduate studies and may have been unaware of the diversity of the surrounding community, I note that a manipulation check in the pilot study also showed this manipulation to be effective.

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[22] https://www.birmingham.gov.uk/info/20057/about_birmingham/1294/population_and_census

The Student Body

Glenmore University is committed to enabling students, whatever their backgrounds, to develop as critical, reflective learners who will make a difference in the global workforce. The university strongly believes that a diverse faculty and student body leads to better discussions, decisions, and outcomes for everyone involved. A diverse faculty and student body is a source of strength that underpins the exchange of ideas, innovation, and debate at the heart of our academic mission.

Glenmore strives to celebrate the diversity of our staff and students

Our Equality and Diversity Policies Aim to Ensure:

- A commitment to embracing the diversity of our faculty and staff
- That our students and staff achieve the maximum benefits from the diversity on campus

The Student Body

Glenmore University is committed to enabling students, whatever their background, to develop as critical, reflective learners who will make a difference in the global workforce. The university strongly believes in taking steps to maintain a faculty and student body that reflect the diversity of the population. By utilising programs such as targeted recruitment and hiring quotas for minority and underrepresented populations, we ensure that the University is a diverse place to work and study.

Glenmore strives to be accepting of the diversity of our staff and students

Our Equality and Diversity Policies Aim to Ensure:

- A commitment to accepting the diversity of our faculty and staff
- That we meet or exceed all legal guidelines for diversity on campus

Figure 3.1. The DM approach manipulation used in studies 1-3, with an instrumental DM approach on the left and a terminal DM approach on the right

3.4.3 Measures

Manipulation Checks. Participants in the study responded to an individual item designed to assess the effectiveness of the representativeness condition. They were asked, "How would you describe the demographic diversity (gender, age, ethnicity, etc.) at Glenmore University?" and were asked to respond on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from "Not at all Diverse" to "Extremely Diverse". The results showed that the high-representativeness condition was indeed perceived as being more demographically diverse than the low-representativeness condition ($M = 4.61$, $SD = 1.13$ vs. $M = 3.03$, $SD = .97$, $p < .05$). The same scales as used in Study 1 were used to measure affective commitment ($\alpha = .612$), perceived organizational authenticity ($\alpha = .894$), and organizational identification ($\alpha = .882$), demonstrating adequate reliability.

3.4.4 Results

Analysis of variance was conducted to test the hypothesized relationships. See Table 3.3 for intercorrelations, means, and standard deviations for all study variables. To probe for specific interactions, I conducted post hoc analyses using the Sidak adjustment (Sidak, 1967). This particular method was chosen rather than Bonferroni because it corrects the possibility for the familywise error rate for multiple comparisons while moderating the Bonferroni adjustment's adverse impact on statistical power (Field, 2018). In further post hoc analysis, I also used PROCESS, which is a regression-based bootstrapping macro within SPSS 24 that can be used for analyzing moderation and mediation relationships (Hayes, 2018; Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes, 2007).

Table 3.3

Study 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Key Variables

Variable	Mean (SD)	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Demographic Representativeness	.56 (.50)	.10	.33**	.09	.26*	.03	.18
2. DM Approach	.41 (.50)		-.10	.06	.05	-.11	.01
3. Perceived Organizational Authenticity	2.99 (.79)			.46**	.62**	-.13	.05
4. Affective Commitment	2.74 (.59)				.59**	.09	-.11
5. Organizational Identification	2.96 (.76)					-.04	.05
6. Age	23.52 (2.15)						-.08
7. Gender	.48 (.50)						

Note. $N = 78$. DR dummy coded 0 = High DR, 1 = Low DR. DM Approach dummy coded 0 = Instrumental, 1 = Terminal. Other variables were scored on a 5-point scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree) except age and gender (dummy coded 0 = Male, 1 = Female). *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Affective Commitment

I predicted that high demographic representativeness would result in higher levels of affective commitment. Contrary to this Hypothesis 1, the main effect on affective commitment was not significant, as high DR did not result in significantly higher ratings of affective commitment ($M = 2.81$, $SD = .66$) than the low DR condition ($M = 2.70$, $SD = .52$) $F(1, 62) = .92$, $p = .34$ when controlling for DM approach, failing to support Hypothesis 1a.

I also predicted an interaction effect between DM approach (instrumental vs. terminal) and demographic representativeness, such that instrumental DM approach would increase the strength of the positive relationship between DR and affective commitment. This interaction

was significant at $F(1, 62) = 6.29$, $p = .015$, η2 = .095) and followed the hypothesized pattern (see Table 3.4). Instrumentality was associated with higher affective commitment in the high DR condition ($M = 3.03$, $SD = .65$) compared to a terminal approach ($M = 2.56$, $SD = .59$), and that this relationship was reversed in the low DR condition, such that affective commitment in the instrumental condition ($M = 2.61$, $SD = .58$) was lower than the terminal condition ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .36$). However, given the small effect size and relatively small sample size, a post-hoc test using the Sidak adjustment did not reveal any significant differences between any of the four conditions. An independent samples t-test between the low DR – instrumental condition and the low DR – terminal condition found that the difference was not significant $t(34) = -1.613$, $p = .116$ (see Table 3.4 for means and SDs). Taken together, this lends only partial support to Hypothesis 2a.

Table 3.4

Study 2: Means and Standard Deviations for DM Approach and Demographic Representativeness on Affective Commitment

	Low DR		High DR	
	Instrumental	Terminal	Instrumental	Terminal
Affective Commitment	2.61 (.58)	2.86 (.36)	3.03 (.65)	2.56 (.59)

Note. Values represent means and (standard deviations)

Organizational Identification

The predicted positive effect of demographic representativeness was found to be marginally significant for organizational identification with $F(1, 62) = 5.11$, $p = .055$, η2 = .086 when controlling for DM approach, offering some support for Hypothesis 1b. In assessing the hypothesized interactions between organizational identification and DM approach, while the results also followed the predicted pattern (see Figure 3.3), that

interaction was not significant at $F(1, 62) = 1.30$, $p = .259$, $\eta2 = .021$. Hypothesis 2b was therefore not supported.

Perceived Organizational Authenticity

There was a positive direct relationship between demographic representativeness and perceived organizational authenticity $F(1, 62) = 6.00$, $p = .017$, $\eta2 = .091$ when controlling for DM approach, supporting Hypothesis 1c. While the results again followed the predicted pattern (see Figure 3.3), the effect of interaction between DR and DM approach on perceived organizational authenticity was not significant $F(1, 62) = 2.14$, $p = .149$, $\eta2 = .034$, failing to support Hypothesis 2c.

Further Analysis

In addition to testing for the hypothesized main effects and interactions, I also tested whether perceived organizational authenticity mediated the relationship between DR and affective commitment and organizational identification. Using a bias corrected bootstrapping procedure with a 10,000 bootstrap sample as recommended by Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007)(Process, model 4), the results show that perceived organizational authenticity mediated the relationship between DR and affective commitment with an indirect effect of $B = -.172$, $SE = .09$, 95% CIs [-.37, -.04], while the direct effect of DR on affective commitment no longer significant $t(61) = .46$, $p = .65$, 95% CIs [-.22, .35] (see Figure 3.2).
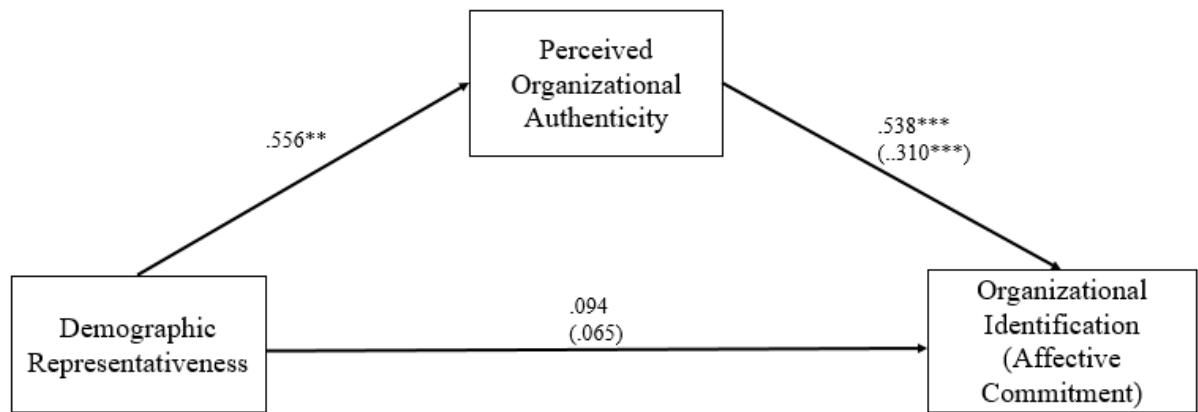
Figure 3.2. Unstandardized B coefficients for mediation analyses using Process Macro model 4 ***$p < .001$ **$p < .01$ *$p < .05$

The same effect was observed with organizational identification as an outcome variable, such that perceived organizational authenticity mediated the relationship between DR and organizational identification $B = -.299$, $SE = .12$, 95% CI [-.55, -.09], while the direct path between DR and Org ID was no longer significant $t(61) = -.58$, $p = .56$, 95% CI [-.42, .23].[23] I also tested identification and commitment as mediators with perceived organizational authenticity as the outcome variable, but this mediation was not significant $B = .061$, $SE = .09$, 95% CI [-.24, .12].

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[23] Both mediation models were also significant for the full sample $N = 126$, with the indirect effect for DR on affective commitment $B = -.13$, $SE = .05$, 95% CI [-.24, -.04] and organizational identification $B = -.24$, $SE = .24$, 95% CI [-.40, -.09]
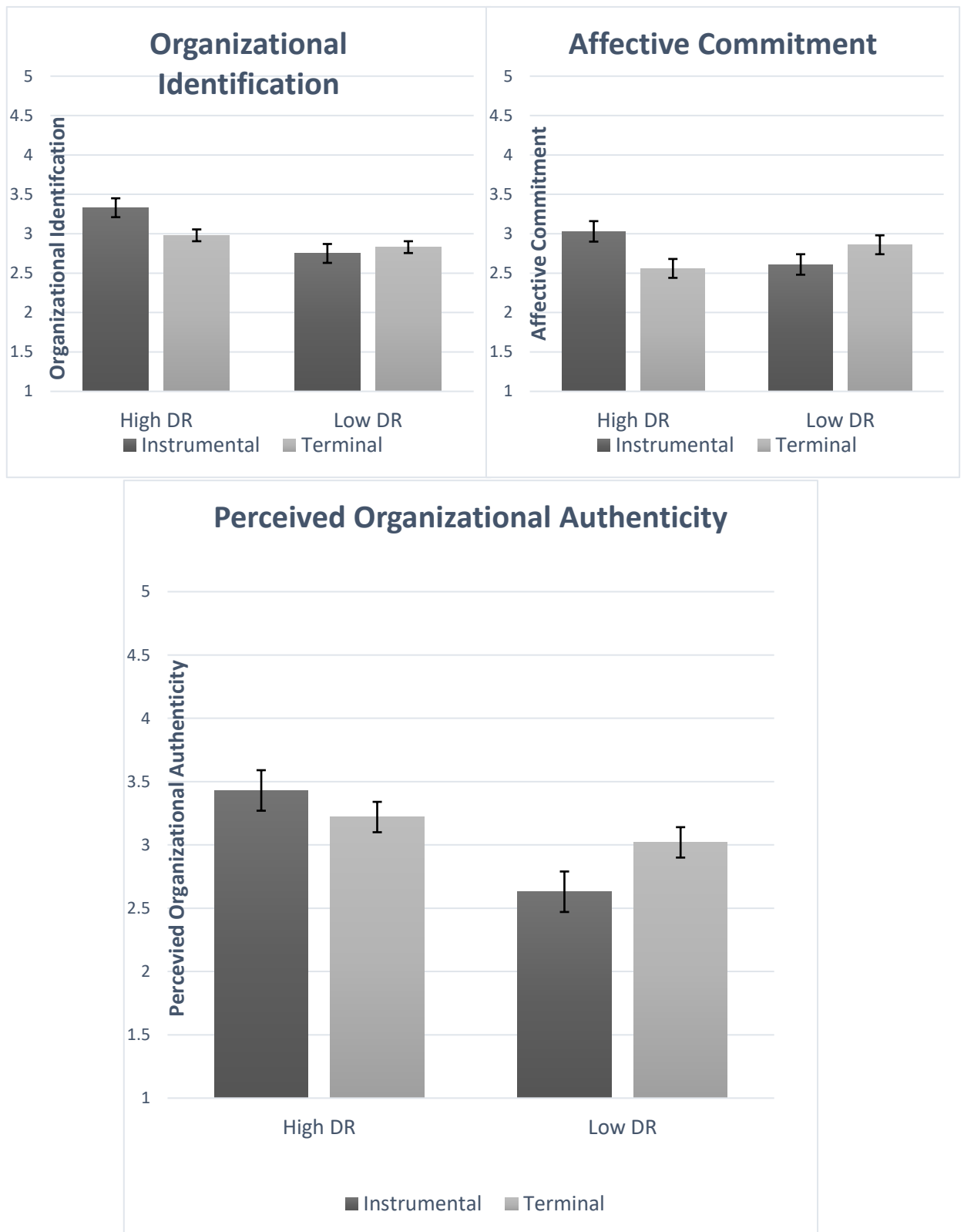
Figure 3.3. The interactive effects of demographic representativeness and DM approach on employees' affective commitment, organizational identifications, and perceived organizational authenticity. All variables rated on a 5-point scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)

Gender as Moderator

Given the DR $\rightarrow$ authenticity $\rightarrow$ identification mediation model that best fit the data, I conducted further analysis to explicate any potential effects that employee gender might have on these relationships, as research has consistently shown that women and other non-majority groups often perceive DM efforts in the workplace differently than majority groups (e.g., Kossek & Zonia, 1993; McKay et al., 2007; Olsen & Martins, 2016). Of particular note, a 2 (DM Approach) x 2 (Demographic Representativeness) x 2 (Gender) analysis of variance with perceived organizational authenticity as the outcome variable and found support for a 3-way interaction with $F(1, 60) = 4.02$, $p = .05$, $\eta2 = .07$.[24]

Further deconstructing this three-way interaction, we see that the interaction effect between DM approach and DR is only significant for women $F(1, 24) = 7.20$, $p = .013$, $\eta2 = .231$ and not for men $F(1, 27) = .94$, $p = .340$, $\eta2 = .034$ (see Table 3.5 and Figure 3.4). However, although the interactions are significant and move in the predicted direction, further analysis showed that the difference between the low DR – terminal ($M = 3.25$, $SD = .72$) and low DR – instrumental ($M = 2.42$, $SD = 1.03$) conditions for women was not significant $t(12) = 1.57$, $p = .143$. Thus, while there is support for a three-way interaction between DR, DM approach, and gender, it is unclear if it has the predicted effects.

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[24] This 3-way interaction was also significant in the full sample $N = 126$ at $F(1, 125) = .596$, $p = .02$, $\eta2 = .05$, moving in the same direction.

Table 3.5

Study 2: Means and Standard Deviations for DM Approach and Demographic Representativeness on Perceived Organizational Authenticity, Split by Gender

	Men				Women			
	Instrumental		Terminal		Instrumental		Terminal	
	Low DR	High DR	Low DR	High DR	Low DR	High DR	Low DR	High DR
Perceived Organizational Authenticity	2.82 (.73)	3.27 (.56)	2.60 (.49)	3.52 (.72)	2.42 (1.03)	3.63 (.35)	3.25 (.72)	3.03 (.82)

Note. Values represent means and (standard deviations)
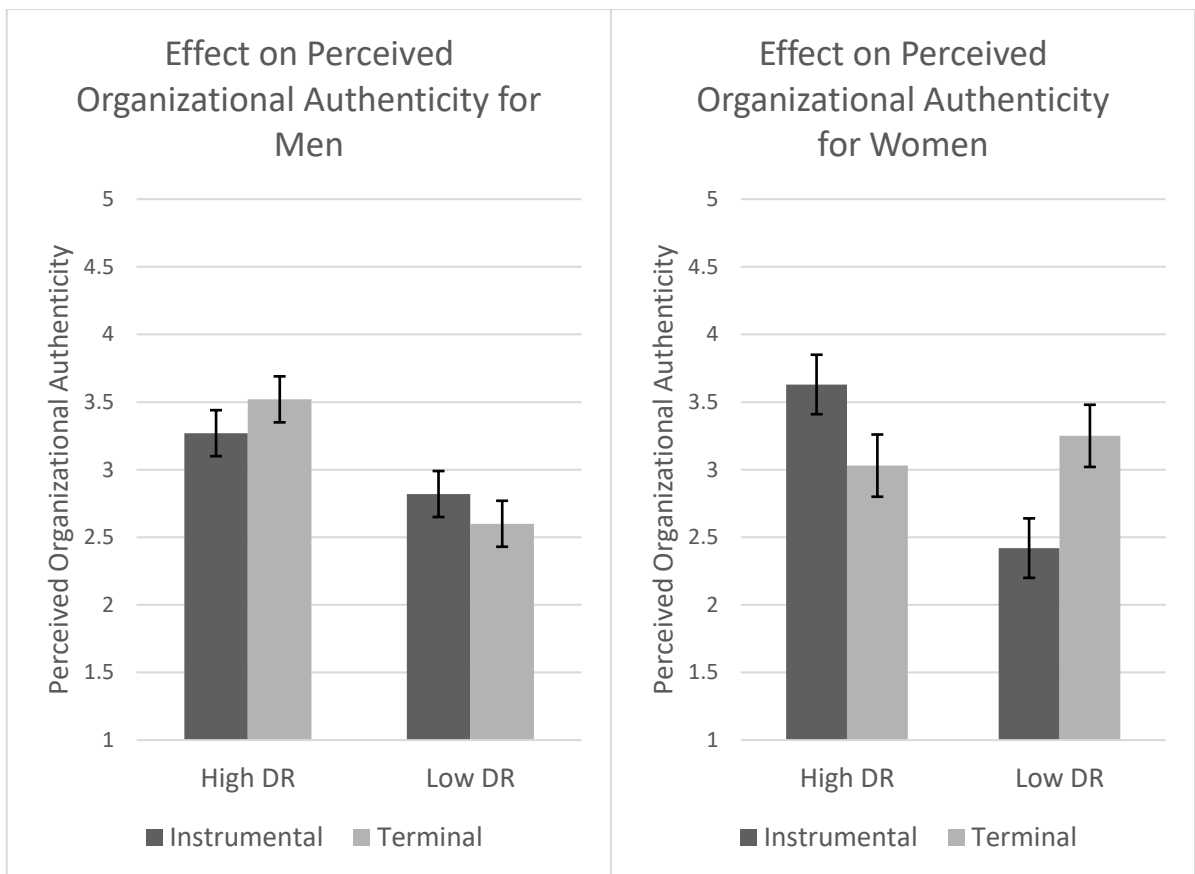
Figure 3.4. Study 2 means for DM approach and demographic representativeness on perceived organizational authenticity, split by gender

3.5 Discussion

Taken on their own, these initial results replicate and extend previous findings around authenticity as an organizational-level construct (e.g., Smith et al., 2012; Windscheid et al., 2016). Previously, only Smith and colleagues (2012) had demonstrated how a perceived misalignment between an organization's espoused values and realized practices could affect employee attitudes. Further, only Windscheid et al. (2016) and Lindsey et al. (2017) had considered perceived organizational authenticity (behavioral integrity) as a mediating variable in the DM context. This study extends those findings by incorporating research on DM approaches (Olsen & Martins, 2012) and re-conceptualizing organizational authenticity as an organizational-level extension of Simons' (2002) behavioral integrity construct. Overall, this work lends support to the emerging but as of yet under-researched notion that the perceived authenticity of DM policies and practices is a key factor in their effectiveness. This offers a valuable insight for further research on DM efficacy; rather than attempt to directly assess the effectiveness of some specific DM policy or practice, it is necessary to consider contextual factors which affect the degree to which that policy or practice is perceived as authentic. Approaching authenticity as a mediating variable is not out of line with previous research (see Simons, Friedman, Liu, and Parks, 2007; Leroy et al., 2012; Windscheid et al., 2016). However, to our knowledge, this is the first study to find support for its relationship with organizational identification and commitment among employees on the organizational level.

However, contrary to my hypotheses, the predicted demographic representativeness – DM approach interaction was only supported when considering affective commitment (and not identification or authenticity). This may well be due to the relatively small sample, especially given the small effect size observed. It is also possible that some participants from more homogenous cultures were less effected by DM approach value signal manipulations,

which were based primarily on North American and English organizations. Both of these issues are addressed in Study 3.

Overall, there is not enough evidence here to rule out the proposed interaction, especially given that the ratings for both perceived organizational authenticity and organizational identification moved in the predicted directions (despite not reaching statistical significance). In fact, exploratory analysis including gender supported the proposed interaction among women when considering perceived organizational authenticity, indicating that women may be particularly sensitive to a mismatch between an organization's words and actions. This had not been established in the literature prior to this study. Given the relatively small sample size, it is worth noting that the post-hoc power estimate for this three-way interaction was only borderline acceptable (.77) (Cohen, 1992). Further, post-hoc independent sample t-tests did not indicate the differences observed were significant (potentially due to the small sample). However, given the implications of these findings and theoretical basis in previous DM research, I deemed them worth reporting and exploring further in a future study.

3.5.1 Theoretical Implications

Taken together, Studies 1 and 2 make a number of important theoretical contributions, foremost among them extending the mediating role of behavioral integrity (authenticity) to the organizational level. To our knowledge, there is no research that has measured the authenticity – identification/commitment relationship in a laboratory setting, nor is there any that has manipulated demographic representativeness in that context. These relationships are best viewed through the theoretical lenses of psychological contract theory and the social identity approach, which have the benefit of being very well established in the organizational psychology literature (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Further, the theoretically grounded adaptation of the Simons et al. (2007) scale for behavioral integrity as

a measure of organizational authenticity builds on the work of Windscheid et al. (2016) and King et al. (2017) and is the first to experimentally test this variable with current rather than perspective employees of an organization. This conceptualization is a promising new direction for future research.

Finally, this study contributes important empirical support to the construct of DM approach in diversity and inclusion research. A number of researchers have proposed that similar constructs — alternatively called either an instrumental DM approach (Olsen & Martins, 2012), a synergy perspective (Dwertmann et al., 2016), or an integration and learning perspective (Ely & Thomas, 2001) — would be the ideal approach for organizations to maximize the performance potential of their diverse workforces, considering the value-in-diversity hypothesis (Cox & Blake, 1991). While the findings of the current study do not contest that assertion, they lend support to the complexity of developing this type of climate, and particularly to the importance of establishing consistency between an organization's espoused values and perceived actions in that pursuit.

3.5.2 Limitations and Future Research

Studies 1 and 2 are not without limitations. While experimental research like this is characterized by high internal validity, it also has limited external validity (Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2019). Future research should be conducted to replicate these findings in a field setting. Additionally, the mediation model supported by Study 2 is not immune from common rater effect (Podsakoff et al., 2003), as the mediating and dependent variables were collected from the same source. As such, causality cannot be established regarding the mediator variable (perceived organizational authenticity).

In addition, it is possible that the characteristics of the sample may have impacted the results (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In Study 2, participants were all

students at a single UK university, which makes them less representative of the wider population. Given the vignette nature of both studies, it is possible that the participants reacted differently to the hypothetical scenario than they would in the "real world". Also, the sample size in Study 2 is decidedly less than ideal, particularly for assessing mediating and moderating variables. As such, it is necessary to replicate this study with a larger sample size, which is addressed in Study 3. Given these issues, practical implications are discussed later in this chapter following further research; it would be imprudent to make recommendations for organizations based only on Studies 1 and 2 (especially given that they might be enacted with the aim of helping disadvantaged and/or under-represented employees).

3.6 STUDY 3

Building on the findings of Studies 1 and 2, the primary aim of Study 3 was to empirically test the hypotheses developed based on those results with a more statistically robust sample. First, the theoretical justification for viewing perceived organizational authenticity as a mediating variable in this context is established. Then, the results of an experimental study ($N = 192$) are presented. Finally, both the theoretical and practical implications of these findings are discussed.

3.6.1 Perceived Organizational Authenticity as a Mediator of Diversity Management Effectiveness

In seeking to understand the results of Study 2 and establish why perceived organizational authenticity should be viewed as a mediating variable in the context of the relationship between diversity management and employee attitudes, it is necessary to first consider the relevant outcomes. Both affective commitment and organizational identification are considered in Study 3, and there is compelling and distinct theoretical support for a direct relationship between perceived organizational authenticity and both variables. As discussed in

the previous chapter, van Knippenberg and Sleebos (2006) explore the differences between these two constructs and conclude that despite partially overlapping, identification and commitment uniquely reflect different aspects of the individual – organization relationship. Commitment is fundamentally derived from social exchange theory (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) and has been the primary conceptualization of the psychological link between person and organization since Meyer and Allen's (1991) seminal work on the subject. On the other hand, identification is inherently self-referential and reflects the psychological merging of the self and the organization (van Knippenberg, 2000). Thus, it is more effectively understood from a social identity perspective (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Simply put, commitment reflects the psychological relationship between an individual and an organization as separate entities, whereas identification reflects how membership in an organization affects how an individual defines themselves.

In the context of perceived organizational authenticity, both commitment and identification are uniquely valuable as outcome variables. The social exchange perspective has been the dominant framework in research investigating the psychological aspects of the person / organization relationship (Rousseau & Parks, 1993). On the individual level, research supports the hypothesis that behavioral integrity (i.e., organizational authenticity measured on the individual level) mediates the relationship between authentic leadership and commitment (Leroy et al., 2012; Simons et al., 2007). While it is again important to note the differences between authentic leadership and this conceptualization of organizational authenticity — in that authentic leadership covers a wider range of perceptions (Gardner et al., 2011), while organizational authenticity refers specifically to the consistency between words and actions (Cording et al., 2014) — the constructs are not so dissimilar to dissuade the pursuit of a similar relationship at the organizational level. Central to the social exchange perspective, and by extension to understanding organizational commitment, is the belief the organization will

trade rewards like pay, support, and recognition for the individual's loyalty and effort (van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). That belief inherently requires some degree of trust, of which behavioral integrity is an important antecedent (Leroy et al., 2012; Simons et al., 2015). As such, it is straightforward to make the case for a direct relationship between organizational authenticity and affective commitment.

It is also uncomplicated to conceptualize a link between organizational authenticity and identification, though from an entirely different theoretical perspective. Again, drawing on research into authentic leadership, identification has been viewed as an essential outcome of authentic leadership since its inception (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). The social identity perspective posits that individuals derive their self-concepts from the groups — or in this case, the organizations — to which they perceive themselves to belong, and that they are inherently motivated to seek associations which increase their self-esteem and provide distinctiveness over non-members (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; Hogg & Terry, 2000). As Dutton and colleagues (1994) note, individuals value self-integrity and authenticity and, as such, seek out organizations that demonstrate these characteristics. Thus, while there is some overlap between the concepts of commitment and identification, and while I hypothesize that both relate directly to perceived organizational authenticity, I explain these relationships through different theoretical lenses and propose that they both offer unique value to understanding the construct of organizational authenticity.

In sum, there is evidence that organizations are perceived as lacking integrity (i.e., organizational authenticity) when their values do not match up with their practices (Lindsey et al., 2017; MacLean, Litzky, & Holderness, 2015). An organization's public statements regarding diversity amount to a declaration of the organization's values (Windscheid et al., 2016). If these messages do not match the observed diversity practices (i.e., demographic representativeness), I predict a negative effect on perceptions of authenticity, which will in

turn effect employee attitudes. Further, given the evidence that men and women react differently to organizational diversity policies (e.g., Given this, the following hypotheses are proposed (see Table 3.6).

Table 3.6

List of Hypotheses for Study 3

	Hypotheses
Hypothesis 1	An organization with high demographic representativeness will be perceived as having higher levels of organizational authenticity (1a). This effect will be stronger for women than for men (1b).
Hypothesis 2	Demographic representativeness and DM approach will interact such that an instrumental approach will decrease perceived organizational authenticity in the low DR condition, but not in the high DR condition (2a). This interaction will be stronger for women than for men (2b).
Hypothesis 3a	Perceived Organizational authenticity will mediate the relationship between demographic representativeness and affective commitment.
Hypothesis 3b	Perceived Organizational authenticity will mediate the relationship between demographic representativeness and organizational identification

3.6.2 Sample and Design

Participants. One hundred and ninety-two university students were recruited using Prolific, an online participant recruitment service. This source was chosen as participants recruited though Prolific have been shown to be more naïve and less dishonest than those on Amazon Mechanical Turk (a similar service) (Peer et al., 2017) and that online crowd sourcing platforms in general can be a suitable source of high-quality data (Buhrmester et al.,

2011). Further, using paid participants from online recruitment services is not uncommon in this type of research (e.g. Jordan et al., 2017; Meleady & Crisp, 2017; van Gils et al., 2017).

Participants were recruited through Prolific over the course of two days in March and were compensated at an average rate of £12.50 per hour. The mean age of the participants was 26.06 years old, and the respondents were 55.7% male and 43.2% female, while two did not disclose their genders. Based on the findings of Studies 1 and 2, recruitment was limited to only European and North American respondents who spoke English as a first language to ensure the effectiveness of the language-based manipulation. Of 200 respondents, one provided incomplete responses, and seven answered attention-check questions incorrectly, which is a useful tool in experimental research (Oppenheimer, Meyvis, & Davidenko, 2009), leaving a total of $N = 192$ participants from the United Kingdom (53.6%), the United States (34.4), Canada (9.9%), Ireland (1%), and two participants who did not disclose their nationality (1%)

Procedure. The procedure for Study 3 was largely identical to that of Study 2, with the primary difference being that it was conducted entirely online rather than in person. As such, instructions were presented in writing using Qualtrics survey software. Participants who chose to participate were first asked to read an information sheet and then asked to complete an informed consent page to begin the study. They were then told they would have exactly two minutes to review the web pages, which were identical to those used in Study 2. However, as the first page was inessential to the manipulation and only used to increase realism in Study 2, it was left out to increase the salience of the manipulation pages in Study 3 (hence why the time was reduced from three minutes to two). The instructions stressed that they would not be able to complete the study without information from these pages to encourage careful examination, and a timer automatically kept them on the webpages for exactly two minutes.

Design and Manipulations. The manipulations in Study 3 were identical to those used in Study 2, with the exception of the removed first page. Participants were randomly assigned to one of four possible experimental conditions. The number of participants per condition ranged from 45 (in terminal – low representativeness & terminal – high representativeness) to 50 (in instrumental – high representativeness) (see Table 3.8). DM approach was again manipulated by the "Student Body" webpage, while demographic representativeness was manipulated by pie charts describing faculty demographics on the second page (see Appendix A).

3.6.3 Measures

Manipulation Checks. To assess the effectiveness of the demography manipulation, participants responded to a two-item scale from Smith et al. (2012) to measure perceived commitment to organizational diversity initiatives. The items were, "To what extent do you think this organization treats its employees fairly?" and "To what extent do you believe that this organization had good intentions in terms of creating a diverse environment?" Participants rated the high-representativeness condition ($M = 5.20$, $SD = 1.02$) significantly higher than the low-representativeness condition ($M = 4.52$, $SD = 1.27$), $t(190) = 4.049$, $p < .001$. This measure demonstrates that demographic representativeness is symbolic to participants of a broader organizational commitment to diversity initiatives.

Other Measures. The same scales as used in Study 2 were used to measure affective commitment ($\alpha = .83$), perceived organizational authenticity ($\alpha = .97$), and organizational identification ($\alpha = .93$), all demonstrating adequate reliability.

3.6.5 Results

3.6.5.1 Factor Analysis

A principal axis factor analysis was conducted on the 15 items with Direct Oblimin (oblique) rotation, as some correlation between the factors was theoretically expected (Field, 2018). The Kaiser-Meyer-Oblin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis KMO = .93, which is considered excellent (Field, 2018). After an initial analysis, two factors had Eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 72.18% of the variance. A scree plot also showed an inflexion that justified a two-factor structure as per Field's (2018) recommendations. While this did indicate that perceived organizational authenticity represents a unique factor, I note that organizational identification and affective commitment were highly correlated (r = .84, $p < .001$) and did not load onto separate factors. To address this, I refer back to Sleebos and van Knippenberg (2006), who argued that the two constructs should be viewed as unique despite being highly correlated.

3.6.5.2 Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1. In a replication of Study 2, Hypothesis 1 proposed a direct relationship between demographic representativeness and perceptions of organizational authenticity. An analysis of variance was conducted which showed a significant effect of DR on perceived organizational authenticity with $F(1, 189) = 57.6$, $p < .001$, $\eta 2 = .23$. The high DR conditions were rated significantly higher for perceived organizational authenticity ($M = 5.33$, $SD = .99$) than the low DR conditions ($M = 3.96$, $SD = 1.47$) $t(190) = 7.59$, $p < .001$, supporting Hypothesis 1a. In assessing Hypothesis 1b, support was found for the proposed interaction between gender and demography with $F(1, 189) = 5.38$, $p = .021$, $\eta 2 = .03$, with women rating perceived organizational authenticity for the low DR condition significantly lower ($M = 3.56$, $SD = 1.50$) than men did ($M = 4.23$, $SD = 1.40$) $t(92) = 2.21$, $p = .03$. By contrast, women ($M = 5.44$, $SD = .85$) and men ($M = 5.26$, $SD = 1.11$) did not rate perceived

organizational authenticity significantly differently in the high DR conditions $t(94) = -.85$, $p =$ .398 (see Figure 3.5). Means, standard deviations, and correlations for all measures are presented in Table 3.7.
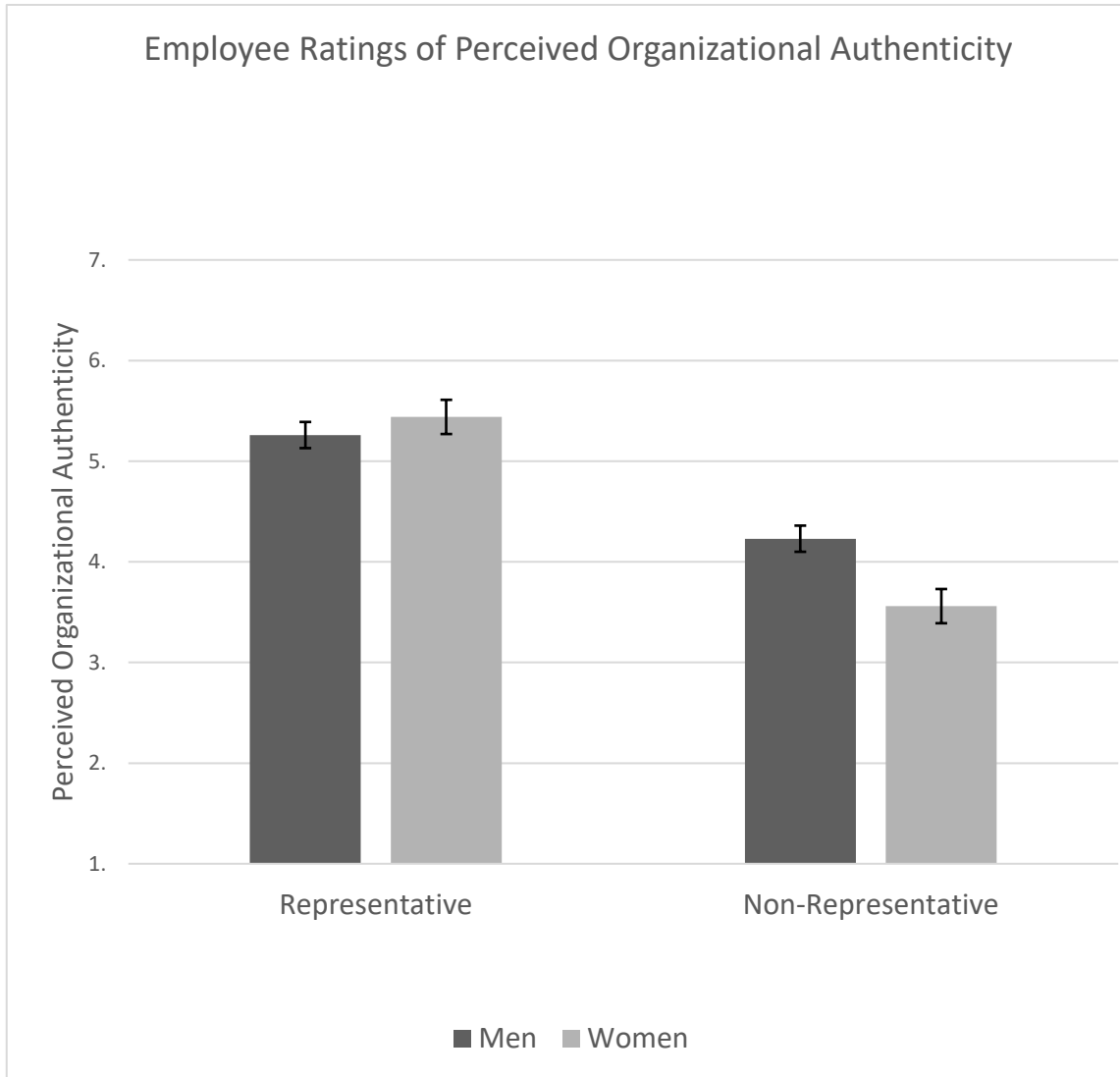
Figure 3.5. Study 3 means for the effects of demographic representativeness and gender on perceived organizational authenticity

Hypothesis 2. To test the proposed interaction between DM approach and demographic representativeness on perceived organizational authenticity, an analysis of variance was conducted and discovered significant support for the proposed interaction with $F(1, 191) = 7.29$, $p = .008$, η2 = .37. This moved in the predicted direction as well, as in the

two low DR conditions, the terminal DM approach (*M* = 4.29, *SD* = 1.29) resulted in a

significantly higher on authenticity than the instrumental DM approach (*M* = 3.60, *SD* =

1.59) with *t*(93) = 2.34. *p* = .02. DM approach did not result in a significant difference in the

two high DR conditions (see Figure 3.6). Post-hoc analysis using the Sidak (1967) adjustment

also supported the existence of a significant difference between instrumental and terminal DM

approach values in the low DR conditions 95% CIs [.02, 1.37]. These findings supported the

interaction predicted in Hypothesis 2a.

Table 3.7

Study 3: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Key Variables

Variable	Mean (*SD*)	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Demographic Representativeness	.49 (.50)	-.03	.48**	.17*	.21**	.10	.07
2. DM Approach	.51 (.50)		-.06	.01	-.01	-.05	.02
3. Perceived Organizational Authenticity	4.66 (1.42)			.52**	.59**	.13	-.05
4. Affective Commitment	4.39 (1.09)				.84**	.17*	.00
5. Organizational Identification	4.62 (1.16)					.18*	-.01
6. Age	26.03 (7.73)						.09
7. Gender	.66 (.50)						

Note. *N* = 192. DR dummy coded 0 = High DR, 1 = Low DR. DM Approach dummy coded 0 = Instrumental, 1 = Terminal. Gender dummy coded 0 = Male, 1 = female. All other variables were scored on a 7-point scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree). *p* < .05, **p* < .01
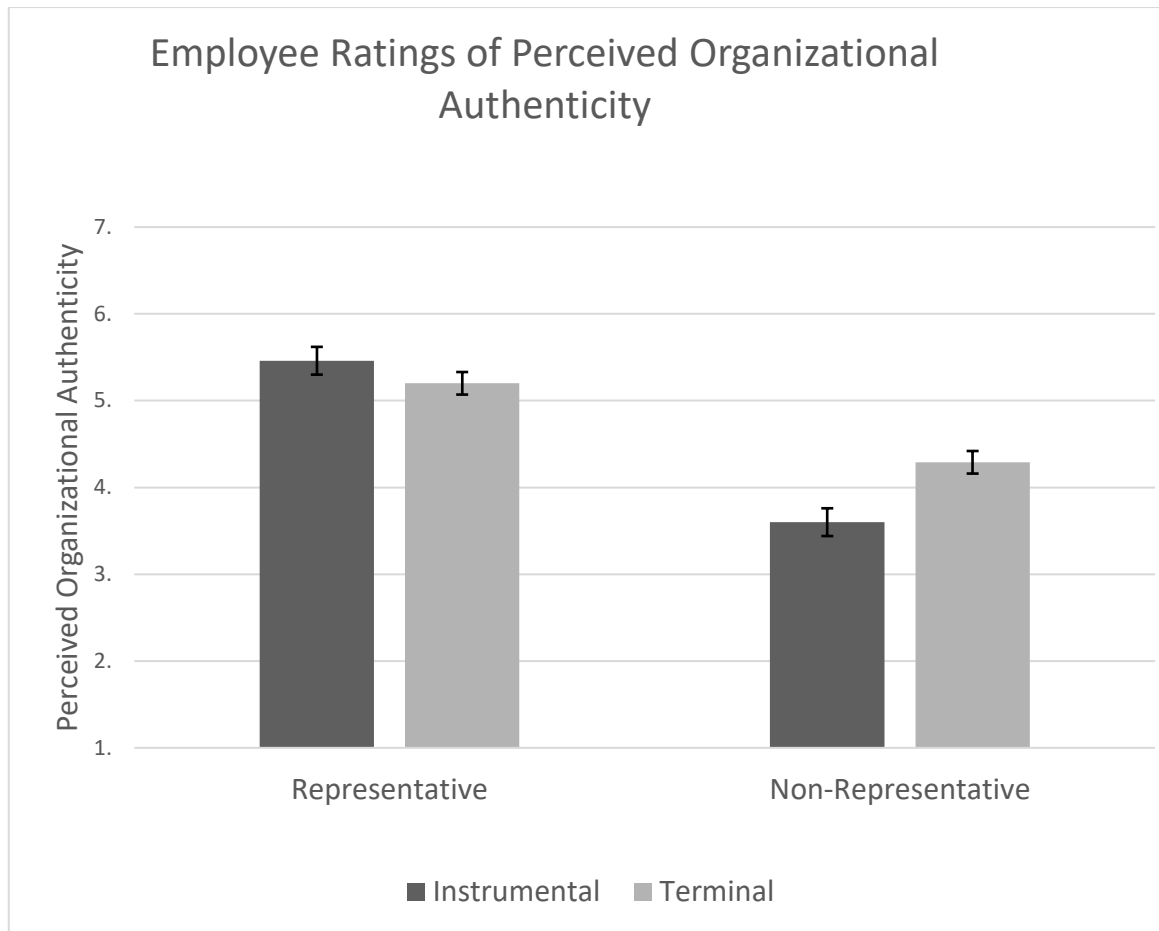
Figure 3.6. Study 3 means for the effects of DM approach and demographic representativeness on perceived organizational authenticity

For Hypothesis 2b, the DR x DM Approach interaction was deconstructed by gender and found that while the interaction remained significant for women $F(1, 80) = 5.10$, $p = .027$, $\eta2 = .061$, the interaction was no longer significant for men $F(1, 104) = 2.20$, $p = .142$, $\eta2 = .021$. However, independent sample t-tests did not indicate a significant difference between the Low DR / Instrumental and Low DR / Terminal conditions for either men $t(54) = -1.39$, $p = .170$ or women $t(36) = -1.61$, $p = .117$, meaning that hypothesis 2b was only partially supported.

Hypotheses 3. Based on the findings of Study 2, a mediation model was proposed in which perceived organizational authenticity would mediate the relationship between DR and both organizational identification and affective commitment, in addition to DM approach and

gender moderating the DR –> perceived organizational authenticity relationship. To test this, moderated mediation analysis was conducted using a bootstrapping confidence interval (CI), which is supported as a useful inferential tool (Hayes, 2018) and a strong alternative to p-values (Halsey, Curran-Everett, Vowler, & Drummond, 2015). Using Model 9 within the PROCESS macro, the proposed model was supported (see Figure 3.7). The analysis revealed support for the hypothesized moderated mediation model, with both DM approach *B* = .481, 95% CI [.11, .86] and Gender *B* = -.412, 95% CI [-.79, -.05] resulting in significant indices of moderated mediation with organizational identification as an outcome variable. The results followed the same pattern for affective commitment, with both DM approach *B* = .40, 95% [.10, .73] and gender *B* = -.34, 95% CI [-.66, -.04] again reaching significant indices of moderated mediation (see Table 3.9).
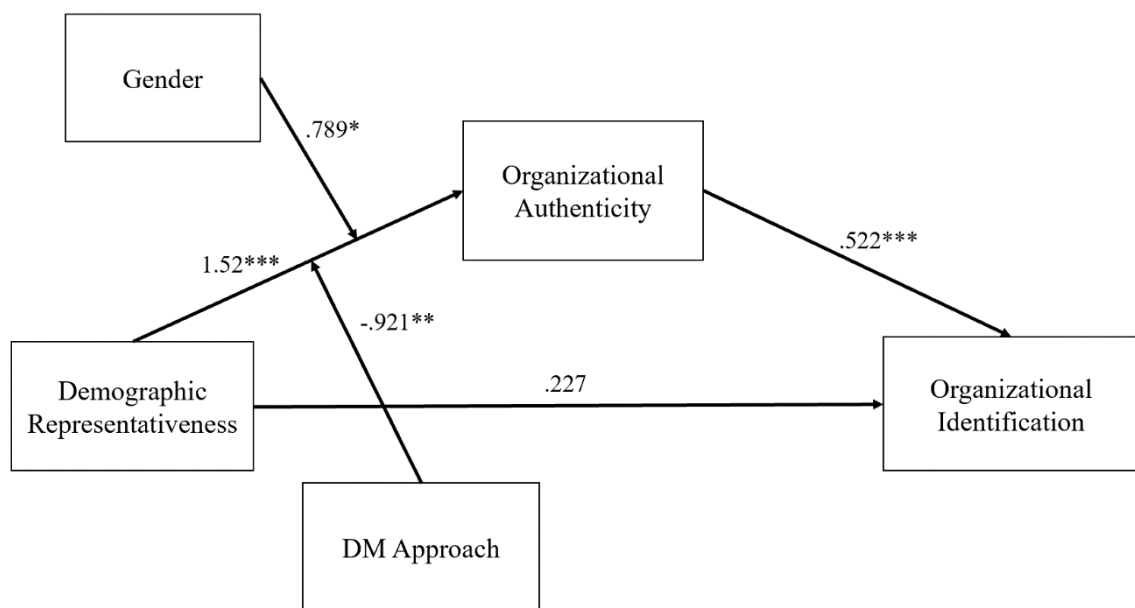
Figure 3.7. Unstandardized *B* coefficients for moderated mediation analyses using Model 9 in the Process Macro ***p < .001 **p < .01 *p < .05

These results were compared against other models in the Process macro, including Model 11 for three-way moderated mediation, Model 7 for moderated mediation with either DM approach or gender, and model 4 for simple mediation. The model seen in Figure 3.7

proved to be the best fit for the data. Further, no significant interactions were detected on the path from DR to identification / commitment or on the path from perceived organizational authenticity to identification / commitment, further supporting this model.

Table 3.8

Study 3: Means, Standard Deviations, and Cell Sizes for Each Condition

Condition				
	High DR / Instrumental	Low DR / Instrumental	High DR / Terminal	Low DR / Terminal
Cell Sizes	$N = 50$	$N = 45$	$N = 48$	$N = 49$
1. Perceived Organizational Authenticity	5.46 (.96)	3.60 (1.59)	5.20 (1.01)	4.29 (1.29)
2. Affective Commitment	4.69 (1.01)	4.07 (1.07)	4.43 (1.15)	4.33 (1.06)
3. Organizational Identification	4.94 (1.03)	4.22 (1.28)	4.75 (1.10)	4.51 (1.14)

Note: Values represent means and (standard deviations)

Table 3.9

Study 3: Summary of Conditional Indirect Effect of Demographic Representativeness on Organization Identification and Affective Commitment via Perceived Organizational Authenticity at DM Approach and Employee Gender

Moderators		Outcomes	
DM approach	Employee Gender	Organizational Identification	Affective Commitment
	Male	-.79 (.19)*	-.66 (.16)*
Instrumental	Female	-1.21 (.20)*	-1.00 (.18)*
	Male	-.31 (.16)*	-.26 (.13)*
Terminal	Female	-.73 (.18)*	-.60 (.15)*

Note. Standard errors are in parentheses. Significance levels are set at 95% with a 10,000 bootstrap sample and unstandardized path coefficients are reported. Analysis conducted using model 9 in Hayes' PROCESS Macro.

3.7 Discussion

Overall, the results of Study 3 offer strong support for the majority of the proposed hypotheses and are largely in line with the findings of Study 2. Together, these two experimental studies make a compelling case that (1) Perceived organizational authenticity mediates the relationship between demographic representativeness and organizational identification / affective commitment, and (2) That employee gender and organizational DM approach moderate the effect of demographics representativeness on perceived organizational authenticity. The hypotheses based on the findings of Studies 1 and 2 were largely supported by the results, with the exception of the proposed three-way Gender x DR x DM Approach interaction. While Study 3 builds on Study 2 in proposing and supporting a holistic model that explains both sets of findings, the fact that the results gathered using two very different samples and data collection methods were largely similar offers significant support to the reliability of the findings.

Perhaps most importantly, this work offers a potential explanation to why organizations struggle to design and implement effective diversity management practices and training (Bezrukova et al., 2016; Kalev et al., 2006). It is conceivable that if the organizations that struggle the most with diversity and inclusion to begin with undertake all the recommended best practices and truly strive to develop a synergistic climate, any perceived lack of authenticity could mitigate the potential achievements. This results in an unfortunate catch-22, as the organizations that need to improve their DM the most, often as the result of decades of poor practices and/or neglect, may face the biggest hurdles convincing their employees of their sincerity. The moderating role of gender may also may well explain why progress has been slower in traditionally masculine occupations (Krivkovich, Robinson, Starikova, Valentino, & Yee, 2018). Taken together, these studies represent an important

conceptual and empirical extension of prior research that investigated authenticity as it related to workforce diversity.

These studies also offer a significant contribution to our knowledge in this area by taking into account findings from a variety of tangentially related studies on authenticity, diversity climate, and organizational identification, and producing a holistic, parsimonious model which incorporates the under-researched construct of perceived authenticity on the organizational level. It incorporates work on organizational authenticity from the marketing and broader management literature into the organization behavior context (Cording et al, 2014; Lee & Yoon, 2018), draws on leadership research into authenticity in developing the construct (Gardner et al., 2011; Leroy et al, 2012), and develops a connection to practically relevant outcome variables. Organizational-level authenticity is established as a construct which can be measured be assessing employee perceptions, which has only been attempted once previously (see Smith et al., 2012). Given the well-established importance of authenticity (and behavioral integrity) as an individual-level construct (Banks et al., 2016; Simons, Leroy, Collewaert, & Masschelein, 2015), applying it to the organizational level is a logical and important path forward in diversity management research.

Approaching these findings from a social exchange theory perspective, which has been used extensively in the social science and management research (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), offers valuable guidance in the interpretation of the apparent mediation relationship. Trust is considered an important construct in social exchange theory (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), and management research has previously approached it as mediating work outcomes such as organizational citizenship behavior, job satisfaction, and commitment (see Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). This is perhaps best conceptualized by considering the idea of psychological contracts, as there is a deep and multi-faceted relationship between this construct and trust (Robinson, 1996). Psychological

contracts have become increasingly prevalent as a construct in management research as work has become increasingly complex as an endeavor, and that can certainly be said about diversity and inclusion in the workplace, as this has become an increasingly important area or focus for organizations across many industries and countries (Dwertmann et al., 2016). As such, despite the relative scarcity of research looking at authenticity as a mediator on the organizational level, the results of Study 3 are well-grounded in an established theoretical framework, which lends further support to the significant results.

3.7.1 Theoretical Implications

From a theoretical perspective, Study 3 largely serves to reinforce the lessons derived from Study 2 from a social exchange theory perspective. Given the interaction between DM approach and demography, I see an implicit break in a psychological contract between employee and employer; the participants cultivate certain expectation based on the DM approach espoused by the organization, and when that implicit contract is not perceived as being honored, commitment and identification suffer. This is very much in line with previous research (e.g. Aryee et al., 2002; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Rhoades et al., 2001). It also reflected Epitropaki's (2013) findings, who examined the dynamics of the relationship between psychological contract breach and organizational identification. However, these theoretical relationships are only explored explicit in this research, and as such, aligning these findings more explicitly with social exchange theory should be a central goal moving forward.

3.7.2 Practical Implications

Practically speaking, this work offers potentially significant new ideas for organizations interested in maximizing the performance benefits derived from their diverse workforces. First, it demonstrates that demographic representativeness affects how employees perceive an organization's DM practices. Workforce diversity may have a symbolic value to

employees, and it effects key employee attitudes like commitment and turnover. As a somewhat controllable variable that most organizations already measure, it is also fairly straightforward to address. Organizations should seek to recruit from diverse sources and take steps to retain their current diverse employees. Career development, networking, and mentorship programs for ethnic minority, LGBT, and female employees may be beneficial in this regard.

More substantially, the catch-22 that these findings illuminate is how an organization which is struggling with diversity and inclusion can improve, if the very fact that it is struggling counteracts the effectiveness of any diversity management initiatives it undertakes? That is to say, diversity policies and practices at an organization with a heavily male / white workforce may have fewer positive effects. While the value proposition of an instrumental DM approach is appealing, it risks a cynical response from employees and potential backlash effects on key employee attitudes which are closely linked to performance (Meyer et al., 2002; Riketta, 2005). Previous research suggest that this is the ideal approach to maximize performance and employee well-being (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Olsen & Martins, 2012), however, saying the "right" things by this estimation may have unintended negative consequences if the organization is less demographically diverse than its diversity messaging might indicate it to be. Organizations should seek to take an *authentic* approach to diversity management; that is, they should ensure that they are walking the walk before they talk the talk. If employees do not believe that the organization is sincere in its efforts to manage its diverse workforce, or perceive a disconnect between its words and actions, the DM practices it undertakes may be less likely to have the desired outcomes.

3.7.3 Limitations and Avenues for Future Research

As is the case in most experimental research, the nature of Study 3 means that external validity will suffer at the expense of internal validity (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2019). The application of this model to field research would be an obvious next step to establish external validity. Additionally, longitudinal field research would be valuable to see how perceptions of organizational authenticity change overtime and in response to different DM initiatives. These findings should also be replicated with a non-student population, which would extend the external validity and allow researchers to assess age as a potential moderator.

Additionally, both manipulations are fairly narrowly focused. The messaging on a diversity and inclusion website is one of a multitude of different aspects of an organizational DM approach. Similarly, demographic representativeness is only one way by employees might judge the effectiveness of an organizations DM practices. This interaction should be replicated with manipulations that incorporate different aspects of these variables.

3.8 Conclusion

In Studies 1 and 2, I offer the first research to examine how the interaction between DM approach value signals and demographic representativeness in an organization affects current employees. Study 1 did not find significant differences between conditions, supporting for the notion that the DM approach values signaled by an organization may have a limited effect on employee attitudes without additional context. Study 2 offers mixed evidence supporting an interaction between DM approach and demographic representativeness and also indicates that perceived organizational authenticity may mediate the relationship between diversity management and job attitudes. Study 3 finds support for

this hypothesized moderated mediation model with a more statistically robust sample. Taken together, these studies outline a promising new direction for both research and practice in the area of diversity management.

CHAPTER 4

Honestly Hypocritical? An Intervention to Increase Perceptions of Authenticity in Diversity Management

CHAPTER SUMMARY

Building on the findings presented in Chapter 3, the aim of this chapter is to experimentally test a practical, applied intervention focused on increasing employee perceptions of organizational authenticity. Studies 2 and 3 demonstrated that these perceptions may explain the relationship between diversity management and employee attitudes. In particular, the results showed evidence of a backlash effect when an organization's observed practices did not match its espoused diversity values. In light of these findings, an organizational messaging intervention based on signaling theory and social psychology research on hypocrisy was developed and tested in both a higher education (Study 4) and a corporate context (Study 5). The results showed that a minor change in how organizations talk about their diversity practices can have significant effects on employees' commitment and identification. Further, that relationship was again explained by perceived organizational authenticity.

4.1 STUDY 4 AND STUDY 5

Previous research (e.g., Smith et al., 2012; Windscheid et al, 2016) and the results of Studies 2 and 3 in the previous chapter demonstrate that a misalignment between an organization's words and actions regarding diversity can have an undesirable effect on employee attitudes. This adds to the growing body of research that suggests that authenticity on the organizational level is an important concept (Cording et al., 2014; Lehman, O'Connor, Kovács, & Newman, 2019). As such, the following studies seek to provide organizations with an evidence-based intervention to address this issue.

4.1.1 A Two-Sided Messaging Intervention to Increase Perceived Organizational Authenticity

In the previous chapter, the results demonstrated that there may be a backlash effect against organizations who espouse certain diversity values when their observed practices do not match that messaging. Building on that and drawing from signaling theory, Studies 4 and 5 test a messaging intervention to negate that backlash and increase employee perceptions of organizational authenticity. Developed originally in evolutionary biology, researchers have also previously applied signaling theory to organizational psychology (e.g., Lindsey et al., 2017; Rynes & Rosen, 1995; Turban & Greening, 1996) and economics (e.g., Bergh et al., 2014; Spence, 1973). In essence, in this context it posits that organizational attributes serve as "signals" to individuals, which in turn allows them to make judgements about the organization's unobservable characteristics (Turban & Greening, 1996). For example, in the previous chapter it is noted that the demographic composition of a company's employees (observable) is a signal about the degree to which their diversity management practices are effective (unobservable).

In its effect, this is not entirely dissimilar (and perhaps complimentary) to the similarity / attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971) and social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) in an organizational context. Diversity and inclusion initiatives signal that an organization has certain values and norms with regard to diversity. As O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) note, people are attracted to organizations that they believe to have values and norms that they deem important. Similarly, central to social identity theory is that individuals classify themselves into social categories based in part on how that categorization reflects back on their self-concept (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Turner, 1985), which in turn drives them to seek out groups to which membership will reflect positively on themselves (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Given its background in marketing and consumer research, signaling theory is the

primary focus in developing the intervention tested in this chapter. However, that should not be taken to mean that these results should be viewed as incompatible with the social identity approach more broadly.

Building on that, a primary contribution of this research is an investigation of the potential negative effects for organizations that do not 'practice what they preach' when it comes to diversity. This evokes the idea of *hypocrisy,* most commonly researched from a social psychology perspective. In general, it is accepted that hypocrisy is viewed as a negative behavior, yet the approach to studying how people perceive hypocrisy has been mixed (Jordan et al., 2017; Lammers, Stapel, & Galinsky, 2010). Some researchers approach the topic as a difference between what individuals view as normative and how they actually behave (e.g., Batson, Thompson, & Chen, 2002; Wagner, Lutz, & Weitz, 2009) while others approach it as the discrepancy between what individuals believe others should do in a given situation versus what they would do themselves (e.g., Valdesolo & DeSteno, 2008). In this context, the former is the primary focus, as it is most relevant to Simons' (2002) conceptualization of behavioral integrity (i.e., organizational authenticity), which he argues is inextricably linked to hypocrisy.

There are multiple lines of reasoning by why hypocrisy could have negative outcomes from an organizational standpoint. One straightforward explanation for the negative effects is that misleading people is generally regarded as morally wrong (Jordan et al. 2017). Alternatively, organizational hypocrisy could potentially be viewed as 'free-riding' if the organization were to gain something of value from their statements (e.g., reputation, recruits, clients) without actually absorbing the cost of the behavior (DeNisi, Randolph, & Blencoe, 1983).

Crucially, the extent to which people feel negatively toward hypocrites (or in this case, hypocritical organizations) cannot be explained by their transgressions alone; hypocrisy has a

negative effect above and beyond the transgression itself. Jordan et al. (2017) make a compelling case for what they describe as a false-signaling theory of hypocrisy. In a series of experimental studies, those authors first show that hypocrites (those who condemn a particular transgression and then commit it themselves) are judged more negatively than those who simply commit the same transgression. However, they also find that when an individual acknowledges sometimes committing a transgression even though they have condemned it — an "honest hypocrite" — they are not perceived more negatively even though their actions contradict their stated values. For example, an individual who condemns smoking as a dirty habit and then smokes themselves is considered a hypocrite. However, if the same individual acknowledges that they themselves sometimes are guilty of smoking while still condemning the behavior, they are an 'honest hypocrite' and receive less negative judgement. Thus, Jordan et al., (2017) demonstrate that it is the 'false signaling' that elicits negative reactions rather than the transgression itself.

Further, if one accepts that organizational hypocrisy can have negative impacts above and beyond the transgression itself, one must consider what signals are taken into account when individuals judge whether an organization is acting hypocritically. Because organizational messaging in this context serves in essence as an advertisement for the organization's values, the marketing literature is considered in developing a potential intervention. In particular, research focused on corporate social responsibility (e.g., Lee & Yoon, 2018; Turban & Greening, 1997; Voegtlin & Greenwood, 2016) and two-sided messaging (e.g., Crowley & Hoyer, 1994; Pechmann, 1992) is reviewed.

Two-sided messaging has been a focus of research (mostly in marketing, consumer, and communication research) for decades (Crowley & Hoyer, 1994). This is defined as when both positive and negative attributes of a product, idea, or topic are presented, often in the service of persuasion (Eisend, 2006). For example, a car salesperson might acknowledge that

the Ford Fiesta he or she is selling is unlikely to outrun a Ferrari while making the case that the Ford is the better option overall because it is safe and economical. They might be on to something, as there is evidence in the marketing literature that messages that include some negative information about the product or service can actually be more effective than if no negative information is presented (Pechmann, 1992). Further, in addition to potentially strengthening the message against counterarguments by discussing a limitation of the advertised product or service, the brand also increases its credibility with the potential costumer (Kamins, Brand, Stuart, & Moe, 1989). This marketing research is relevant, as an organization's messaging can be viewed as a de facto advertisement for the organization; in this context, advertisements for their diversity and inclusion practices specifically.

However, despite the support for two-sided messaging in the literature, a thorough review of diversity and inclusion web pages noted very few examples of its use. One notable exception is Google, who write in the conclusion of their Annual Diversity Report[25], "Our results in diversity, equity, and inclusion don't yet match our ambitions." This is a quintessential example of two-sided messaging. The organization is implicitly arguing that they are dedicated to DM practices that would benefit both the organization and its employees, but in doing so, they acknowledge a likely critique of that argument with the intent of making their point more convincingly.

As such, for Studies 4 and 5, a practical and realistic two-sided messaging intervention was developed that lends itself to experimental testing and could be readily applied in a real-world organization. Both experiments consisted of three conditions: Hypocritical, Honest hypocrite, and terminal. To most directly extend the findings of the previous studies, the hypocritical condition was identical to the instrumental – low DR condition in Study 3, while

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[25] https://diversity.google/annual-report/

the terminal condition was identical to the terminal – low DR condition[26]. The honest

hypocrite condition includes one additional sentence acknowledging the organization's lack

of success with diversity management. Three identical hypotheses were tested for both

experiments (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1

List of Hypotheses for Study 4

	Hypotheses
Hypothesis 1	Instrumental diversity management value signals will result in lower perceived organizational authenticity than terminal diversity management value signals when presented with low demographic representativeness
Hypothesis 2	Including a two-sided argument (i.e., honest hypocrite) with a hypocritical organization will result in higher ratings of perceived organizational authenticity than for an identical organizational with no two-sided argument
Hypothesis 3	Perceived organizational authenticity will mediate (in parallel) the positive relationship between a two-sided argument and organizational identification (3a) and affective commitment (3b)

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[26] The interaction between DM approach value and demographic representativeness demonstrated in Studies 2 and 3 was not tested again in Studies 4 and 5. To increase the power and allow for more parsimonious results, only the low DR – instrumental (Conditions 1 and 2) and the Low DR – Terminal (Condition 3) conditions were included in these studies. This is because an honest hypocrite intervention would not be relevant for an organization that is already perceived as being effective in its diversity management practices (i.e., high DR). These conditions are referred to as hypocritical, honest hypocrite, and terminal respectively Studies 4 and 5 (see Figure 4.1)

4.2 STUDY 4

4.2.1 Sample and Design

Participants

One hundred and forty-nine participants were recruited using the online participant recruitment tool Prolific. All were 18 or older and were prescreened for their status as students to increase the salience of the university manipulation, as well as for being native English speakers due to the subtlety of the language manipulation. Three attention check questions were included, regarding the name of the fictitious university, the proportion of male to female staff, and whether or not their condition contained the relevant two-sided message. After removing participants who answered any one of these three items incorrectly, I was left with 130 participants. They included 72 women (55.4%) and 58 men (44.6%) with an average age of 25.37 ($SD = 7.9$) and a range of 18-54 years old. They were primarily from the UK (62.3%) and the USA (28.5%), with six or fewer participants from Australia, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, and Zimbabwe. Participants completed the study over one day in March 2019 and were compensated an average of £11.25/hr.

Procedure

The procedure was largely similar to that of the previous studies. Each participant completed an informed consent and read an information sheet. Then they viewed one of three conditions for exactly 90 seconds, prior to which they were told that it was essential that they read the two web pages carefully.

Design and Manipulations

Of the three conditions in this study, two were identical to those used in Study 3 (see Figure 4.1). The new condition was the two-sided messaging (i.e., honest hypocrite) condition, which was identical to the hypocrite condition (low DR – instrumental) except that it added the sentence, "We are open in acknowledging that our faculty and staff are not yet as

diverse as we would like." The terminal condition (i.e., terminal – low DR) was included to provide a baseline and to attempt to replicate the effect of DM approach observed in Study 3 (i.e., an instrumental DM approach value will only have a negative effect on employee perceptions of organizational authenticity when demographic representativeness is low).

Experimental Conditions

Condition 1: Hypocritical	Condition 2: Honest Hypocrite	Condition 3: Terminal
• Instrumental DM approach value • Low demographic representativeness (DR)	• Instrumental DM approach value • Low demographic representativeness • Two-sided messaging intervention (honest hypocrite)	• Terminal DR approach value • Low demographic representativeness

Figure 4.1. Description of three experimental conditions for Studies 4 and 5

4.2.2 Measures

The same scales used in Study 3 were used to measure perceived organizational authenticity ($\alpha = .96$), affective commitment ($\alpha = .75$), and organizational identification ($\alpha = .91$). All were found to have acceptable reliability.

4.2.3 Results

Analysis of variance was conducted to test the overall effect of condition on perceived organizational authenticity. It demonstrated marginal support for an overall effect $F(1, 129) = 2.83$, $p = .06$, $\eta2 = .04$. Planned comparisons were then conducted to address the specific hypotheses (Condition 1 vs. Condition 2 and Condition 1 vs. Condition 3). Means, standard deviations, and correlations for all measures are presented in Table 4.2. First, the replication of the finding from Studies 2 and 3 was tested by comparing Conditions 1 and 3. Hypothesis 1 was not supported, as the hypocritical (i.e. instrumental) condition did not differ significantly

from the terminal condition on perceived organizational authenticity $t(82) = 1.50$, $p = .14$, $d =$ .33. However, perceived organizational authenticity did move in the predicted direction, with the instrumental condition ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 1.39$) resulting in lower ratings than the terminal condition ($M = 3.69$, $SD = 1.47$) (see Table 4.3). While these results do not support Hypothesis 1, they move in the predicted direction and have a similar effect size and direction to Studies 2 and 3. This finding is addressed further with a meta-analysis of all four studies later in this chapter.

Next, Conditions 1 (hypocritical) and 2 (honest hypocrite) were compared to assess the effectiveness of the proposed two-sided message intervention. Results revealed a significant effect $t(89) = 2.43$, $p = .02$, $d = .51$ in the predicted direction, with perceived organizational authenticity rated lower in the hypocritical condition ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 1.39$) than in the honest hypocrite condition ($M = 3.87$, $SD = 1.14$) (see Table 4.3). This supported Hypothesis 2.

Table 4.2

Study 4: Means, Standard Deviations, Confidence Intervals, and Correlations among Key Variables

Variable	Mean (SD)	2	3	4	5
1. Honest Hypocrite Condition	.49 (.50)	-.25*	.09	.00	.10
2. Perceived Organizational Authenticity	3.58 (1.35)		.45**	.50**	.19*
3. Affective Commitment	3.83 (.96)			.85**	.11
4. Organizational Identification	3.93 (1.10)				.13
5. Gender	.55 (.50)				

Note. N = 130. Condition dummy coded 0 = Hypocritical, 1 = Honest hypocrite. Gender dummy coded 0 = Male, 1 = Female. All other variables were scored on a 7-point scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree). *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Finally, mediation analysis (Hayes, 2018 Process macro model 4 with 10,000 bootstraps, 95% confidence intervals) was conducted to test whether perceived organizational authenticity would mediate the relationship between the hypocritical – honest hypocrite conditions and affective commitment / organizational identification. Perceived organizational authenticity mediated the relationship between the hypocritical – honest hypocrite conditions and affective commitment $B = .23$, $SE = .10$, 95% CI [-.44, -.04] and organizational identification $B = .27$, $SE = .12$, 95% CI [-.52, -.05], supporting both Hypothesis 3a and 3b.

Table 4.3

Study 4: Means, Standard Deviations, and Cell Sizes for each Condition

	Condition		
	Hypocritical	Honest Hypocrite	Terminal
Cell Sizes	N = 45	N = 46	N = 39
1. Perceived Organizational Authenticity	3.22 (1.39)	3.87 (1.14)	3.69 (1.47)
2. Affective Commitment	3.92 (1.10)	3.74 (.87)	3.83 (.91)
3. Organizational Identification	3.86 (1.26)	3.86 (.96)	4.10 (1.07)

Note. Values represent means and (standard deviations)

4.3 STUDY 5

4.3.1 Sample and Design

Participants

Three hundred participants were recruited using the online participant recruitment tool Prolific. All were 18 or older and were prescreened for their status as non-student professionals to increase the salience of the corporate diversity manipulation, as well as for

being native English speakers due to the subtlety of the language manipulation. As in Study 4, three attention check questions were asked, which resulted in the removal of 31 participants leaving $N = 269$. These included 91 men (33.8%) and 178 women (66.2%) with an average age of 35.13 ($SD = 10.06$) and a range of 21-74 years old.

Procedure

The procedure, design, and manipulations were identical to those of Study 4, except that the manipulations were altered to reflect a fictional organization rather than a university (see Appendix A). The name *Waypoint Corporation* was chosen as it was a realistic name across various countries that was not associated with any well-known real-world organizations. The language was altered slightly to reflect a corporate rather than university web page (e.g., "enabling our employees" rather than "enabling our students").

4.3.2 Measures

The measures were identical to those in Study 4. The scales for perceived organizational authenticity ($\alpha = .96$), affective commitment ($\alpha = .79$), and organizational identification ($\alpha = .92$) were all found to have adequate reliability.

4.3.3 Results

Analysis of variance was conducted to test the overall effect of condition on perceived organizational authenticity. It demonstrated marginal support for an overall effect $F(1, 268) = 10.11$, $p < .001$, $\eta2 = .07$. Just as in Study 4, planned comparisons were then conducted to address the specific hypotheses (Condition 1 vs. Condition 2 and Condition 1 vs. Condition 3). As with Study 4, the hypothesized difference between the hypocritical (instrumental) and the terminal conditions on perceived organizational authenticity was not supported $t(180) = .61$, $p = .54$, $d = .09$, with perceived organizational authenticity only moving slightly in the predicted direction (see Table 4.5 for means and standard deviation). This did not reflect the

results from Studies 2 and 3 and failed to support Hypothesis 1. Means, standard deviations, and correlations for all measures are presented in Table 4.4.

Next, the hypocritical and honest hypocrite (two-sided messaging) conditions were compared. The results showed a significant effect on perceived organizational authenticity, supporting the effectiveness of the hypothesized two-sided messaging intervention $t(173) =$ 4.11, $p < .001$, $d = .62$. The honest hypocrite condition resulted in significantly higher ratings of perceived organizational authenticity $(M = 3.53, SD = 1.24$ versus $M = 2.76, SD = 1.25)$, supporting Hypothesis 2.

Table 4.4

Study 5: Means, Standard Deviations, Confidence Intervals, and Correlations among Key Variables

Variable	Mean (SD)	2	3	4	5
1. Honest Hypocrite Condition	.50 (.50)	.30**	.24**	.25**	.09
2. Perceived Organizational Authenticity	3.58 (1.35)		.61**	.65**	.10
3. Affective Commitment	3.83 (.96)			.81**	.11
4. Organizational Identification	3.93 (1.10)				.10
5. Gender					

Note. $N = 192$. Condition dummy coded 0 = Hypocritical, 1 = Honest hypocrite. Gender dummy coded 0 = Male, 1 = Female. All other variables were scored on a 7-point scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree). *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Using the Process Macro (Hayes, 2018 Process macro model 4 with 10,000 bootstraps, 95% confidence intervals), the hypothesized mediation model was also supported, with perceived organizational authenticity explaining the relationship between the hypocritical / honest hypocrite conditions and both affective commitment $(B = .38, SE = .11,$ 95% *CI* [.18, .60] and organizational identification $(B = .47, SE = .13,$ 95% CI [.24, .73]. This fully supported Hypothesis 3. As in Studies 2 and 3, perceived organizational authenticity

mediated the relationship between the diversity management independent variable and the dependent variables, with the direct effect no longer significant for both affective commitment $t(180) = .88$, $p = .38$ and organizational identification $t(180) = .95$, $p = .34$.

Table 4.5

Study 5: Means, Standard Deviations, and Cell Sizes for each Condition

	Condition		
	Hypocritical	Two-sided Message	Terminal
Cell Sizes	$N = 45$	$N = 46$	$N = 39$
1. Perceived Organizational Authenticity	2.76 (1.25)	3.53 (1.24)	2.87(1.21)
2. Affective Commitment	3.25 (.98)	3.74 (1.08)	3.28 (.81)
3. Organizational Identification	3.30 (1.14)	3.91 (1.22)	3.38 (1.08)

Note. Values represent means and (standard deviations)

Given the particularly high correlation between perceived organizational authenticity and the outcome variables in this study (as compared to the previous studies, see table 4.4), I ran a factor analysis which confirmed that the POA items loaded onto a separate factor above .50 as recommended by Field (2018). The Kaiser-Meyer-Oblin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis $KMO = .90$, and two factors had Eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 70.71% of the variance, significantly higher than that explained by a one factor model (57.46%). A scree plot also showed an inflexion that justified a two-factor structure as per Field's (2018) recommendations.

4.4 Meta-Analysis

Given that Studies 4 and 5 did not replicate the effect of DM approach observed in Studies 2 and 3, a meta-analysis is conducted using data from all four studies to better estimate any potential effect of DM approach value signals on perceived organizational authenticity. This approach is adopted because findings from individual, single-sample studies can be misleading, especially when effect sizes are small (Cumming, 2014). A meta-analytical approach allows me to enhance the robustness of my findings and either establish small effects or make firmer conclusions from null results (see Field & Gillett, 2010 for a more comprehensive discussion regarding the value of meta-analyses).

I conducted a random-effects meta-analysis rather than fixed-effects in light of the relatively small number of studies and the recommendation of previous research in the field (Barrick & Mount, 1991, Hedges & Vevea, 1998). This allows us to generalize the findings beyond the studies included in the analysis (Field & Gillett, 2010). Cohen's D values for effect size were calculated for the difference in means between instrumental DM Approach versus terminal DM approach when presented with low demographic representation (see Table 4.6). In practice, this included data from Study 2 (Condition 2 vs.4), Study 3 (Condition 2 vs. 3), Study 4 (Condition 1 vs. 3) and Study 5 (Condition 1 vs. 3).

A chi-square test of homogeneity of effect sizes was not significant, $\chi 2$ (3) = 2.73, p = .44, which indicates that there is not considerable variation in the effect sizes overall. This suggests that a fixed-effects model could also be appropriate but following the advice of Field and Gillett (2010), I made an a priori decision to use a random-effects model. Some heterogeneity should be expected in most psychology research (Field, 2005). The mean effect size based on Hedges and Vevea's (1998) random-effects model was d = .26, 95% CI [.06, .46] which had a significant associated z score (z = 2.57, p = .01). This represents a small to

medium effect by Cohen's (1992) criterion, meta-analytically supporting the hypothesized

relationship between DM approach value signal and perceived organizational authenticity.

Table 4.6

*Overall Effect Size of DM Approach Value on Perceived Organizational Authenticity when
Demographic Representativeness is Low in Studies 2-5*

Study	Cohen's *D*	*N*
Study 2	.43	36
Study 3	.48	94
Study 4	.33	84
Study 5	.09	182

4.5 Discussion

It is difficult to blame employees if they approach diversity management with a weary

cynicism in 2019. It is 55 years since the Civil Rights Act of 1964 banned discrimination in

employment based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin in the United States and yet,

at the time of this writing, only 6.6% of Fortune 500 CEOs are women and just three (.6%)

are black. Ubiquitous technology company Google employs just 22.9% women in its

technology roles[27], despite a $264 million-dollar commitment to diversity programs in the

two-year period from 2014 to 2015 alone[28]. The findings presented in the previous chapter

(Chapter 3) support the notion that no matter how well-meaning a diversity management

policy or practice may be, it may not have the desired effects if employees do not believe that

it is authentic. Given this, Studies 4 and 5 offer a significant contribution to research and

practice by developing and testing an intervention that organizations could use to overcome

this cynicism toward diversity and inclusion practices. The results offer compelling evidence

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[27] https://diversity.google/annual-report/#!#_this-years-data
[28] https://money.cnn.com/2015/05/06/technology/google-diversity-plan/

that this theoretically robust intervention will have the predicted, desirable effects on employee attitudes.

In line with the hypotheses and the findings of Jordan et al. (2017), the honest hypocrite condition led to higher levels of perceived organizational authenticity than the hypocritical condition. Building on the hypocrisy literature, it is clear that the false signal — espousing an instrumental DM approach value for diversity while not being demographically representative — results in more negative reactions than just the transgression of not being demographically diverse in and of itself. Further, as Jordan et al. (2017) found with individuals, an organization acknowledging that it was sometimes guilty of that transgression was enough to limit the negative effects. Further, this also aligns with marketing research on two-sided messaging, which has shown that presenting some negative aspect of a product or services (or in this case, an organization), in addition to the positive aspects, can be more persuasive (Crowley & Hoyer, 1994; Eisend, 2006). By acknowledging that it has not yet fully achieved its diversity goals, the organization is more successful in persuading its employees that it sincerely values diversity, which in turn affects their work-related attitudes.

While the backlash effect of an instrumental DM approach value signal paired with low DR observed in Studies 2 and 3 did not replicate in Studies 4 or 5, a meta-analysis using data from Studies 2, 3, 4, and 5 together showed support for the existence of a small to medium effect size for DM approach on perceived organizational authenticity, such that an instrumental DM approach had a negative effect when paired with low demographic representativeness. Despite the failure to reject the null hypothesis in Studies 4 and 5, the meta-analytic approach adopted here means these studies serve to increase the robustness of the small but significant effect size observed in the previous chapter.

Further, Studies 4 and 5 lend additional support to the mediating role of perceived organizational authenticity, with it mediating the relationship between honest hypocrisy and

both affective commitment and organizational identification. This builds on the findings of Windscheid et al. (2016) and Leroy et al. (2012), as well as the results of Study 3 in the previous chapter, in positioning perceived organizational authenticity (i.e., behavioral integrity) as an explanatory variable for important employee attitudes. Given this, it is increasingly apparent that when designing and implementing any diversity management policy or practice, organizations should consider how authentic it will be perceived to be.

4.5.1 Theoretical Implications

In their recent review, Lehman and colleagues (2019) state, "In short, the importance of authenticity seems to transcend a host of academic domains and research paradigms." In this vein, the studies presented in this chapter are unique in that they are informed by not just the organizational psychology literature but also the much broader management literature, as well as various social psychology concepts and theory. Yet despite that broad scope, they also offer support for an actionable intervention for organizations; an oft stated but less often accomplished goal of organizational research. To my knowledge, no previous work has demonstrated that Jordan and colleagues' (2017) "honest hypocrite" findings can be applied to an organization's messaging. Thus, this false signaling theory of hypocrisy is integrated on the organizational level of research. Additionally, despite the wide consideration of two-sided messaging theory in the marketing and consumer behavior literatures (e.g., Crowley & Hoyer, 1994; Eisend, 2006; Pechmann, 1992), this is the first study to integrate it with diversity management theory. Even more broadly, I am unaware of any previous research which explicitly links two-sided messaging theory to employee attitudes.

Further, this chapter builds on the findings of the previous chapters by further establishing the mediating role of perceived organizational authenticity in the diversity management context. This aligns with previous research which has similarly positioned perceived organizational authenticity (or behavioral integrity) in a mediating role (Leroy et

118

al., 2012; Lindsey et al., 2017; Windscheid et al., 2016). This offers a significant theoretical shift in how we view employee attitudinal reactions to diversity management and should serve to guide future research on the topic.

4.5.2 Practical Implications

Overall, the ready applicability of these findings adds an immense amount to their value. First and foremost, the primary takeaway for organizations is that they should approach diversity and inclusion sincerely and authentically. If an organization is superficially motivated in its approach to diversity (e.g., by legal defensibility, public relations, etc.), it is much less likely to be effective in managing it. Diversity has the potential to increase performance in organizations (i.e. value-in-diversity hypothesis) (Cox & Blake, 1991; Guillaume et al., 2017). Further, effective diversity management can improve personal outcomes for diverse employees (Mor Barak & Levin, 2002). In pursuit of these outcomes, Studies 4 and 5 demonstrate that it is of paramount importance for organizations and the leaders within them to "practice what they preach" when it comes to diversity and inclusion.

However, the key word in "perceptions of organizational authenticity" is "perceptions"; even if an organization is truly sincere in valuing diversity, employees might not necessarily perceive it that way. This is a particular concern in large organizations where there is a significant distance between upper management and most employees. Studies 4 and 5 demonstrate how a simple, 19-word addition to a web page could affect how an organization's diversity management statements impact employee attitudes. In scanning dozens of real-world diversity and inclusion websites, I came across only one[29] that made an explicit two-sided argument acknowledging any failures or struggles with diversity. These findings provide clear evidence that more organizations should adopt a similar tactic. In

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[29] https://diversity.google/annual-report/ - "Our results in diversity, equity, and inclusion don't yet match our ambitions."

addition to the ample evidence that committed employees are more productive and less likely to leave an organization, research has shown that word-of-mouth is an important aspect of organizational recruitment efforts (van Hoye & Lievens, 2009); the attitudes of current employees may affect an organization's ability to recruit other employees in the future. Additionally, Smith et al. (2012) found that a similar mismatch between words and actions (what I refer to as the hypocritical condition herein) could also have a negative effect on organizational attractiveness for non-employees. As such, the value of such an intervention is clear from multiple organizational perspectives.

Further, while future research should be conducted to support this, organizations might also consider providing guidance to leaders and managers in delivering these two-sided arguments to their teams. Acknowledging that the team has not been as successful as it could be in incorporating the diverse perspectives of its members might be beneficial in facilitating the information-elaboration processes that lead to increased team performance (van Knippenberg et al., 2004). This should be investigated in future research, but given Leroy and colleagues' (2012) findings on the relationship between authentic leadership and behavioral integrity, organizations might consider taking preemptive action in this regard.

4.5.3 Limitations and Avenues for Future Research

The characteristic limitations regarding experimental methodologies are laid out in the previous chapter, along with the value of replication and related field work. These all apply here to an equal extent. However, future longitudinal research would be of particular value regarding Studies 4 and 5, as it cannot be concluded given this data if this intervention would have a long-term effect. Additionally, many avenues for delivering such an intervention (such as through a line manager or team leader) might be more practical and salient than altering the website in a typical organization. Future research should test similar interventions which can be delivered by a manager at the unit level.

Further, Studies 4 and 5 do not replicate the backlash effect between an DM approach value signal and demographic representativeness observed in Studies 2 and 3. While a meta-analysis did show a significant small-to-medium effect size, and meta-analysis a useful and increasingly used tool in organizational research (Field & Gillett, 2010; Hunter & Schmidt, 2006), a significant effect in all four studies would have conveyed more robust support for the underlying phenomenon. Additionally, replicating the relationship between DM approach values and employee attitudes with different stimuli, and then including those results in a future meta-analysis, would further increase the robustness of these findings.

4.6 Chapter Summary

Overall, the findings of these two studies substantially progress our knowledge in the area of diversity management. An organizational-level intervention based on two-sided messaging and research on hypocrisy is shown to be effective at improving employee attitudes. Further, the results of Studies 4 and 5 support the findings presented in the previous chapter. All together, these studies reinforce the notion that perceptions of organizational authenticity should be a central focus in the development and delivery of diversity and inclusion initiatives.

CHAPTER 5

All Talk and No Action: A "Says" vs. "Does" Discrepancy in Diversity Management Predicts Turnover Intentions

CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, I conduct a field survey to establish external validity and evaluate whether the conceptual model proposed in the previous chapter is generalizable to the workplace. This methodology has been used frequently in this area of research (see Kossek & Zonia, 1993 and Rynes & Rosen 1995) and serves to enhance the overall validity of the experimental findings presented in the previous chapter (Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2019). Further, it sheds light on how employee reactions to an inconsistency between espoused diversity values and realized diversity practices affects turnover intentions. Thus, this chapter has practical relevance for organizations seeking to ensure a committed workforce and to navigate employees' potential withdrawal cognitions. To begin the chapter, I describe the theoretical justifications, methodology, and data analysis involved in Study 6. Then, the findings are discussed in the context of the previous studies in this dissertation, theoretical and practical implications are considered, and limitations and avenues for future research are described.

5.1 The Espoused – Practiced DM Discrepancy Measure and Turnover Intentions as an Outcome Variable

In Studies 2 and 3, the experimental results indicated that a discrepancy between an organization's espoused diversity management (DM) approach values and its realized DM practices has additional explanatory power beyond the realized practices themselves. This experimental research was valuable in establishing the existence of such an effect and supporting the hypothesized causal relationship (Antonakis et al., 2010). As such, the next

step was to explore that finding in a real-world context. Several reviews and meta-analyses have considered the outcomes of diversity in organizations (e.g., Guillaume et al., 2013; Jackson & Joshi, 2011; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007), and they consistently conclude that these outcomes are equivocal and difficult to reliably predict. One potential explanation is that much of this research focuses on the main effects of some specific diversity management practice (e.g., Homan et al., Rynes & Rosen 1995). It is only recently that a new stream of research has emerged which considers employees' overall perceptions of these practices more generally, and which antecedents may affect those perceptions (Otaye-Ebede, 2016).

Nishii et al. (2018) note the importance of distinguishing between espoused and enacted DM policies and practices. Further, those authors specifically recognize authenticity as a key factor that influences how employees perceive DM practices overall. Various organizational cues might shape employees' judgments of DM practices. For example, Bezrukova et al. (2016) note that diversity training implemented as a standalone initiative may be seen as less credible than a broader, organization-wide effort that includes various consistent initiatives. Importantly, employee reactions to a diversity policy or practice depends on its alignment with what is actually enacted by managers (Simons, 2002). There is also an extensive literature suggesting that employee reactions to a diversity training initiative are more positive when it is supported by company leaders (Kulik & Roberson, 2008; Rynes & Rosen, 1995). For example, Ragins and Cornwell (2001) found that whether or not an employee's same-sex partner was invited to company social events was a more important predictor of employee perceptions than any existent policies aimed at supporting gay-lesbian-bisexual employees. This is indirect evidence to the importance that authenticity may have in determining reactions to DM programs.

The experiments conducted in the previous chapters manipulated espoused values vs. practices in the context of diversity management and provided support for the hypothesis that

perceived organizational authenticity plays an explanatory role in determining reactions to diversity management. However, the challenge inherent in applying this framework to the field is finding a measure which can assess the mismatch between words and actions that was manipulated in the experimental studies. In a 2018 review, Otaye-Ebede (2018) notes 17 previously published scales used to measure some aspect of DM or DM practices, though the author notes that most were not psychometrically validated. Scales for diversity climate are relevant as well but tend to focus more on employee perceptions of the outcomes of DM (rather than the practices themselves), which limits their practical relevance and informational value (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Gündemir et al., 2017; McKay et al., 2007).

Given this, I focus on the Employee Perceptions of Diversity Management Practices (EPDMP) scale developed by Otaye-Ebede (2018), as it focuses on the DM *practices* employed by an organization rather than measuring the attitudinal outcome those practices have on employees (i.e., diversity climate). To assess authenticity in diversity management (Cording et al., 2014; Nishii et al., 2018), I use a novel "espoused – practiced DM discrepancy" measure based on Otaye-Ebede's (2018) EPDMP scale. Specifically, participants will respond to each item of the EPDMP scale based on what their organization "says" it does (espoused) and what it "actually" does (practiced). This discrepancy approach to measurement has been used previously in the literature (e.g., Turner & Crisp, 2010; Moretti & Higgins, 1990), and aligns well with the experimental manipulation used in Studies 2 and 3.

In addition to this novel espoused – practiced DM discrepancy measure, turnover intentions will also be measured to extend the practical relevance of the findings and replicate previous research linking turnover intentions with work attitudes like commitment (Meyer et al., 2002; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) and organizational identification (Van Dick et al.,

2004; Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). The resultant serial mediation model can be seen in Figure 5.1.

Numerous studies show that diversity climate has a negative relationship on turnover intentions (e.g., Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; McKay et al., 2007), such that a positive diversity climate decreases turnover intentions among employees. Further, the literature demonstrates a link between diversity climate and organizational commitment from a social exchange perspective (e.g., Kooij et al., 2010; Mamman et al., 2012) as well as organizational identification from a social identity perspective (e.g., Van Dick et al., 2008; Van Knippenberg et al., 2007). Given that both organizational commitment (e.g., Eby, Freeman, Rush & Lance, 1999; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Tett & Meyer, 1993) and organizational identification (e.g., Abrams, Ando, & Hinkle, 1998; Mael & Ashforth, 1995; Van Dick et al., 2004) are well-known proximal predictors of turnover intentions, it seems relevant to measure and control for diversity climate. This will allow me to establish whether the espoused – practiced DM discrepancy has predictive power above and beyond diversity climate in regard to turnover intentions.

Based on the emerging area of organizational authenticity discussed more thoroughly in the previous chapter (e.g., Cording et al., 2014, Nishii et al., 2018; Windscheid et al., 2016) and given the experimental evidence from Studies 2 and 3, Study 6 hypothesizes that espoused – practiced DM discrepancy should be negatively related to perceived organizational authenticity (Hypothesis 1). I also predict that perceived organizational authenticity will be positively related to both affective commitment (Hypothesis 2a) and organizational identification (Hypothesis 2b). Further, I predict that both affective commitment and organizational identification will be negatively related to turnover intentions (Hypotheses 3a and 3b) in line with the results of Studies 2 and 3. Finally, I test a serial mediation model building on the experimental findings from the previous chapters in which

the positive relationship between espoused – practiced DM discrepancy and turnover intentions is sequentially mediated by perceived organizational authenticity and affective commitment (4a) / organizational identification (4b) (in parallel) when controlling for diversity climate, age, tenure, and size of the organization.

5.2 STUDY 6

5.2.1 Sample and Design

Participants

Two hundred participants ($N = 200$) were recruited from organizations in the United Kingdom (84%) and the United States (16%) using Prolific (see previous chapter for relevant support). Participants were recruited over one day in June 2019 and were compensated at an average rate of £8.40 per hour. All participants self-identified as currently employed and as being non-students, were between the ages of 18-65 ($M = 38.49$, $SD = 10.26$), and were 62% female (37% male, 1% other).

Additionally, data was collected about the size of the organization for which they worked and their tenure at that organization. Tenure was evenly distributed, with 50% indicating less than 5 years (13.5% less than one year, 16% 1-2 years, 20.5% 3-5 years) and 50% indicating more than five years with their organization (25.5% 5-10 years, 24.5% 10+ years). Organization size was fairly evenly distributed as well, with 4.5% of respondents at an organization with less than ten employees, 12.5% 10-100, 11.5% 100-250, 20.5% 250-1000, 25.5% 1000-10,000, and 25.5% 10,000 or more.

Procedure

Participants were directed to a survey on Qualtrics, where they were asked to read an information sheet and complete an informed consent document. They were told they would be asked questions about the organization for which they currently worked, and they were given

explicit instruction about the employee perceptions of diversity management practices (EPDMP) claim-actual discrepancy scale. The instructions read, "We are interested in determining if there is a difference between what organizations say and what they actually do when it comes to diversity and inclusion practices", and clarified that what an "organization says" might include "marketing, websites, emails, policy documents, or statements from leaders within your organization."

5.2.2 Measures

This section contains a list of measures used in Study 6, along with their respective Cronbach's alpha values. See Appendix B for a complete list of items for each.

Employee Perceptions of Diversity Management Practices (Communicated – Observed Discrepancy).

A scale was developed to determine the discrepancy between the diversity management practices an organization claims to conduct and those that it actually does conduct. This was developed based on the items from the EPDMP scale (Otaye-Ebede, 2018). Additionally, a "says versus does" discrepancy measure was created by creating a difference score (e.g., Turner & Crisp, 2010). For each item, participants were first asked whether their organization "*says* it does this" and then whether their organization "*actually* does this". An example item is, "My organization spends money and time on diversity awareness and related training" (see Appendix B for a complete list of items). Participants responded on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from "Not at all" to "To a very large extent".

For each item, a discrepancy score was calculated by taking the difference between the participants responses to the "says" vs "actually does" version of each item. Based on these discrepancy scores, the overall scale demonstrated high reliability ($\alpha = .86$). Further, both the

"says" scale (α = .94) and the "actually does" scale (α = .92) demonstrated high reliability independently.

Other Measures

The same scales as used in the previous studies were used to measure perceived organizational authenticity (α = .96), organizational identification (α = .93), and diversity climate (α = .88), all demonstrating adequate reliability. A sixth item from the original Meyer and Allen (1991) scale was added to the affective commitment (α = .91) measure: "My organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me." It was not included in the experimental studies as the vignettes were considered unlikely to be salient enough to affect "personal meaning." All scales were on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "Strongly disagree" to 7 = "Strongly agree."

5.2.3 Analysis Method

The analysis for Study 6 is conducted using linear regression and mediation analysis. The hypothesized serial mediation model is analyzed in SPSS using a bias corrected bootstrapping procedure in the Process Macro (Model 6; Hayes 2017) using 10,000 bootstraps, as described in more detail in the previous chapter. Age, tenure, organization size, and diversity climate were included in the final regression analysis as covariates. A meta-analysis from Cohen (1993) notes that both age and tenure relate to organizational commitment in unique ways, hence why they are both included. Organization size has also been previously linked to identification processes (Mignonac, Herrbach, & Guerrero, 2006), and both of those attitudes have been extensively linked to turnover intentions as discussed previously. All four are commonly statistically controlled for in organizational research (Becker, 2005; Bernerth, Cole, Taylor, & Walker, 2018). The extensive links between

diversity climate and job attitudes and outcomes are also discussed in the previous section of this chapter.

5.2.4 Results

Means, standard deviations, and correlations for all measures are presented in Table 5.1. Based on the results of the previous studies and other previous research (e.g., Denison, 1996; van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006), a high correlation between organizational identification and affective commitment was expected.

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 stated that espoused – practiced DM discrepancy would be negatively related to perceived organizational authenticity. Regression analyses found the predicted negative association between discrepancy and organizational authenticity, $B = -.73$, $SE = .09$, $t(193) = -4.32$, $p < .001$, offering full support for Hypothesis 1. In other words, as the discrepancy between what the organization says and what it does regarding diversity increases, employee perceptions of organizational authenticity decrease. The total effect size of the model on perceived organizational authenticity was $R^2 = .60$, which means that the discrepancy value accounted for 60% of the variance in perceived organizational authenticity.

Hypothesis 2. I also predicted that perceived organizational authenticity would be positively related to both affective commitment and organizational identification, replicating the experimental findings of Studies 2-5. Linear regression including the age, tenure, organization size, and diversity climate provided support for both Hypothesis 2a and 2b, with POA predicting affective commitment $B = .39$, $SE = .10$, $t(193) = 3.97$, $p < .001$ and organizational identification $B = .40$, $SE = .09$ $t(193) = 4.56$, $p < .001$.

Table 5.1

Study 6: Means, Standard Deviations, Confidence Intervals, and Correlations Among Key Variables

Variable	Mean (SD)	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Perceived Organizational Authenticity	4.71 (1.39)	.55**	.61**	-.60**	.62**	.12	-.21**	.10
2. Affective Commitment	3.95 (1.51)		.86**	-.29**	.48**	.10	-.22**	.15*
3. Organizational Identification	4.37 (1.44)			-.33**	.55**	.13	-.21**	.14*
4. Espoused – Practiced DM discrepancy	.48 (.80)				-.32**	-.13	.13	-.02
5. Diversity Climate	3.07 (.75)					.01	.03	.09
6. Age	38.49 (10.26)						-.16*	.35**
7. Org Size	4.27 (1.50)							.22**
8. Tenure	3.32 (1.36)							

Note. $N = 198$. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 predicted that both affective commitment (3a) and organizational identification (3b) would be negatively related to turnover intentions. Linear regression analysis was conducted to test this prediction. Affective commitment significantly predicted turnover intentions $B = -.87$, $SE = .08$, $t(192) = -11.17$, $p < .001$ supporting Hypothesis 3a, while organizational identification similarly predicted turnover intentions $B = -.99$, $SE = .09$, $t(192) = -11.55$, $p < .001$ supporting Hypothesis 3b.

Hypothesis 4. To test Hypothesis 4, I conducted two serial mediation analyses. In both analyses age, tenure, organization size, and diversity climate are entered as covariates. These analyses allowed me to test a model in which authenticity and either organizational identification (model 1) or affective commitment (model 2) predict turnover intentions in

sequence. The full conceptual model was tested with two separate analyses because the Process Macro (Hayes, 2018) does not allow two mediators in parallel (i.e. affective commitment and organizational identification) while testing for a mediation in sequence. In the first analysis, results showed that perceived organizational authenticity and then affective commitment sequentially mediated the effect of espoused – practiced DM discrepancy on turnover intentions, with an overall indirect effect of $B = .25$, $SE = .07$, 95% CI [.12, .39]. The direct effect of the espoused – practiced discrepancy on affective commitment $B = .43$, $SE = .17$, $t(195) = 2.59$, $p = .01$ became non-significant in the serial mediation model $B = .15$, $SE = .15$, $t(195) = 1.04$, $p = .30$.

Similarly, in the second analysis, the results showed the perceived organizational authenticity and then organizational identification sequentially mediated the effect of espoused – practiced DM discrepancy on turnover intentions $B = .29$, $SE = .07$, 95% CI [.15, .44]. The significant total effect of the espoused – practiced DM discrepancy on organizational identification $B = .43$, $SE = .17$, $t(195) = 2.6$, $p = .01$ also became non-significant in the direct path $B = .16$, $SE = .15$, $t(195) = 1.11$, $p = .27$. These results are nearly identical, reflecting the high correlation between affective commitment and organizational identification.
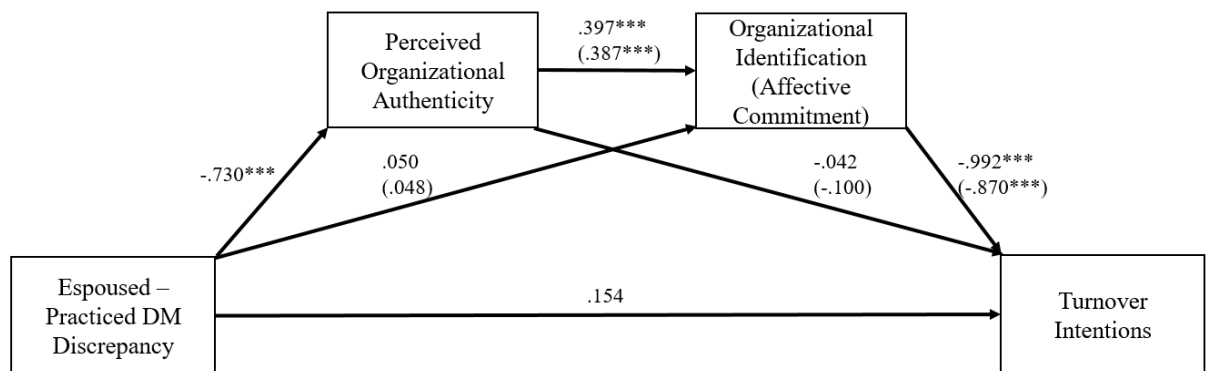
Perceived Organizational Authenticity

Organizational Identification (Affective Commitment)

.397***
(.387***)

-.730***

.050
(.048)

-.042
(-.100)

-.992***
(-.870***)

Espoused – Practiced DM Discrepancy

.154

Turnover Intentions

Figure 5.1. Unstandardized B coefficients for sequential mediation analyses using Process Macro model 6. Coefficients in (parentheses) are for the model including affective commitment. Diversity climate, organization size, employee age, and tenure entered as covariates. ***$p < .001$. **$p < .01$. *$p < .05$

Both of these models were compared to alternative simple mediation models with either one but not both of the mediating variables included using the alternate pathways provided by Process. For affective commitment, these were $B = .03$, *SE* $= .09$, 95% *CI* [-.15, .20] for perceived organizational authenticity as the mediator and $B = -.05$, *SE* $= .13$, 95% *CI* [-.32, .20] with only affective commitment as the mediator. For organizational identification, the alternative models were $B = .07$, SE $= .09$, 95% *CI* [-.11, .24] for perceived organizational authenticity as the sole mediator and $B = -.04$, *SE* $= .12$, 95% *CI* [-.28, .20] with organizational identification.[30] The confidence intervals for all four potential alternative simple mediation models included zero, which supports our prediction that our serial mediation is a most robust model. These results fully support Hypothesis 4.

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[30] I also ran analyses in which the order of the three predictors was alternated (e.g., identification -> discrepancy -> authenticity -> turnover intentions, etc.. For all possible combinations, the confidence intervals included zero, further supporting the hypothesized order of mediation. I do note that a fully reversed model (i.e., Turnover intentions -> Org ID -> authenticity -> discrepancy) was supported with an indirect effect of B =.04, SE = .02, 95% CI [.01, .08]. However, this is a much smaller effect, and the hypothesized model is decidedly more in line with theory and the experimental findings presented in the previous chapter.

Given the lack of previous research in assessing this type of espoused – practiced measure — in addition to the inconsistent findings in Studies 2 and 3 — no predictions were made regarding gender in this study. Post-hoc analysis revealed no significant interactions between gender and any of the predictor variables in the model. Given this lack of meaningful contribution to the explanatory power of the model, it was not included as a covariate in the analysis as per Becker's (2005) recommendations. Of note, there was a marginally-significant direct effect of gender on espoused – practiced DM discrepancy, with women ($M = .56$, SD = .83) scoring higher than men ($M = .36$, $SD = .73$) $t(196) = -1.72$, $p = .09$.

5.3 Discussion

"Practice what you preach", "walk the walk", and various other idiomatic platitudes of similar sentiment are commonplace in organizational research and practice. Thus, the recent emergence of "authenticity" as a focus in the diversity management literature is apropos (Nishii et al., 2018). This research is, to the best of my knowledge, the first to directly measure the discrepancy between espoused vs. realized diversity management practices in organizations. In empirically supporting the explanatory value of this measure — and crucially, that it has explanatory power above and beyond that of diversity climate — Study 6 makes a substantial contribution to the diversity management literature.

Additionally, the results of this field study are in line with my previous experimental results and serve to externally validate my conceptual model. Study 6 links the mediation model proposed in Study 3 with turnover intentions and empirically supports the hypothesized serial mediation model proposed in Hypothesis 4. In sum, a theoretically and empirically grounded model is proposed which outlines a path from espoused – practiced DM discrepancy all the way to turnover intentions. The findings overall are in line with Windscheid and colleagues (2016), but while their research focused solely on those outside

the organization, this study extends that findings by including a work-outcome measure (turnover intentions) in a survey of current employees about their own organization. This is a particularly valuable contribution, as turnover (and by extension, turnover intentions) is one of the most challenging and costly issues organizations face (Douglas & Leite, 2017). Study 6 also adds further support to the already-substantial body of research linking affective commitment and organizational identification to turnover intentions (e.g. Meyer et al., 2002; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Van Dick et al., 2004).

Fundamentally, this research suggests that the focus in diversity management should move from *what do we do* to *how do we do it.* Bezrukova and colleagues (2016) note in the meta-analysis that diversity training was most effective when it was complimented by other initiatives and conducted over a significant period of time, both of which would indicate an organization is authentically committed to diversity training. Similarly, Rynes and Rosen (1995) found that top management support and perceived strategic priority of diversity were associated with perceived diversity training success. Van Knippenberg and Schippers (2007) blame the inconsistent findings in previous diversity training research on an oversimplified, main effects approach. My findings highlight organizational authenticity as an under-researched yet important variable.

5.3.1 Theoretical Implications

Previous research has experimentally demonstrated that mixed messages regarding diversity can have a negative effect on employer attractiveness (Windscheid et al., 2016) and on interpersonal helping among employees (Smith et al., 2012). These findings are further supported by recent theoretical work outlining the role of "authenticity" in diversity management (Nishii et al., 2018) and draw further support from previous research on behavioral integrity (Arnold et al., 2016; Leroy et al., 2012; Simons, 2002; Simons et al.,

2015) and authenticity (Cording et al., 2014; Lee & Yoon, 2018). However, the work presented in this chapter is the first to link perceived organizational authenticity to a work-related outcome measure (TI) in the context of diversity management. In this, it usefully extends the model proposed by Windscheid et al. (2016) and establishes the external validity of the mixed message –> authenticity –> job attitude mediation relationship. Further, this research includes measures of both commitment and identification, which make the findings valuable from both the social exchange and social identity theoretical perspectives.

Additionally, the novel "discrepancy" version of the EPDMP scale (Otaye-Ebede, 2018) is a valuable theoretical contribution in and of itself. Discrepancy scales have been used more extensively in clinical and behavioral research (e.g., Anton, Perri, & Riley III, 2000; Veale, Kinderman, Riley, & Lambrou, 2003) and occasionally in social psychology research (Turner & Crisp, 2010), but I am not aware of any previous examples in the diversity management literature. Further, this espoused – practiced DM discrepancy scale demonstrated discriminant validity as compared to McKay and colleagues' (2007) diversity climate scale, as assessed by Fornell and Larcker's (1981) test. Theoretically, this further supports the existence of an interaction between what organizations say and do in regard to diversity management, which has up until this point only been experimentally supported (Smith et al., 2012; Windscheid et al., 2016)

5.3.2 Practical Implications

From a practical standpoint, this study serves to bring the findings of the experimental studies in the previous chapter into sharper focus for organizations. The field survey methodology adds a degree of external validity which should encourage practitioners to accept the importance of perceived organizational authenticity in their diversity management practices. In Studies 4 and 5 in the previous chapter, subtle messaging interventions were

shown to have a significant effect on employee attitudes in response to diversity practices. Establishing turnover intentions as an outcome variable adds a more tangible repercussion from a business perceptive. The broad takeaway for organizations is that it is crucially important that their words (i.e., messaging, press releases, websites, etc.) and actions (i.e., hiring practices, mentorship programs, etc.) are aligned in regard to diversity management.

Of course, the absolute best practice for organizations is to ensure that their leaders are sincerely valuing diversity within their workforce. The easiest way to convince employees you authentically value diversity is to actually authentically value diversity. This is not a perfect solution though, as employees can remain cynical even when the intentions of all involved are good. As such, organizations should consider training for managers to implement diversity management policies authentically; that is, in a way where their execution is in line with the policies and practices being enacted. Further, organizations should also audit and adjust their internal and external marketing and communications to ensure that they convey a match between words and actions.

5.3.3 Limitations and Avenues for Future Research

Although this study adds significant external validity to the previous findings presented in this work and deepens our understanding of diversity management, some limitations should be acknowledged. Common source variance is a concern as the data was collected from one survey at one time. This is a particular concern when assessing mediation (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Further, as with all cross-sectional survey research, no claims can be made about cause and effect based on these findings. Future research should measure the relevant variables at different points in time and with different raters to address this concern. However, the fact that these results are in line with our findings from Studies 2-5, which used different samples, does help to alleviate this concern to some

degree. Also, further field studies should be conducted within a representative sample of organizations such that additional confounding variables can be controlled for. Additionally, longitudinal field research to track how employee attitudes toward diversity management change over time would be beneficial.

Also of note, the espoused – practiced DM discrepancy scale measures individual perceptions of what is in essence an organizational-level construct. Research should be conducted which multiple raters from multiple organizations are surveyed to derive statistically relevant discrepancy ratings for each organization. Further, there are justified criticisms of turnover intentions as a measure; some argue that it is not useful as a proxy or predictor for turnover at all and should instead be viewed as a distinct concept predicted by its own unique set of variables (Cohen, Blake, & Goodman, 2016). There remains some discussion regarding the degree to which turnover and turnover intentions are linked, but irrespective of that, future research on related topics should seek to measure turnover or other objective work outcome measures when possible.

5.4 Conclusion

Study 6 significantly enhances the external validity of the experimental findings from the previous chapters by demonstrating similar relationships in a field setting. It offers additional evidence supporting the detrimental effects of a discrepancy between words and actions regarding diversity management, as well as further support for the mediating role of perceived organizational authenticity. Finally, Study 6 links the findings presented in the previous chapters to employee turnover intentions, which is a more tangible and relevant outcome for practitioners.

CHAPTER 6

General Discussion, Conclusions, and Directions for Future Research

6.1 Theoretical Background and Research Questions

Anecdotally, it is widely accepted that some organizations approach diversity and inclusion as a niche issue that is only relevant to "others" and not the majority. This would be a critical mistake. Never before in human history have so many demographically diverse individuals worked together so closely (Jackson & Joshi, 2011; van Knippenberg & Mell, 2016). Women make up at least 46% of the workforce in most North American and European nations[31], while women working at all in many professions (e.g., as doctors, lawyers, CEOs, etc.) would have been completely unthinkable less than a century ago. Further, 2.4 million immigrants entered the European Union from non-member countries in 2017 alone[32], while the percentage of the U.S. population that is white has dropped from 90% to 60% since 1950.[33] This coincided with a dramatic increase in the percentage of Americans who were "worried a great deal about race relations" (Norman, 2016). The implications of these societal trends are acutely felt in organizations; if not properly managed, they could have negative legal and economic effects, as well as detrimental effects on the well-being of diverse employees (Nishii et al., 2019).

I have noted throughout this thesis that organizations have a moral imperative to embrace diversity. In most countries, women, ethnic and religious minorities, LGBT individuals, and other non-majority groups have long faced stereotypes and discrimination that impeded their ability to achieve parity with majority groups in the workforce (Pringle &

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[31] Labor force, female (% of total labor force) (2019). Retrieved from
https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.TOTL.FE.ZS
[32] Migration and migrant population statistics (2019). Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Migration_and_migrant_population_statistics
[33] Poston, D., & Sáenz, R. (2019*). The US white majority will soon disappear forever*. Retrieved from
http://theconversation.com/the-us-white-majority-will-soon-disappear-forever-115894

Strachan, 2005; Roberson et al., 2017; Williams & O'Reilly, 1998). Significant progress has been achieved in recent decades, but many would argue that organizations have a responsibility to continue working toward the goal of equality (Pringle & Strachan, 2015).

Of course, it is fair to say that over the course of modern history, organizations have occasionally been known to take their moral and ethical obligations lightly. As such, I have argued throughout this thesis that it is also a business imperative for organizations to recruit and effectively manage diverse workforces. Countless studies have demonstrated the positive outcomes that can result from the demographic diversity of an organization's employees (e.g., Cox & Blake, 1991; Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Guillaume et al., 2017; McLeod et al., 1996; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007). However, to achieve these benefits, proper diversity management is necessary (Groeneveld, 2015; Olsen & Martins, 2012; Roberson et al., 2017). Thus far, it has proven difficult to outline exactly which organizational contexts and diversity management strategies elicit the most positive outcomes from workforce diversity (Guillaume et al., 2014; Kulik, 2014; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007).

For the most part, however, there is a sense that many major organizations do view diversity as a potential competitive advantage. A quick review of just about any large organization's "diversity and inclusion" web page will reflect that, not to mention the billions spent on diversity training annually. However, I noted previously that employees (Archimi et al., 2018) and consumers (Wagner et al., 2009) sometimes react cynically to corporate social responsibility practices. Further, there is a widely held belief that many organizations are primarily interested in avoiding discrimination or unfair outcomes, rather than actively valuing the contributions of their diverse employees (Dwertmann et al., 2016, Ely & Thomas, 2001). In sum, while organizations often talk about "promoting diversity" and "harnessing the value of our diverse employees", employees often perceive them to be more interested in good publicity and/or avoiding lawsuits for discriminatory practices. They are seen as

perfectly happy for everyone to be treated fairly and equally but, as long as that is accomplished, it is less clear if they actually value the diversity of their employees.

Given that, the underlying question motivating this research is whether that widely perceived hypocrisy may explain why the effectiveness of many diversity policies and practices has been so inconsistent (Kalev et al., 2006; Bezrukova et al., 2016). This research sought to determine whether a misalignment between an organization's words and actions regarding diversity would have a negative effect on employee attitudes. Further, it sought to understand the underlying mechanisms driving this relationship.

In regard to the former, Olsen and Martins' (2012) concept of diversity management approach values was reviewed and experimentally manipulated in five studies. Further, it was integrated within the broader literature covering diversity climate. While that variable served to represent an organization's words (i.e., espoused values), demographic representativeness was also manipulated as a signal of an organization's observable actions (i.e., realized practices). Previous research had made clear that demographic diversity is a key signal to employees about the success of an organization's diversity practices (Lindsey et al., 2017; Windscheid et al., 2016). To address the underlying explanatory mechanisms, I theoretically integrated research on behavioral integrity and organizational authenticity to assess employee perceptions of the difference between an organization's espoused values and its realized practices (Cording et al., 2014; Simons, 2002). Finally, this was put together into an overall moderated mediation model, which was tested across the three previous empirical chapters.

In this chapter, I will summarize the results of the six empirical studies conducted in this thesis and discuss their key implications. Inconsistent and unexpected findings will be addressed, as well as the limitations of this research. Further, I will reiterate and summarize the theoretical and practical implications of these findings, which were discussed in each of

140

the previous three chapters. Finally, directions for future research will be recommended based on a holistic review of the studies conducted herein. Taken together, the six studies conducted in this thesis offer a substantial contribution to the literature regarding diversity management effectiveness. Further, the implications for organizations are clear and designed to be realistically implemented, and the novelty of the findings overall provides promising new directions for future research in the field.

6.2 Summary of Findings

In the following section, I will summarize the findings of the six empirical studies presented in this thesis and lay out the compelling overall narrative derived from this work. The research conducted in Chapter 3 set out to test the effects of instrumental versus terminal values as described within Olsen and Martins' (2012) DM approach framework. Three experimental studies were reported which manipulated an organization's diversity web pages to reflect either an instrumental or a terminal value for diversity. That is, the organization either expressed that it viewed diversity as *instrumental* to achieving business success, or as a *terminal* objective in and of itself, with no bearing on its performance. Previously, Olsen and Martins (2016) had demonstrated than an instrumental DM approach had a positive effect on organizational attractiveness when compared with a terminal approach. A similar result was hypothesized in Study 1, with employee commitment and identification replacing organizational attractiveness as the outcomes variables. However, the results did not support this hypothesis; no difference was observed between the two conditions on any of the attitudinal variables.

I also predicted that diversity beliefs would moderate this relationship, such that the positive relationship between instrumentality and commitment / identification would be stronger for people with high diversity beliefs and weaker for those with low diversity beliefs.

There is an extensive body of research demonstrating the importance of individuals' diversity beliefs in eliciting desirable outcomes from diversity in organizations (e.g., Homan et al., 2007; Homan et al., 2015; van Dick et al., 2008). However, this hypothesis was also not supported.

On the surface, one might think that employees would respond more positively to an organization that conveys instrumental values for diversity (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Olsen & Martins, 2012). From a social exchange perspective, employees should be more committed to an organization that they perceive as being more committed to them. From a social identity perspective, individuals who perceived themselves as moral should identify more strongly with an organization that espouses socially and morally just values regarding diversity. Given the contrary results of Study 1 however, alternative explanations were considered. In particular, the growing body of research indicating employee cynicism and mistrust toward organizations' socially responsible practices was reviewed (e.g., Archimi et al., 2018; Aryee et al., 2002; Wagner et al., 2009). The results of two recent experimental studies that had specifically demonstrated the negative effects of a misalignment between words and actions in regard to diversity management offered additional guidance (Smith et al., 2012; Windscheid et al., 2016). Finally, the framework offered by Cording et al., (2014) — which conceptualized perceived organizational authenticity as a construct not dissimilar from Simons' (2002) behavioral integrity measure — was integrated into this conceptualization.

Taking all of this into account, it was determined that it was necessary to add additional contextual information to the DM approach manipulation so participants could assess the authenticity of the values expressed. The web pages represented the values the organization expressed, but it was also necessary to offer evidence of observable actions that either supported or contradicted the sincerity of those claims. Employees are not likely to take organizational messaging at face value, particularly in regard to social justice issues (Wagner

et al., 2009). As such, the demographic representativeness of the organization (as represented through employee demographic statistics) was added to the manipulations for the remaining studies.

In Studies 2 and 3, a 2 (DM approach: terminal vs. instrumental) x 2 (demographic representativeness: high vs. low) between-subjects experimental design was adopted. First, demographic representativeness (DR) was expected to have a direct positive effect on employee attitudes, which it did across all conditions. While in line with previous research (e.g., Lindsey et al., 2017; King et al., 2011), it is still a meaningful result to experimentally demonstrate that employees will be more committed to an organization that is demographically diverse.

Further, an interaction was expected, such that when an organization *talked the talk* (instrumental DM approach) but did not *walk the walk* (low DR), employee attitudes would be negatively affected. In Study 2, this was only partially supported, as an interaction effect was only observed for affective commitment. However, with a larger sample in Study 3, the predicted interaction was also significant for perceived organizational authenticity.

In the most compelling finding, both Study 2 and Study 3 offered evidence for a mediation relationship, such that perceived organizational authenticity explained the relationship between demographic representativeness and commitment. This finding was unexpected in Study 2 but then hypothesized in Study 3. Further, Study 3 demonstrated that the DR → authenticity pathway was moderated by DM approach values, supporting a moderated mediation model. Perceived organizational authenticity was tested further as an explanatory variable in Studies 4, 5, and 6, which each offered additional support to its role as a mediator. Of particular note, Study 6 demonstrated a similar mediation relationship using a field sample and asking participants about their own organizations. In each study, various

possible models and causal directions were tested, but viewing authenticity as the mediator of the relationship between diversity management and employee attitudes consistently provided the best fit for the data. Additionally, this was a full mediation, indicating that perceived authenticity almost entirely explains the degree to which DM practices have the desired effect on employee attitudes.

This offers compelling evidence that a misalignment between an organization's words and observable practices risks an undesirable backlash effect on employee attitudes. Given these findings, organizations would do well to be measured in how they express their diversity values. For a company that has struggled with diversity and inclusion issues — though somewhat counterintuitive — it may be detrimental to express highly instrumental sentiments regarding diversity (e.g., "Diversity is important to everything we do here at...!"). These findings show that such a sentiment could exasperate employees' negative reactions to other observable diversity issues.

Some exploratory analysis was also conducted as part of this thesis. In particular, given the body of research that suggests that men and women may react differently to different diversity practices (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; McKay et al., 2007; Olsen & Martins, 2016), gender was also explored as a moderator. In this, the results were inconclusive. In Study 2, the findings showed a three-way interaction such that the hypothesized interaction between DM approach and DR was stronger for women and disappeared entirely for men. However, Study 3 did not replicate this result. Instead, gender moderated the positive main effect between DR and perceived organizational authenticity, such that it was stronger for women than men. There was no evidence of such two-way interaction in Study 2. As such, there is some indication that gender may affect how individuals respond to DM practices from an authenticity perspective. Exactly how it fits in is not entirely clear and should be a focus

144

for future research. Of note, gender did not have any significant intercorrelations in the field survey (Study 6), offering no evidence that its effect would be larger outside of a lab setting.

These findings have clear and imminently feasible applications to practice, to the extent that the following experimental studies tested the efficacy of an organizational intervention to increase perceptions of organizational authenticity among employees. Chapter 4 presented the findings of two studies, which tested the intervention in a university and corporate setting respectively. In regard to the intervention, its hypothesized outcomes were strongly supported. A 19-word addition to an organization's diversity and inclusion web page completely negated the negative effect observed in the previous studies. Organizations with observably lacking diversity practices (i.e., low demographic diversity) could express an instrumental diversity value, so long as they also acknowledged those lackluster practices. This finding has the potential to be revelatory for the many organizations who continue to struggle to achieve demographic parity.

However, the results were less cut and dry regarding the replication of the DM approach – demographic representativeness interaction effect observed in Study 3. While a full 2 x 2 interaction was tested in the previous chapter, the primary comparison of interest was the instrumental vs. terminal DM approach in a non-diverse (low DR) organization. In the real world, companies that are already highly diverse are not at as great a risk for perceptions of hypocrisy. As such, Studies 4 and 5 compared only those two conditions, and neither replicated the effects seen in Studies 2 and 3. While the group means did move in the predicted direction, the difference was not significant between the instrumental and terminal conditions, failing to support the existence of a backlash effect.

However, given that the means did move in the predicted direction, and the effect size observed in Study 4 in particular ($d = .33$) was similar to that observed in Studies 2 and 3, a

meta-analysis was conducted to establish if there was a significant effect using data from all four studies. Indeed, a significant mean effect ($d = .26$) was calculated. Despite the insignificant results in Studies 4 and 5, this meta-analytic approach provides more robust support for the relationship than any of the four studies individually (Halsey, Curran-Everett, Vowler, & Drummond, 2015). In general, this approach is viewed as a powerful analytic tool, especially when effect sizes are small (Cumming, 2014; Field & Gillett, 2010). As such, this result can be viewed as compelling evidence for the existence of a potential backlash effect resulting from an organization espousing an instrumental DM approach when their current diversity practices are not yet observed to be consistently effective.

A strength of the research presented in this thesis is the coherent overall narrative it develops. Experiments were conducted to establish causality and empirically support a moderated mediation model of authenticity and DM effectiveness. Then, an intervention was experimentally tested based directly on the previous established model, addressing a specific need for organizations. Finally, a field survey (Study 6) was conducted to establish if the predicted relationships would be observed in real-world organizations. The results offered strong support for the mediating role of perceived authenticity. Additionally, it measured turnover intentions (difficult to assess experimentally), and demonstrated support for a parallel, serial mediation model where commitment and identification further predicted turnover intentions. Given that turnover is a massive and costly challenge for organizations (Douglas & Leite, 2017), this serves to increase the real-world value of these findings.

It is worth nothing that testing this model within specific organizations where more confounding variables could be controlled for would offer some methodological advantages. Additionally, objective outcome measures such as turnover or performance could be assessed. This would certainly be a valuable approach for future research. However, given the effective

use of statistical controls and the fact that the findings line up so well with the experimental results, the value of this survey research should not be discounted (see Table 6.1)

Of particular note, a significant effect of a misalignment between DM words and actions was observed even when controlling for diversity climate. This is a particularly noteworthy finding given the extent to which the literature establishes diversity climate as a key contingency variable (e.g., Avery et al., 2013; Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Kossek & Zonia, 1993). In other words, the alignment between words and actions influences DM effectiveness above and beyond the degree to which employees perceive that the organization values diversity. Age, tenure, and the size of the organization were also controlled for, enhancing the overall robustness of the observed relationships.

Overall, the results of these six studies develop an intuitive narrative regarding diversity management effectiveness. A deeper understanding of the interaction between espoused values and realized practices is conveyed, and convincing support for the explanatory role of perceived organizational authenticity is provided. Additionally, a practical intervention is tested and supported, offering direct utility to practitioners in the field. In sum, this research addresses a pressing need in the management literature and has considerable implications for both research and practice.

Table 6.1

Summary of Studies

Study	Participants	Independent variables	Dependent variables	Main findings
Chapter 3				
Study 1	74 students	Organizational D&I website: DM approach (instrumental vs. terminal) Diversity Beliefs (moderator)	Perceived organizational authenticity, Organizational affective commitment, Organizational identification	No main effect of DM approach was observed on any outcome variable. No support for hypothesized interaction with diversity beliefs
Study 2	64 postgraduate students	Organizational D&I website: 1. DM Approach value (instrumental x terminal) 2. Demographic representativeness (high vs. low)	(same as Study 1)	Positive main effect of DR on all outcome variables. Evidence of interaction effect on affective commitment, such that instrumental approach has a negative effect only when paired with low DR. Possible three-way interaction with gender also observed, such that the above interaction is stronger for women. POA mediated the relationship between IVs and commitment / identification
Study 3	192 students	(same as Study 2)	(same as Studies 1 & 2, except perceived organizational authenticity treated as a mediator	Positive main effect of DR on all outcome variables. Interaction such that instrumental approach has a negative effect on POA only when paired with low DR. POA fully mediated the relationship between IVs and commitment / identification Separate two-way interaction with gender and DR. No three-way interaction DR x DM approach x gender observed

Study	Participants	Independent variables	Dependent variables	Main findings
Chapter 4				
Study 4	130 students	DM Approach on a university D&I website: Condition 1 – Hypocritical Condition 2 – Honest hypocrite	(same as Study 3)	Condition 1 vs. Condition 2 – Honest hypocrite intervention increases POA. POA mediates the relationship between condition and commitment / identification
Study 5	269 professionals	(same as Study 4, but corporate manipulation used rather than university) Condition 1 – Hypocritical Condition 2 – Honest hypocrite Condition 3 - Terminal	(same as Study 3)	Condition 1 vs. Condition 2 – Honest hypocrite intervention increases POA. POA mediates the relationship between condition and commitment / identification. Condition 1 vs. Condition 3 – No replication of findings from Study 3. No negative effects of instrumental DM approach when paired with low DR
Meta-Analysis	$K = 4, N = 396$	N/A	N/A	Meta-analysis finds a small-to-medium mean overall effect of an instrumental vs terminal DM approach when paired with Low DR across four studies ($d = .22$)
Chapter 5				
Study 6	200 professionals	Field survey research. No IV. Espoused – Practices DM discrepancy measured as a predictor	Same as previous, with turnover intentions added as a final outcome variable (serial mediation)	Support for a serial mediation model in which the relationship between espoused – practiced DM discrepancy and turnover intentions is sequentially mediated by POA and commitment / identification. Age, tenue, organization size, and diversity climate were controlled as covariates

Note. POA = Perceived organizational authenticity. DR = Demographic representativeness.

6.3 Limitations

While the findings presented in this thesis are impactful, they are also not without limitations. In the previous chapters, the characteristic limitations of experimental research have been noted. Common rater effect weakens any causal claims regarding mediation (Antonakis et al., 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Stone-Romero et al., 2010), because the mediating and dependent variables were collected from the same source. However, self-report data is somewhat of a necessity, as it is likely the most reliable way to measure perceived organizational authenticity. The fact that similar mediation effects were observed across five different samples also alleviates these common rater concerns to some degree. Further, external validity is generally sacrificed at the expense of internal validity in experimental research (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2019). While the field survey in Study 6 does serve to enhance external validity, a controlled field experiment or multilevel survey research within a single organization would go further.

Overall, sample sizes were largely adequate to provide sufficient power (.8) to detect a small-to-medium effect size, although that was not the case with Study 2. Cell sizes ranged from 13 to 23 in the ANOVA testing for interactions and only achieved a borderline-acceptable observed power (.69) (Cohen, 1991) for the significant interaction with affective commitment as an outcome. In contrast, the interaction analysis in Study 3 included between 45 and 50 participants per cell, which a priori power analysis showed should provide sufficient power to detect any effect. In general, the sample in Study 2 is a limitation that must be acknowledged. The a priori decision was made to exclude a number of participants based on language ability inferred from demographic characteristics. While this was deemed the best possible approach to an unforeseen issue in data collection, the small sample size and participant exclusions are far from ideal. In the pursuit of transparency, analyses are also

conducted and reported on the full, pre-exclusion sample in Study 2 (see footnotes in Chapter 3).

Another limitation is that all five experimental studies included a similar organizational stimulus. Dozens of real-world organizational websites were reviewed extensively prior to the design of the stimuli, and experts in the area of diversity and inclusion were consulted throughout their development. Further, a manipulation check in Study 3 confirmed the effectiveness of the demographic representativeness manipulation. The manipulation was based closely on the one used by Windscheid et al. (2016), who found a similar mixed-message effect, except the manipulation here altered employee demographic composition rather than demography of the board of directors. Further, Smith et al. (2012) also showed similar mixed-message effects using news stories and employee quotes. Even still, it is possible that confounds existed in my manipulations. As such, future experimental research should invent different ways to manipulate an organization's espoused values and realized practices.

It should also be noted that a fair number of participants were removed from analysis in each study for failing to answer an attention check question correctly. This is generally considered a useful tool in experimental research (Oppenheimer et al., 2009). The number of participants removed ranged from 3.5% in Study 3 to 12.75% in Study 4. No participants answered incorrectly in the restricted sample analyzed in Study 2, further justifying the decision to remove some participants from the analysis based on language ability. The 3-13% removal number is in line with previous research using both students in university lab environments and online participants recruited from a similar online source as used in this thesis (Hauser & Schwarz, 2016). Additionally, the findings were largely as predicted by theoretically grounded a priori hypotheses. Even still, it is possible that a larger proportion of participants did not carefully read all questions, and that the results might therefore include

some error variance. Any future research on the topic should also include attention checks in the methodology.

Employee reactions were measured using explicit self-report scales drawn from previous research (McKay et al., 2007; Meyer et al., 1993; Otaye-Ebede, 2018; Simons et al., 2007; Smidts et al., 2001). This is typical and viewed as a standard practice in management and psychology research (Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2019). However, particularly with diversity and inclusion research, social desirability bias is a real concern (i.e., participants responding in a pro-diversity manner because they feel that it is the socially desirable response). It is possible that an implicit measure (such as an implicit-association test) could be used in the future. Additionally, objective measures of commitment and/or performance (e.g., turnover, sales performance), which could be collected in either laboratory or field settings, would be ideal.

The current research also notes the significant construct overlap between affective commitment and organizational identification. In Chapter 2, I make the case that they can be viewed through distinct theoretical lenses despite their high intercorrelation. This view is supported by previous research (Ng, 2015; van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006). However, it is unclear from the data that these represent distinct constructs in participant responses. While this conceptual and theoretical lack of clarity is an issue, it does little to change the overall takeaway from this thesis. An interaction between DM approach values and DM practices effects employee work-related attitudes, in a process that is mediated by perceptions of organizational authenticity. Given their high intercorrelation, there is an argument that commitment and identification should be viewed as one overarching measure. This is something that should be clarified in future research. However, both are viewed as desirable employee outcomes, such that the main takeaway from this research is identical regardless of whether or not they are viewed as distinct.

6.4 Theoretical Implications

Empirical evidence has shown that a misalignment between the words and actions of an organization can have negative effects on organizational performance (Cording et al., 2014), employee attitudes (Smith et al., 2012), and organizational attractiveness (Windscheid et al., 2016). However, this phenomenon has received far less theoretical attention. First and foremost, the review in Chapter 2 serves to ground this model within the social exchange perspective (Rousseau & Park, 1993), building on the literature around psychological contracts (Morrison & Robinson, 1997) and behavioral integrity (Simons, 2002). Additionally, Chapter 2 reviews and applies the social identity approach to this phenomenon. Despite the overlap in the outcome variables, it is not necessary to choose one perspective or the other. It is argued that an alignment between espoused values and realized practices can engender identification, as this authenticity is perceived by employees as a positive trait with which they desire to be associated (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Alternatively, social exchange is also a useful lens through which to view the results, as employees view authenticity as an antecedent to trust; they feel more likely their organization will honor its commitments in said exchange relationship. Thus, they are more likely to honor their own end of this bargain in the form of commitment. These theoretical approaches are established as complimentary in this process, and Chapter 2 clarifies their value in understanding the observed outcomes.

Overall, these theoretical processes are best understood through the underlying explanatory role of perceived organizational authenticity (Cording et al., 2014). The integration of behavioral integrity (Simons, 2002) into this construct represents a significant theoretical contribution as well. Similar theoretical frameworks have been previously advanced regarding authentic leadership. For example, Avolio and Gardner (2005) suggest that the relationship between authentic leadership and commitment is best understood through the theoretical mechanism of both social exchange and social identification. As Walumbwa et

al. (2008) note, authentic leaders present themselves with a certain vulnerability, which in turn engenders trust from their followers. Taken further, Leroy et al. (2012) position behavioral integrity as the mechanism underlying this relationship.

I build on this by reviewing the work of Cording et al. (2014), who positioned the construct of organizational authenticity as an organizational-level extension of behavioral integrity. While Leroy and colleagues (2012) suggested the relationship between commitment and leader behavior can be understood through the lens of behavioral integrity, I propose that the relationship between organizational actions and commitment is best understood through perceived organizational authenticity. The findings presented in this thesis bear out this conceptualization.

Finally, this work also builds on Windscheid and colleagues' (2016) work in considering signaling theory when assessing antecedent variables of DM effectiveness. Organizational authenticity is inherently *perceived*; organizational policies and practices are not objectively interpreted by employees. Those authors outline how signaling theory (see Bergh et al., 2014 and Connelly et al., 2011 for reviews) helps explain how a "diversity mixed message" might negatively affect perceived integrity. I extend this by integrating a theory of false signaling developed in social psychology research on hypocrisy (Jordan et al., 2017). Reviewing this and other related research on hypocrisy (e.g., Batson et al., 2002; Valdesolo & DeSteno, 2008) deepens the theoretical breadth of the signaling theory approach taken by Windscheid et al. (2016) in the diversity management context. Further, it led directly to the development of the practical intervention tested in Chapter 4.

6.5 Practical Implications

As discussed throughout this thesis, the continued workplace inequality faced by women and many minority groups represents a moral and ethical failure of epic proportions.

Back in Chapter 2, *diversity management* was defined as "the implementation of practices and policies by which an organization attempts to facilitate the positive effects and inhibit the negative effects of diversity on both performance and employee well-being" (Olsen & Martins, 2012). Thus, research focused on making diversity management more effective inherently addresses the aforementioned pervasive inequality. However, it is easy to tell organizations they should be more diverse and focus on ensuring equal opportunities for their diverse employees. What is more difficult, however, is showing them how.

With that in mind, the ready applicability and practical relevance of this research is among its greatest strengths. Over the past decade, research has consistently found that context and various contingencies have made the effects of diversity within organizations (Guillaume et al., 2017; van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007) and the effectiveness of diversity management (Bezrukova et al., 2016; Kalev et al., 2006) difficult to consistently predict. While I note in Chapter 1 that some 97% of large US organizations have diversity programs in place and spend in the region of $8 billion annually, the returns do not yet match the investment, from either an ethical or an economic perspective (Roberson et al., 2017). Figures like those, along with public pronouncements from some of the most visible[34] organizational leaders[35], give the impression that organizations are more committed to diversity and inclusion than ever before. However, many employees remain unconvinced.

Therein lies the problem. Even for those organizations which genuinely value diversity from moral and business perspectives, their employees must also be convinced of their sincerity. Taken together, this thesis offers clear evidence that this perceived authenticity

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[34]Seetharaman, D. (2018, Oct 5). Facebook's Zuckerberg Tells Employees to Respect Diverse Views of Colleagues. *Wall Street Journal*, Retrieved from https://www.wsj.com/articles/facebooks-zuckerberg-tells-employees-to-respect-diverse-views-of-colleagues-1538767936

[35] Sharma, G. (2018, Mar 6). BP's Chief Scientist Says Boosting Gender Diversity And STEM Pathways Crucial For 'Big Oil'. Forbes. Retrieved from https://www.forbes.com/sites/gauravsharma/2018/03/06/bp-chief-scientist-says-boosting-gender-diversity-and-stem-pathways-crucial-for-big-oil/#6b2d12ae5256

(or lack thereof) may explain why DM programs often struggle to achieve their goals. Organizations should consider authenticity in every diversity and inclusion policy and practice. Talent management and employee analytics professionals may consider using a modified version of the perceived organizational authenticity scale when piloting or assessing the effectiveness of new initiatives. This is not the first research to suggest that authenticity may be necessary for effective diversity management (Lindsey et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2012). As such, it should be a central consideration for all professionals interested not only in leveraging diversity for business outcomes, but also in creating a more equal and positive work environment for non-majority employees.

Going even further, Studies 4 and 5 answer Windscheid and colleagues' (2016) call by offering a clear, practical step organizations can take to better convey their authenticity to employees. No matter how sincere an organization's motives, decades of inequality has left employees cynical toward diversity and inclusion. The intervention developed and tested in Chapter 4 offers a simple, yet theoretically grounded solution for organizations. By drawing on research on two-sided messaging (Crowley & Hoyer, 1994; Eisend, 2006) and hypocrisy (Jordan et al., 2017; Valdesolo & DeSteno, 2008), a straightforward messaging intervention is demonstrated to increase perceptions of authenticity among employees. The manipulation presented a company that was not yet very diverse but expressed a genuine commitment to valuing diversity; this could be any of thousands of companies around the world. As such, the finding that one additional sentence had such a large effect on perceived authenticity, which in turn increased commitment and identification, has clear practical relevance. Organizations that can relate to the description above should consider immediately including similar two-sided messages on their website and other communications.

It is worth noting, a cynic might criticize this research as offering a tool for disingenuous organizations to "trick" their employees into believing their diversity efforts are

in good faith. Fair enough, but while I am loath to support such immoral antics, it is difficult to see the downside from a utilitarian perspective. If perceived authenticity is necessary for diversity management to be successful, and one of the goals of diversity management is to improve the well being of diverse employees, then those employees still stand to benefit regardless of the organization's true motives. Further, we know that effective diversity management can signal employer attractiveness (Richard & Kirby, 1999; Windscheid et al., 2016), so it could also mean more job opportunities for diverse individuals. Contact theory (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006) tells us that intergroup contact can reduce prejudice between groups. As such, even if an organization's motives were not sincere to start, increased employee diversity could decrease intergroup prejudice over time.

Finally, organizations should not discount the consistently large positive effect that demographic representativeness has on commitment, identification, and perceptions of organizational authenticity. It has been said time and again throughout this thesis, but the best possible advice one can give to an organization regarding diversity is to "walk the walk". Countless studies (e.g., Harjoto et al., 2015; Lindsey et al., 2017; Miller & Triana, 2009; Windscheid et al., 2016), including this one, have demonstrated that the observable demographic diversity of employees is an important signal to those inside and outside the organization. Organizations should relentlessly strive to recruit from diverse sources, ensure top managers and board members are diverse, and ensure women, LGBT individuals, and other minority groups have specific career development and planned progression programs available to them.

6.6 Directions for Future Research

While a strength of this research is the actionable findings from an applied perspective, the empirical results and theoretical integration of previously unconnected topics

also offer some promising directions for future research. First, I found some inconsistent evidence that employee gender may play a role in the relationship between DM values and practices and perceived authenticity. Previous research has consistently found that different demographic groups respond differently to various diversity practices (e.g., McKay et al., 2007; Mor Barak & Levin, 2002; Olsen & Martins, 2016; Simons et al., 2007). As such, future research should investigate more thoroughly how different demographic characteristics (gender, ethnicity, religion, age, sexual orientation, etc.) effect the relationship between diversity management and organizational authenticity. Further, different combinations of demographic diversity at different levels of the organization should be explored. For example, Windscheid et al. (2016) found a similar mixed message effect using board gender composition.

Perceived organizational authenticity (i.e., organizational-level behavioral integrity) is an underexplored construct more broadly in management research. This adds to the growing body of work that positions it as an important explanatory variable in organizational settings (e.g., Leroy et al., 2012; Lindsey et al., 2017; Windscheid et al., 2016). Lehman et al. (2019) open their recent review of authenticity in management research bluntly, with the statement, "Authenticity is in high demand." One principal conceptualization of authenticity is as a *consistency* between an entity's values and expressions (Cording et al., 2014; Lehman et al., 2019). As such, my adaptation of behavioral integrity to the organizational level and integration with Cording and colleagues' (2014) framework offers a useful approach to future organizational research on varied topics. In addition to diversity management, this approach could be beneficial in the study of climate and culture more broadly, organizational change, talent management, and generally any organization-level action that may be perceived as either authentic or inauthentic by employees.

On a related note, the novel usage of signaling theory and two-sided messaging in an employee-focused intervention should be researched more broadly in organizations. Research has previously touched on similar approaches (i.e., Avery & McKay's (2006) "defensive impression management"), but none has gone so far as to integrate marketing and consumer behavior research on two-sided messaging. Further, Jordan and colleagues' (2017) investigation of false signaling greatly informed the intervention tested in Studies 4 and 5, and given its positive outcomes, similar interventions should be developed and tested in different areas of organizational research.

Speaking of said intervention, further research should also explore how a similar approach may be used by leaders and managers at the unit level in managing diversity. While the intervention demonstrated large experimental effects, a corporate diversity website may not be everyday viewing for a typical employee, limiting its salience. In practice, most diversity management is implemented at the unit level by managers. As such, research should explore whether leaders can be trained to deliver similar two-sided messages, and whether they would have a similar positive effect on employee attitudes. A longitudinal, field experiment at the unit level in an organization would be an ideal methodology to test such an intervention, which may well be a very effective way to improve diversity management outcomes in practice.

6.7 Conclusion

The proportion of women and non-majority group individuals participating in the workforce around much of the world is at an all-time high. However, after the rapid gains of previous decades, there is mounting evidence that backlash effects and cynicism toward diversity and inclusion are increasing (Archimi et al., 2018; Kalev et al., 2006; Shaughnessy et al., 2016; Thomas, 2012). This thesis sought to address this pressing issue by focusing on

two critical gaps in the literature: (1) What combination of diversity management values and practices results in negative attitudinal reactions among employees, and (2) What is the underlying mechanism that explains this relationship?

Across five experimental studies and one field study, the results demonstrated compelling evidence that perceived organizational authenticity explained the relationship between organizational diversity practices and relevant employee attitudes. If organizations approach diversity management as a tool to achieve both better business outcomes and better personal outcomes for their diverse employees, these findings show that consistency between their espoused values and realized practices — organizational authenticity — should be of primary concern. To directly address this, an intervention was also tested and demonstrated to be effective, which offers organizations determined to improve the efficacy of their diversity management a useful tool with which to do so.

In summary, this thesis advances a valuable model for understanding the effectiveness of diversity policies and practices in organizations. This is supported with empirical data from both the laboratory and the field. It offers organizations and researchers alike a compelling new direction from which to approach diversity management.

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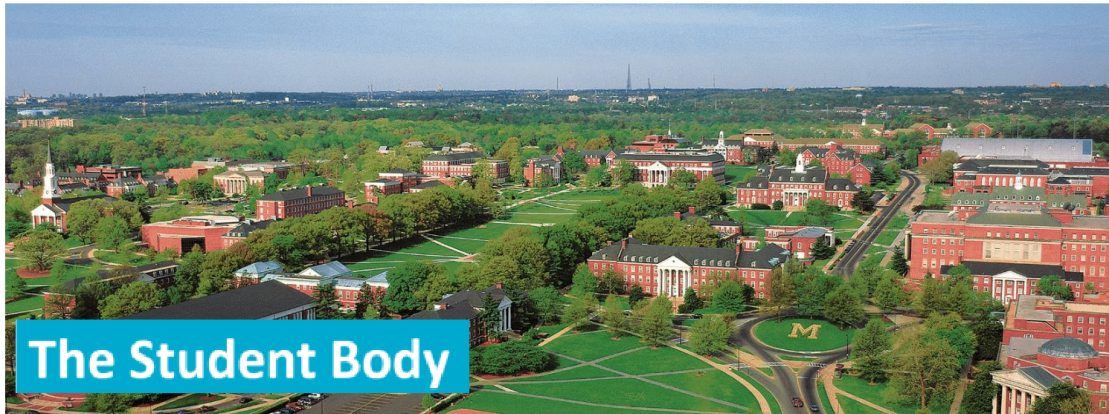
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APPENDIX

Appendix A

Experimental Manipulations:

The Student Body

| Overview | Key terms and populations | Objectives and initiatives | External links | Contact Us |

Glenmore University is committed to enabling students, whatever their background, to develop as critical, reflective learners who will make a difference in the global workforce. The university strongly believes in taking steps to maintain a faculty and student body that reflect the diversity of the population. By utilising programs such as targeted recruitment and hiring quotas for minority and underrepresented populations, we ensure that the University is a diverse place to work and study.

Glenmore strives to be accepting of the diversity of our staff and students

Our Equality and Diversity Policies Aim to Ensure:

- A commitment to accepting the diversity of our faculty and staff

- That we meet or exceed all legal guidelines for diversity on campus

Study 1-4, Terminal

The Student Body

Glenmore University is committed to enabling students, whatever their backgrounds, to develop as critical, reflective learners who will make a difference in the global workforce. The university strongly believes that a diverse faculty and student body leads to better discussions, decisions, and outcomes for everyone involved. A diverse faculty and student body is a source of strength that underpins the exchange of ideas, innovation, and debate at the heart of our academic mission.

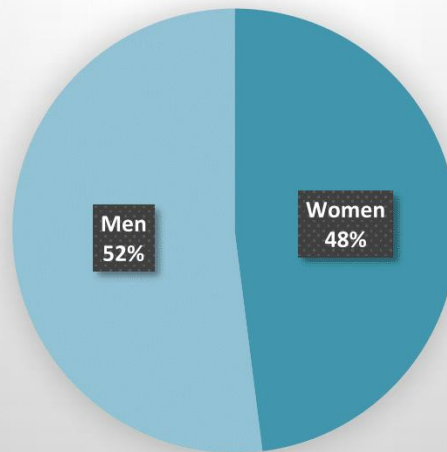## Glenmore strives to celebrate the diversity of our staff and students

Our Equality and Diversity Policies Aim to Ensure:

- A commitment to embracing the diversity of our faculty and staff

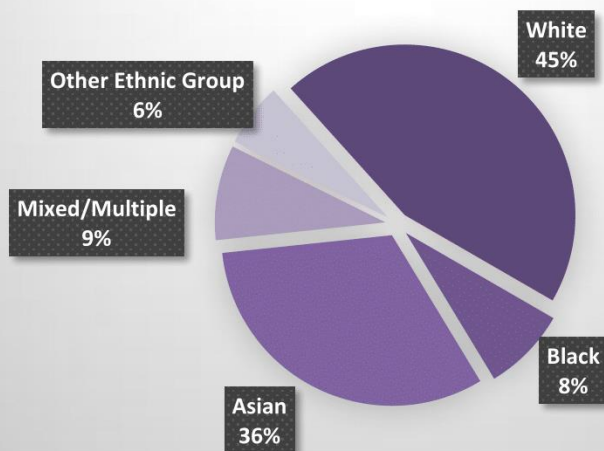- That our students and staff achieve the maximum benefits from the diversity on campus
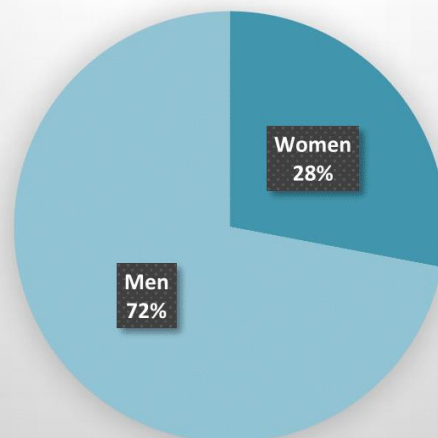
Study 1-4, Instrumental

Study 1-4, high demographic representativeness
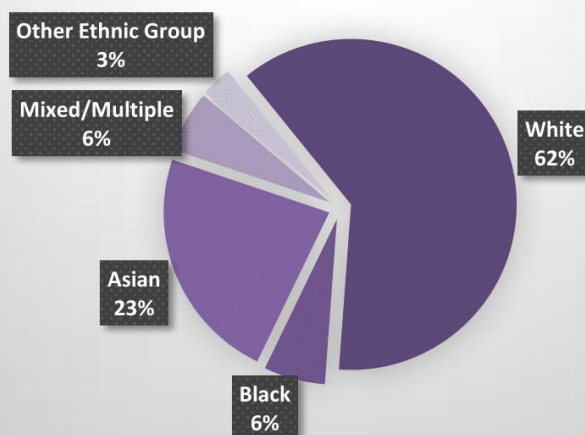
Study 1-4, low demographic representativeness

The Student Body

| Overview | Key terms and populations | Objectives and initiatives | External links | Contact Us |

Glenmore University is committed to enabling students, whatever their backgrounds, to develop as critical, reflective learners who will make a difference in the global workforce. The university strongly believes that a diverse faculty and student body leads to better discussions, decisions, and outcomes for everyone involved. A diverse faculty and student body is a source of strength that underpins the exchange of ideas, innovation, and debate at the heart of our academic mission.

We are open in acknowledging that our faculty and staff are not yet as diverse as we would like. Still, Glenmore strives to celebrate the diversity of our staff and students.

Our Equality and Diversity Policies Aim to Ensure:

- A commitment to embracing the diversity of our faculty and staff

- That our students and staff achieve the maximum benefits from the diversity on campus

Study 4, honest hypocrite condition

Waypoint Corporation

| *Our Mission* | *Inclusion* | *Facts & Figures* | *Diversity Partners* | *Our Stories* |

Waypoint is committed to enabling our employees, whatever their backgrounds, to develop as critical, reflective professionals who will make a difference in the global workforce. We strongly believe in taking steps to maintain a faculty and student body that reflect the diversity of the population. By utilising programs such as targeted recruitment and hiring quotas for minority and underrepresented populations, we ensure that the University is a diverse place to work and study.

Waypoint strives to be accepting of the diversity of our employees

Our Equality and Diversity Policies Aim to Ensure:

- A commitment to accepting the diversity of our staff

- That we meet or exceed all legal guidelines for employer diversity

Study 5, terminal condition

Waypoint Corporation

Our Mission	*Inclusion*	*Facts & Figures*	*Diversity Partners*	*Our Stories*

Waypoint is committed to enabling our employees, whatever their backgrounds, to develop as critical, reflective professionals who will make a difference in the global workforce. We strongly believe that diversity among our employees leads to better discussions, decisions, and outcomes for everyone involved. A diverse workforce is a source of strength that underpins the exchange of ideas, innovation, and debate at the heart of our strategic mission.

We are open in acknowledging that our workforce is not yet as diverse as we would like. Still, Waypoint strives to celebrate the diversity of our employees.

Our Equality and Diversity Policies Aim to Ensure:

- A commitment to embracing the diversity of our staff

- That our employees achieve the maximum benefits from the diversity within our organisation

Study 5, honest hypocrite condition

Waypoint Corporation

Our Mission | *Inclusion* | *Facts & Figures* | *Diversity Partners* | *Our Stories*

Waypoint is committed to enabling our employees, whatever their backgrounds, to develop as critical, reflective professionals who will make a difference in the global workforce. We strongly believe that diversity among our employees leads to better discussions, decisions, and outcomes for everyone involved. A diverse workforce is a source of strength that underpins the exchange of ideas, innovation, and debate at the heart of our strategic mission.

Waypoint strives to celebrate the diversity of our employees.

Our Equality and Diversity Policies Aim to Ensure:

- A commitment to embracing the diversity of our staff

- That our employees achieve the maximum benefits from the diversity within our organisation

Study 5, instrumental condition

Appendix B

List of Scales:

Diversity Beliefs (van Dick, R., Van Knippenberg, D., Hägele, S., Guillaume, Y. R., & Brodbeck. 2008)**.** 7-item Likert scale ranging from "totally not applicable" to "completely applicable"

1. I think that groups benefit from the involvement of people from different backgrounds (different age, gender, race/ethnicity, education, tenure, marital status, functional background).

2. Creating groups that contain people from different backgrounds can be a recipe for trouble.

3. I think that groups should contain people with similar backgrounds

4. A good mix of group members' backgrounds helps doing the task well.

Diversity Climate (McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007). 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "Strongly Disagree" to 7 = "Strongly Agree"

I feel that this organization …

1. Recruits from diverse sources.

2. Offers equal access to training.

3. Communicates openly and honestly about diversity.

4. Publicizes its diversity principles.

5. Respects the perspectives of people like me.

6. Maintains a diversity-friendly work environment.

7. Has a climate that values diverse perspectives.

Perceived Organizational Authenticity (Behavioral Integrity) (Simons, Friedman, Lie, & McLean Parks, 2007). 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "Strongly Disagree" to 7 = "Strongly Agree"

1. There is a match between the University's words and actions.
2. The University practices what it preaches.
3. The University does what it says it will do.
4. The University conducts itself by the same values it talks about.
5. The University shows the same priorities that it describes.

Organizational Affective Commitment (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "Strongly Disagree" to 7 = "Strongly Agree"

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my time as a student at this organization
2. I really feel as if this university's problems are my own
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to this university
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this university
5. I would feel like "part of the family" at this university

Organizational Identification (Smidts, Pruyn, & van Riel, 2001). 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "Strongly Disagree" to 7 = "Strongly Agree"

1. I feel strong ties with this university
2. I experience a strong sense of belonging to this university
3. I feel proud to work for this university
4. I am sufficiently acknowledged in this university
5. I am glad to be a member of this university