LINKING DIVERSITY CLIMATE AND FEEDBACK SEEKING THROUGH INTERPERSONAL PROCESSES AND RACE EFFECTS

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LINKING DIVERSITY CLIMATE AND FEEDBACK SEEKING

THROUGH INTERPERSONAL PROCESSES AND RACE EFFECTS

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Dissertation

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ABSTRACT

Diversity in the workplace is an increasingly important topic, and a supportive diversity climate is a key component of ensuring equity as well as harnessing the benefits of diversity for organizational success. Prior research on diversity climate has focused on a narrow set of outcomes, while conceptual models suggest links with interpersonal processes such as feedback. The present study investigated the relationships between organizational diversity climate and trust in one's supervisor, feedback sought from one's supervisor, job satisfaction, and work stress. Employees of color in particular may benefit from a work environment signaling support of diversity, and thus the role of race was examined in the present study by testing the hypothesized effects as conditional on race in a sample with White and Black employees. Race was further examined by considering the moderating effects of racial identity, supervisor racial similarity, and the interaction of the two within the Black group. A sample of 157 White and 101 Black employees working over 24 hours per week participated in the study via a two-part online survey. Study results indicated some support for the hypothesized relationships, but relationships were weaker or nonsignificant in the Black group, contrary to expectations. Specifically, diversity climate was positively related to trust in one's supervisor, job satisfaction, and negatively related to work stress. Diversity climate was positively related to a more direct form of feedback seeking in the White group, and an indirect form of feedback seeking in the Black group. These results suggest that while some positive outcomes are associated

with diversity climate, more deeply embedded inclusion efforts may be necessary for employees of color to experience those benefits.

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Diversity Climate

In recent years, the topic of diversity in the workplace has received significant and growing attention (Proudford & Nkomo, 2006). Along with this growing popularity, when expected benefits of diversity for organizational outcomes were not consistently demonstrated, researchers turned their focus to diversity climate as a determinant of whether organizations could better reap the benefits of demographic difference in the workplace. The Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity (IMCD; Cox, 1994) describes diversity climate as employees' perceptions that an organization utilizes fair practices and socially integrates underrepresented groups into the work environment. This is composed of individual level factors such as prejudice and stereotyping, group/intergroup factors such as cultural differences, and organizational-level factors such as institutional bias in human resource systems. The IMCD proposes that diversity climate affects individual career outcomes, in terms of both affective outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational identification, job involvement) and achievement outcomes (e.g., job performance ratings, compensation), and ultimately the effects on individual careers provide cumulative effects that result in positive outcomes for the organization.

The benefits of a favorable diversity climate are theorized to affect everyone in an organization, although this is particularly relevant to underprivileged groups who are faced with different forms of inequality in their work lives. Race is a critically important consideration, as this social category and grouping is strongly associated with power in organizations (i.e., representation at different hierarchical levels varies as a function of race). Thus, the positive effects of a favorable diversity climate are expected to be stronger for those in underrepresented groups, such as people of color, as shown in several studies comparing the perceptions of Black and White employees (Cox, 1994). For instance, one study by McKay and colleagues (2007) surveyed the attitudes of managerial retail managers, and found the relationship between diversity climate and turnover intentions was more strongly negative for Black managers compared to White managers. Other studies have found racial discrepancies disfavoring employees of color in absenteeism (Avery et al., 2007) and sales performance (McKay et al., 2008) to be reduced in organizations with more favorable diversity climates.

Conditional Diversity Climate Effects Based on Race

The current study sets out to understand how diversity climate relates to the performance management (PM) process, as this has not yet been studied. Because the complexity of diversity climate effects is likely linked with racial group membership, this study collected data from a diverse sample in order to compare the perceptions of White and Black employees, beginning by testing whether the effects of diversity climate are stronger for Black employees. The effects of diversity climate on trust, feedback seeking, and subsequent job attitudes are hypothesized to be moderated by

race such that they would be stronger for Black employees compared with White employees, as Black employees experience unique challenges that should be mitigated by a favorable diversity climate.

There is a need not only to consider race categorically, but to also examine it at a deep level; race theorists note that categorical distinctions do not capture the complexity of race, as people within a category do not necessarily share the same experience (Rockquemore, Brunsma, & Delgado, 2009). Therefore, racial identity is pertinent to understanding how race affects the relationship between diversity climate and the outcomes described. Specifically, it was hypothesized that Black employees would be expected to reap the benefits of diversity climate more than White employees, but that this effect would be qualified by racial identity such that Black employees high in racial identity would show the strongest relationship, while diversity climate may not be as important or beneficial for those low in racial identity.

For Black employees in particular, the race of the supervisor may be another important factor. Per attraction-similarity theory, similarity in values, beliefs, and experiences results in interpersonal attraction and liking. Relational demography research finds that racially similar dyads are more comfortable and trusting of one another, facilitating a stronger relationship and higher perceptions of support (Jeanquart-Barone, 1996; Tsui & Gutek, 1999). This suggests diversity climate would have a stronger role in affecting perceptions of one's supervisor for Black employees in racially dissimilar dyads, who experience interpersonal challenges building trust compared to their racially similar counterparts. Thus, it is hypothesized that racial

similarity will have a moderating effect on the relationship between diversity climate and outcomes, such that the effects are stronger in dissimilar dyads.

In the present study, I will also explore whether racial similarity and racial identity interact in examining the effects of diversity climate for Black subordinates. Specifically, Black subordinates high in racial identity with a non-Black supervisor are expected to be in the most unfavorable context (i.e., attuned to racial cues, high attribution uncertainty) and therefore are hypothesized to have the strongest relationship between diversity climate and subsequent outcomes.

In summary, the present study examines complex relationships, that are conditional based on race, between diversity climate and outcomes of trust perceptions, feedback-seeking behavior, job satisfaction, and work stress, which I also hypothesize will fit together in a serial mediation framework.

Diversity Climate and Trust

An organization with a favorable diversity climate results in employee expectations that individuals will be treated fairly, regardless of demographic differences. Social information processing theory states that individuals' perceptions of supervisors are influenced by characteristics of the organizational environment (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). In line with this theory, an organization with a favorable diversity climate, promoting organizational values of fair and equal treatment, can influence individuals' perceptions of their supervisor, who serves as a more proximal representation of those values.

Trust in one's supervisor is a crucial factor in the supervisor-subordinate relationship and plays a role in influencing work interactions and work attitudes

(Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007). Trust is characterized by perceptions of supervisor benevolence, defined as the desire to do good and help their subordinates, and integrity, defined as the extent to which the supervisor's actions are congruent with their words and show adherence to an acceptable set of principles; these are clearly in line with the ideals in a favorable diversity climate (Mayer et al., 1995; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). More specifically, three distinct but related aspects of trust are specified: subordinates with trust in supervisors are likely to think they possess considerable expertise (cognition-based trust), feel comfortable approaching supervisors without concern that it will hurt their image (affective-based trust), and consider them knowledgeable and credible sources of feedback (source credibility).

As described previously, the effects of diversity climate are complex and conditional on race. With the focus on Black and White subordinates, I hypothesize that the relationship between diversity climate and trust would be more strongly positive for Black subordinates, who react more strongly to organizational cues promoting diversity and how those transfer to supervisor perceptions. Two additional relevant aspects of race for Black subordinates are the degree to which they identify with their race, and whether their supervisor is racially similar to them, both of which are expected to amplify the expected relationships.

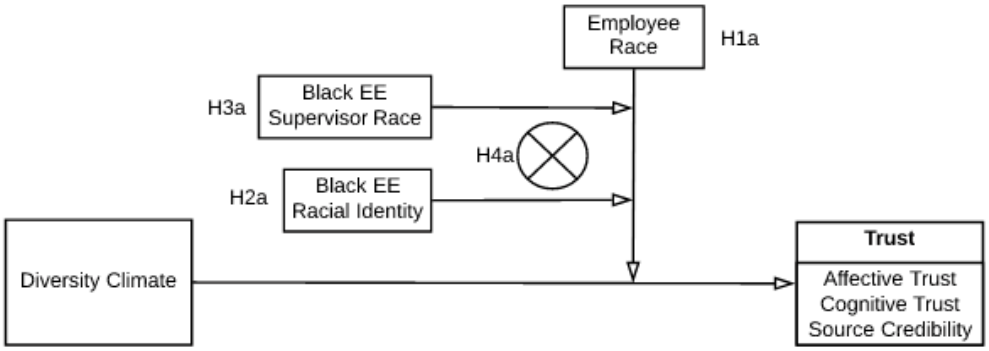


Figure 1.1. Conditional relationship between diversity climate and trust

Diversity Climate and Feedback-Seeking Behavior

Feedback, defined as information about one's performance that can direct and motivate behavior, plays an important role in individuals' experience in the workplace (Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979). Seeking and using feedback, an important performance management activity, supports job performance and development (Aguinis, 2013). Conventional wisdom based on the extant feedback literature suggests that when organizations foster an environment that encourages feedback seeking, and when supervisors provide quality positive and negative feedback that is credible, employees are likely to seek valued feedback (Steelman, Levy, & Snell, 2004). However, there has been a lack of attention to the distal antecedents that relate to feedback seeking, such as climate factors.

The IMCD suggests an important antecedent to consider: diversity climate. The IMCD proposes that diversity climate plays an important role in the processing of feedback, meaning it may also be an important antecedent facilitating or inhibiting feedback-seeking behavior. Specifically, the IMCD stresses that people of color who tend to work within predominantly White workplaces experience challenges due to attribution uncertainty (Cox, 1994), referring to added complexity in determining the causes of events. For example, individuals actively seek negative feedback (particularly those with high receptivity to feedback and in organizations with favorable feedback environments) and use it to understand and improve their performance, which is related to positive work evaluations (Ashford & Tsui, 1991). However, attribution uncertainty experienced by people of color can manifest in less effective processing of feedback when received, such as questioning whether the

feedback is due to prejudice, whether improved performance will lead to desired outcomes, and confusion as to how to use the feedback to change behavior. Experiencing such uncertainty can affect future feedback seeking and can be detrimental to feedback acceptance and performance. While no studies to date have explored whether favorable diversity climate perceptions relate to the frequency of feedback seeking, I argue this relationship is in line with the IMCD model.

While the relationship between diversity climate and feedback seeking has not yet been studied, it is alluded to within the feedback-seeking literature. Ashford, Blatt, and VandeWalle (2003) presented a review of the antecedents, types, and outcomes of feedback seeking. Antecedents include motives for seeking as well as contextual factors. Focusing on the context, researchers have noted a need to examine the social context in which PM takes place (Levy & Williams, 2004; Levy, Cavanaugh, Frantz, Borden, & Roberts, 2018). Diversity climate is an important component of that social context and would be considered a distal variable per Levy and Williams's model, impacting behavior (e.g., feedback seeking) through more proximal process variables (e.g., trust, supervisor-subordinate relationship). The current study will examine this, with regard to the frequency of employees' feedback-seeking behavior from their direct supervisor.

An important caveat of the prior discussion is that inherent in the diversity climate literature is the proposition that effects would differ based on race because cues of organizational diversity climate are more salient and important to those that are part of underrepresented groups. In this case, it is hypothesized that the relationship between diversity climate and feedback-seeking behavior will be more

strongly positive for Black employees compared to White employees. Additional moderators that qualify the influence of race for Black employees (racial identity and supervisor racial similarity) will also be examined.

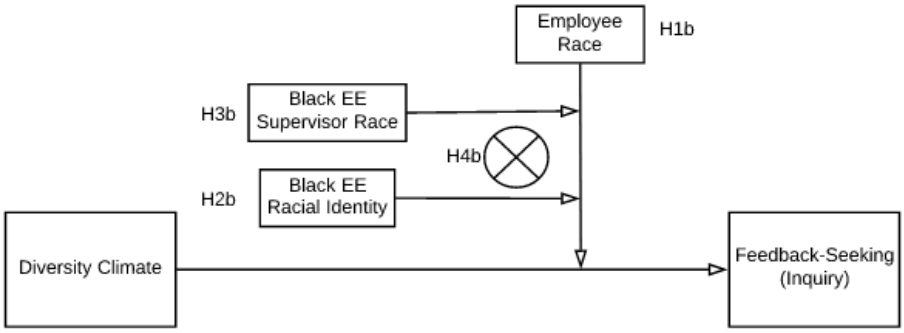


Figure 1.2. Conditional relationship between diversity climate and feedback-seeking

Diversity Climate and Attitudinal Outcomes

Finally, the effects of diversity climate are best exemplified by two attitudinal outcomes: job satisfaction and work stress. Job satisfaction and work stress have previously been demonstrated as important outcomes in both feedback seeking and diversity climate research. Further, these would be considered positive outcomes of a favorable diversity climate for any employee, but are especially of interest when considering equality and existing race differences, because previous research suggests Black employees may experience higher stress and lower job satisfaction (Moch, 1980; Wadsworth, Dhillon, Shaw, Bhui, Stansfeld, & Smith, 2006).

Diversity climate has been theoretically linked to favorable work attitudes such as job satisfaction, using the paradigm of social identity theory (Hofhuis, van der Zee, & Otten, 2012). Social identity theory would support the notion that a favorable diversity climate affirms the identities of employees of color and allows them to identify with organizations that they perceive as working to mitigate bias toward them, which has positive affective outcomes such as job satisfaction. The relationship

between diversity climate and well-being outcomes such as work stress has been examined within conservation of resources (COR) theory (Newman, Nielsen, Smyth, Hirst, & Kennedy, 2018). Specifically, a favorable diversity climate builds psychological capital and allows individuals to be more resilient and more effectively utilize feedback, which replenishes resources, resulting in lower work stress.

Once again, it is important to note that the effect of diversity climate as it is specified is conditional based on race such that the relationship between diversity climate and job satisfaction should be more strongly positive for Black employees compared to White employees. Likewise, the relationship between diversity climate and work stress was expected to be more strongly negative for Black employees. Additional moderators that qualify the nature of the influence of race for Black employees (racial identity and supervisor racial similarity) are also examined.

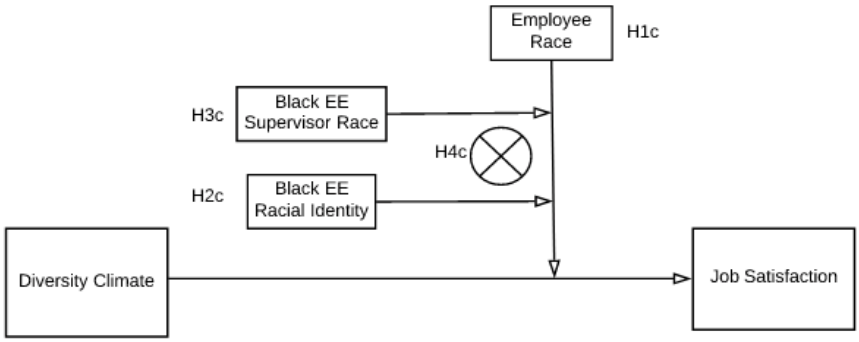


Figure 1.3. Conditional relationship between diversity climate and job satisfaction

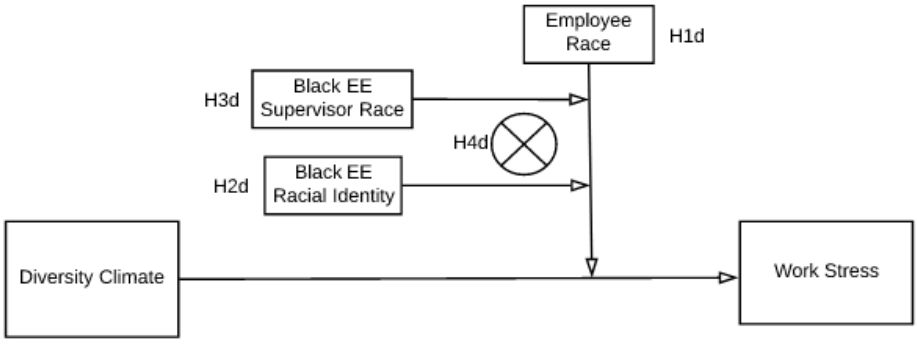


Figure 1.4. Conditional relationship between diversity climate and work stress

Serially Mediated Effect of Diversity Climate

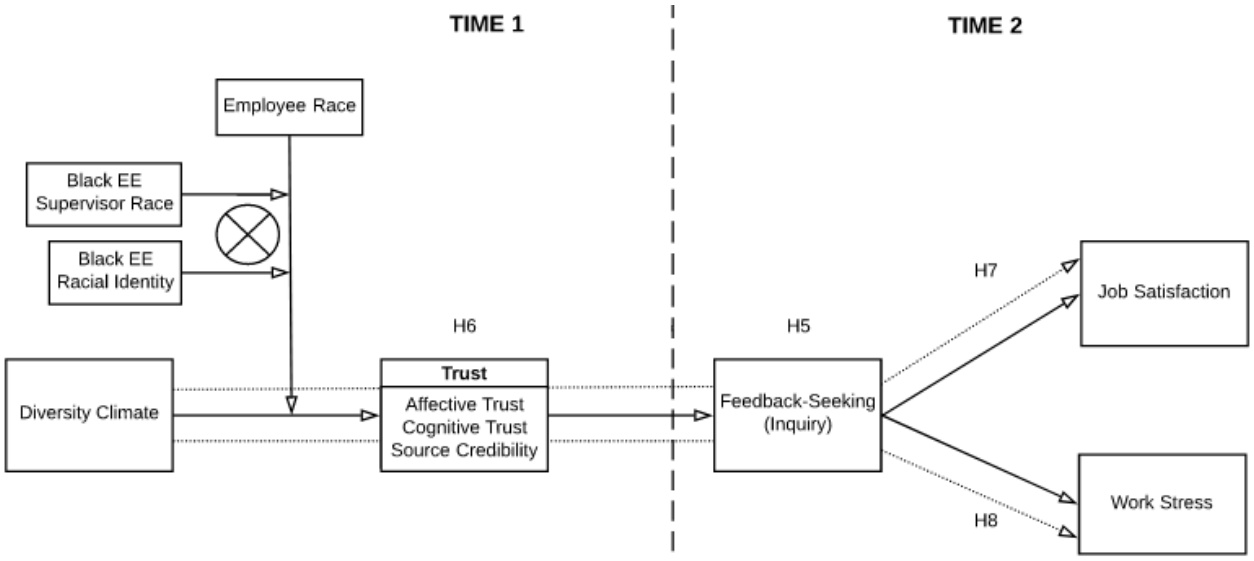
Thus far, the relationship between diversity climate and trust, feedback seeking, job satisfaction, and work stress have been discussed as distinct. However, I also hypothesize that they will be linked in a conditional mediation framework (see Figure 1.5). Essentially, the model proposes that diversity climate perceptions relate to perceptions of trust in one's supervisor, which then facilitate more frequent feedback-seeking behavior toward one's supervisor, resulting in more favorable job attitudes.

The effects of diversity climate, a distal organizational variable, on feedback-seeking behavior, are expected to operate through an impact on more proximal attitudes. Trust and source credibility are key components of the interpersonal interactions involved in feedback seeking, and are conceptualized as explanatory mechanisms in the present study. The development of trust and perceptions of credibility should mitigate the feeling of attribution uncertainty that employees of color struggle with, and they may feel more comfortable freely seeking feedback in a way that leads to positive work outcomes.

Feedback seeking was also conceptualized as an important mediator because this behavior allows employees to gain clarity over their roles and expectations, facilitating performance improvement and positive feelings toward one's job. Indeed, a recent meta-analysis confirms this positive relationship (Anseel et al., 2015). Importantly, increased role clarity and reduction of uncertainty gained through feedback seeking also impacts employee well-being, and studies demonstrate a link between feedback and work stress (Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Moregson, 2007; Sparr

& Sonnentag, 2007). Thus, I expect feedback seeking to relate to the outcomes of job satisfaction and work stress as a function of how the effects of diversity climate operate.

In summary, the outlined effects of diversity climate are hypothesized based on rationale developed using IMCD propositions in combination with several theoretical perspectives such as social identity theory and conservation of resources theory. In the following sections, this model in which diversity climate is expected to impact feedback seeking through its impact on trust and perceptions of source credibility, as well as its subsequent impact on work stress and job satisfaction, is explained in greater depth. Once again, Figure 1.5 summarizes the overall proposed model; additionally, Table 2.1 lists the study hypotheses.



Notes: Vertical dotted line distinguishes variables measured at time 1 and time 2; H5 refers to the hypothesized mediation of feedback seeking in the relationship between diversity climate and each outcome variable; H6 refers to the hypothesized mediation of trust in the relationship between diversity climate and feedback seeking. H7 and H8, corresponding to the dotted lines, refer to serially mediated relationships that are hypothesized.

Figure 1.5. Visual depiction of the proposed model.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Diversity Climate

To highlight the importance of diversity climate in the present study, I will provide a brief history of the development of the construct followed by the common current definition and conceptual model of the effects of diversity climate. Then, I will summarize the main empirical findings on diversity climate and important research questions, which will lead into the proposed model.

Origins of Diversity Climate Research

An analysis of population trends and projections indicates the U.S. workforce is becoming increasingly diverse, with people of color and White women assuming an increased presence in the labor market (Toossi, 2012). Specifically, data show the racial distribution in the labor force is projected to be less White in the future (79.4% in 2020, compared with 85.4% in 1990), and show higher proportions of underrepresented racial and ethnic groups such as Black workers (12% in 2020 compared with 10.9% in 1990) and Hispanic workers (18.6% in 2020 compared with 8.5% in 1990; Toossi, 2012).

In response to this, scholars have sought to demonstrate the benefits of a diverse workforce for valued organizational outcomes (i.e., the business case for

diversity; Herring, 2009). *Diversity*, the representation of different social categories in a unit, is proposed to create competitive advantage for organizations in several ways. The information processing perspective argues that positive outcomes of diversity are a result of effective, creative problem solving facilitated from the combination of different points of view. Diverse teams made up of members with different areas of expertise would be expected to search more broadly for information, consider alternate solutions, and engage in more debate before coming to decisions (Jackson, 1992; Jackson & Joshi, 2011). The value-in-diversity hypothesis suggests diversity results in greater creativity due to group dynamics including less emphasis on conformity and better problem solving because of a wide range of perspectives, and organizational system flexibility in that multicultural models are less standardized and more fluid and adaptable. Taken together, these aspects result in improved overall organizational performance (Cox & Blake, 1991).

Certain perspectives are more critical of the inherent value in diversity, highlighting potential costs in terms of higher conflict and lower group cohesion (Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). Overall, empirical investigations on the outcomes of diversity have shown mixed results; a meta-analysis of field studies on work team diversity showed very small, but negative, effect sizes for facets of race and gender diversity on performance outcomes (Joshi & Roh, 2009). Taken in isolation, this might mean that diversity matters little if at all, but effect sizes increased significantly when contextual moderators were included such as racial and gender representation in the occupation as a whole. Representation in occupations is proposed as a situational factor that can enhance the effects of diversity. Occupations with low representation

of women may reveal more salient gender stereotypes because roles within the work environment reinforce power differences favoring men and attributing negative characteristics to women (Joshi & Roh, 2009). This may explain why stronger negative effect sizes would be seen for the effect of diversity on performance in occupations with low representation.

Because results were not as straightforward as anticipated, the focus was redirected from outcomes of diversity in-and-of-itself to examining the contextual factors that allow organizations to reap the benefits of diverse work environments (McKay & Avery, 2015). This focus on managing diversity has resulted in an emerging literature on *diversity climate*, defined as the extent to which employees view their work environment as fair and socially inclusive of all personnel (McKay, Avery, & Morris, 2008). Work on this construct argues that it is not enough to have a diverse work environment, diversity also should be a valued component of organizational functioning. In support of this, one empirical investigation found the relationship between racial diversity (measured with an index of organizational heterogeneity based on aggregate race scores) and organizational outcomes (i.e., productivity, return on income) was conditional on the diversity climate, such that it was negative in adverse diversity climates but positive in supportive diversity climates (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009).

It is important to note that diversity can refer to the composition of social units in terms of different attributes that range in type (relationship-oriented such as values or task-oriented such as education), and visibility (readily-detected such as race or underlying such as sexual identity; Jackson & Joshi, 2011). Most of the work on

diversity climate focuses on the more salient characteristics of race and gender for which a larger established body of work exists, but the implication of work thus far is that a supportive diversity climate provides benefits for the entire organization, especially those whose identities are underrepresented in the workforce.

The construct of diversity climate grew out of theories on workplace climates in general. Before getting further into detail on climate theories, an important distinction to make is between workplace climate and culture because the two terms are related conceptually and are even sometimes used interchangeably (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2012). Culture is a more abstract concept of organizational beliefs and ideologies which are transmitted through language, narratives, and practices, especially during socialization of new employees. On the other hand, climate is more specific, referring to procedures, practices, and behaviors that are expected and supported at work, and the meaning those imply for employees (Schneider et al., 2012). Thus, culture is thought to manifest itself through climate, and climate is usually further specified based on the referent (e.g., climate for safety, climate for diversity). The proposed study focuses on perceptions of diversity climate, although this certainly exists in the context of a broader organizational culture.

A foundational study of workplace climate was conducted by Ostroff (1993), who argued that most organizational research had either focused on environmental or personal determinants of individual outcomes, and that there was a need to investigate the influence of both as well as their interaction in predicting outcomes. The environment is represented by the *organizational climate*, defined as shared perceptions of certain features of the work setting, consisting of affective, cognitive,

and instrumental components. Initial studies using the Ostroff taxonomy found that climate predicted work outcomes such as job satisfaction and stress, and had a stronger effect than personal characteristics, highlighting the powerful influence of the environment (Ostroff, 1993).

Organizational climate is theorized to relate to outcomes through its effect on *psychological climate*, which is based on an individual's perceptions of aspects of the work environment (Ostroff, 1993). Psychological climate has been defined by James, James, and Ashe (1990) as individuals' cognitive appraisals of environmental attributes in terms of their acquired meaning and significance to the individual. This is the same construct as organizational climate, but at the individual level of analysis; psychological climate is usually of interest when the focus is on the individual's subjective experience and when there may be variability in evaluations of organizational climate.

Conceptualization of Diversity Climate

The scholarship that developed around workplace climates broadly informed the development of the Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity (IMCD; Cox, 1994), which provided a foundational model (see Figure 2.1) for diversity climate. Diversity climate, or employees' perceptions that an organization utilizes fair practices and socially integrates underrepresented groups into the work environment, impacts organizational outcomes through a complex interaction of individuals and their environment (Cox, 1994). The model specifies different components that make up an organization's diversity climate, which are theorized to affect organizational outcomes through individual outcomes. The model emphasizes diversity based in

race, gender, and nationality, but it is meant to apply to many cultural identities. Outcomes of a favorable diversity climate can be seen for everyone in an organization, but stronger effects would be expected for those in underrepresented groups, such as people of color.

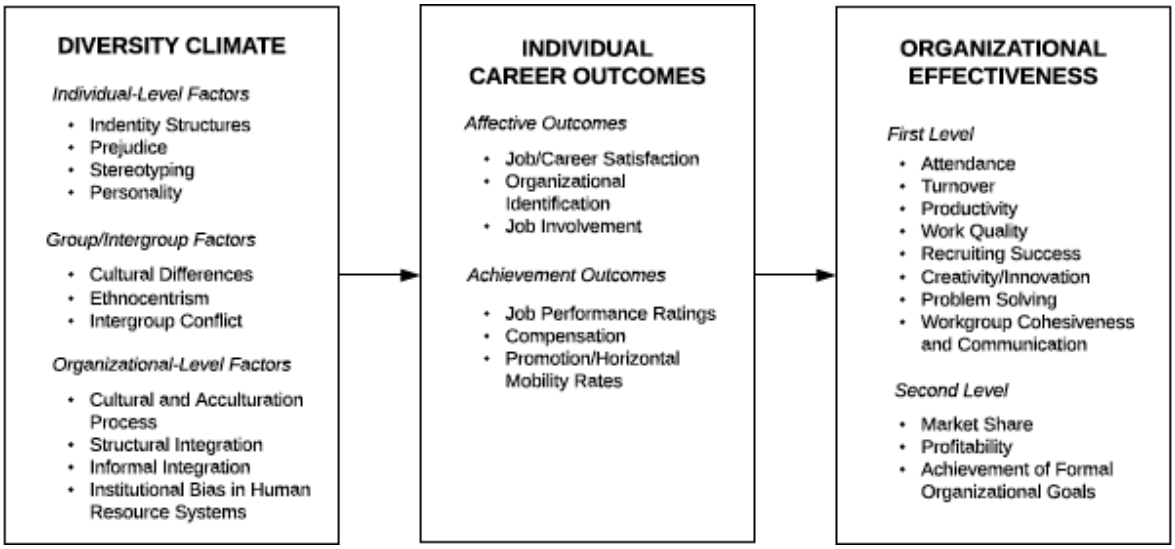


Figure 2.1. An interactional model of the impact of diversity on individual career outcomes and organizational effectiveness (IMCD; Cox, 1994).

Within the IMCD, diversity climate is composed of individual-level, group/intergroup-level, and organizational-level factors. Each of these aspects illuminates an important part of the experience for underrepresented groups at work. Individual factors (e.g., identity structures, prejudice, stereotyping) focus on the extent to which individuals encounter prejudice. Group factors (e.g., cultural differences, intergroup conflict) highlight the challenge of diversity in groups regarding conflict: for instance, differences in time orientation may result in a culture clash when a meeting is scheduled with different groups. Organization-level factors (e.g., informal integration, institutional bias in HR systems) refer to formal and informal firm-level considerations of diversity management. This is important because even if employees do not feel they are directly being stereotyped or face

conflict with a work team, they may still receive signals through informal channels that their group is undervalued if, for instance, they are not represented at high levels of the organization. Thus, research needs to examine all of what makes up a diversity climate, as opposed to just one factor (Cox, 1994).

The IMCD proposes that diversity climate affects individual career outcomes, which are categorized into affective (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational identification, job involvement) and achievement outcomes (e.g., job performance ratings, compensation). Ultimately, the impact on individual careers provide cumulative effects that result in first-level (e.g., attendance, problem-solving, cohesion) and second-level (e.g., market share, profitability) organizational outcomes (Cox, 1994). In addition to the described indirect effect of diversity climate, certain aspects of the climate also directly impact organizational performance; the amount of diversity present in organizational structures should directly impact organizational creativity and problem-solving (Cox, 1994). This is in line with the information sharing perspective on diversity and the value-in-diversity hypothesis (Jackson & Joshi, 2011).

The IMCD states that the influence of diversity climate on effectiveness operates through its effect on processing feedback, a crucial organizational process (Cox, 1994). These dynamics can be examined from both supervisor and subordinate perspectives. From the subordinate's perspective, in an unfavorable diversity climate, feedback given to an employee of color is met with interpretive confusion in that the recipient may believe the feedback message to be made up of a mixture of prejudice and realistic performance information, making it difficult to sort out how to interpret

and act upon it (Cox, 1994). However, in a favorable diversity climate, employees feel their identity is affirmed and valued by their organization, which results in more trust in feedback messages received, bolstering employees' job attitudes and facilitating them working effectively with more internalization of the firm's objectives.

On the other hand, from the supervisor's perspective, managers are often not skilled in giving developmental feedback; additionally, in a poor diversity climate, feedback is more likely to be influenced by group stereotypes. This can leave subordinates of color with less accurate and useful feedback, creating an informational disadvantage that can negatively impact their performance. Within a favorable diversity climate, however, it is more likely that individuals from various social groups have more equal access to relevant and useful feedback information. Clearly, feedback can play an important role in how perceptions of the organizational diversity climate impact personal outcomes.

Focusing on how diversity climate affects the experience of employees of color in particular, one of the main challenges in working within predominantly White workplaces is *attribution uncertainty* (Cox, 1994). This refers to added complexity in determining the causes of events. For instance, one might assume that when an employee receives negative feedback, if the individual is receptive to it and the organization promotes it, they will take the feedback at face value and work to improve in that area (London & Smither, 2002), and that they would believe achieving the desired level of performance will lead to desired outcomes (per expectancy theory; Vroom, 1964). However, people of color experience this

attribution uncertainty, which can manifest in doubts about whether the feedback is due to prejudice (an individual factor in the IMCD) or whether improved performance will lead to a deserved promotion (an organizational factor in the IMCD).

This essentially describes performance problems that arise from low levels of interpersonal trust that are typical for employees of color. Favorable diversity climates can foster improved attitudes about feedback from managers as well as better and less biased feedback, minimizing attribution uncertainty through increased trust. Overall, the IMCD suggests diversity climate may be especially important in understanding how employees of color process and utilize feedback to improve performance. In the present study, I expand on the IMCD propositions about processing of feedback, and hypothesize that diversity climate also affects feedback-seeking behavior.

Researchers have integrated the reasoning behind IMCD with social identity theory and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Tajfel & Turner, 1985) to explain how the effects of diversity climate occur. Organizations that value diversity will minimize identity threat, a feeling that one's social group is undervalued, which can arise from different experiences with prejudice and discrimination. This improved experience will enhance workers' general attitudes, and motivation to reciprocate effort toward the organization, which in turn will affect job attitudes and behaviors such as job performance and withdrawal, and will ultimately culminate in positive results for the organization's effectiveness. Also, people are motivated to advance interests of their social group and prefer contexts where their groups are treated well. This can explain why the benefits are more salient to employees of color compared to

White employees whose group treatment based on race is more favorable regardless of the diversity climate (Avery, McKay, & Wilson, 2008).

Empirical Work on Diversity Climate

Early Findings

Around the same time that the IMCD was introduced, Kossek and Zonia (1993) conducted an early empirical assessment on differences in diversity climate perceptions. This study focused on individual-level diversity climate perceptions in a sample of University faculty. Supporting their hypotheses, perceptions of several facets of diversity climate varied based on race and gender, such as employees of color and White women reporting higher value of employer efforts to enhance diversity, compared with White men who value diversity less and may resist such efforts in fear of losing their dominant status (Wells, 1990). As an extension of this work, Mor Barak, Cherin, and Berkman (1998) explored differences in perceptions of diversity climate based on group membership, which they expected based on social identity theory which suggests people are drawn to and support activities that are congruent with their own identity. This study utilized a slightly different conceptualization from the IMCD framework, distinguishing organizational (i.e., fairness and inclusion) and personal (i.e., diversity value, personal comfort) dimensions of diversity climate, which has been used in other studies since. They found White men, compared with men of color and women, perceived the organization as more fair and inclusive, saw lower value in diversity, and felt less personal comfort with diversity.

These initial studies examining individual-level diversity climate perceptions, or *psychological diversity climate*, were important in that they call into question the meaning of organizational diversity climate as shared perceptions at the group or organizational level of analysis. The idea of diversity climate refers to the organizational treatment of underrepresented groups, but it seems to be the case that those in positions of privilege may not accurately judge what others experience (Alderfer, 1982). In fact, recent work states that diversity climate as a construct may be a misnomer, since the label of climate implies that it is only meaningfully examined at the group level, which would require agreement on the perceptions for aggregation to be appropriate (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000; McKay & Avery, 2015). Instead, psychological and organizational climate have been described as compositional constructs in that they describe the same content but manifest in qualitatively different phenomena at different levels of analysis (Chan, 1998; Schulte, Ostroff, & Kinicki, 2006).

From this point forward, most work focuses on psychological diversity climate as it relates to outcomes, with the implicit assumption that reported psychological perceptions are influenced by a true existing diversity climate in terms of the organizational inclusion and value of diversity. Organizational climate tends to be used when studying organizational-level outcomes such as financial performance. However, organizational climate, level of agreement, or the relative influence of each, may be more appropriate depending on the research question. For instance, a recent study using both dimensions of climate found that individual-level perceptions strongly predicted job satisfaction, and unit-level climate accounted for a small

percent of variation in satisfaction above and beyond individuals' perceptions (Schulte et al., 2006).

Recent Findings.

Empirical work on psychological diversity climate generally supports some of the predictions of Cox's (1994) IMCD model, and the mechanisms described by social identity theory in explaining why the examined effects occur. Overall, studies show diversity climate perceptions significantly relate to employee attitudes, and a handful demonstrate an influence on employee behavior. Many studies use mediated models conceptualizing diversity climate relating to improved work attitudes and subsequently enhancing employee outcomes. The effects of diversity climate-outcome relationships also tend to be moderated by group status, most commonly race, such that effects are stronger for employees of color than their White colleagues. This would be expected because favorable diversity climates reduce the likelihood of incidents of discrimination which are experienced and noticed more frequently by employees of color (Avery et al., 2008). It is also important to note that the added benefits of a favorable diversity climate for employees of color are not always found (i.e. some studies find diversity climates to be equally beneficial for both groups), and when they are, they do not result in negative outcomes for White or majority employees who also can benefit to a lesser extent.

To highlight main contributions of the IMCD research, a good starting point would be attitudinal outcomes explored in a large-scale investigation with White, Black, and Hispanic store managers in a U.S. national retailer. This study tested a hypothesized model of the relationship between diversity climate and turnover

intentions as mediated by affective organizational commitment (McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez, & Hebl, 2007). This study found support for the mediated model and demonstrated that the relationship between diversity climate and turnover intentions was stronger for Black managers compared to the other subgroups. Following this, several studies examined additional mediators or moderators related to the effects of diversity climate. Kaplan, Wiley, and Maertz (2011) extended this by focusing on how diversity climate impacted turnover intentions through calculative commitment (commitment based on perceptions of future benefits of remaining in an organization), which was observed to be stronger for employees with higher pay satisfaction. This relationship held for both White males and employees of color, underscoring the benefits of diversity climates for everyone in organizations. Later, Chrobot-Mason and Aramovich (2013) conducted a related study on the diversity climate-turnover intentions relationship, with the additional examination of four psychological variables as mediators: organizational identification, climate for innovation, psychological empowerment, and identity freedom. Each significantly mediated the relationship, and the mediated pathways did not vary in strength based on race.

A few studies have investigated behavioral outcomes as well. Avery and colleagues (2007) examined how racial differences in absenteeism, which typically demonstrate employees of color having higher absenteeism, were reduced in organizations with supportive diversity climates. Another study conducted by Singh, Winkel, and Selvarajan (2013) conceptualized psychological safety as an important mediator between diversity climate perceptions and citizenship behavior toward

individuals in the organization. They argued that a favorable diversity climate allows employees to feel free to express their true selves, which would compel them to reciprocate organizational goodwill, and found support for such a relationship.

In addition to attitudinal and behavioral outcomes for individuals, some work has examined the organizational-level outcomes posited in the IMCD model. McKay, Avery, and Morris (2008) found, in a sample of sales personnel across several stores, that supportiveness of diversity climate was related to reduced racial discrepancies in sales performance and enhanced performance and higher overall sales, supporting the "business case for diversity." As a follow-up, McKay, Avery, and Morris (2009) replicated this finding and compared supervisor and subordinate perceptions, finding the highest store-unit sales growth when subordinates and supervisors perceived their diversity climate was supportive compared to when there was lower agreement or an unsupportive climate. Diversity climate has also been explored regarding other organizational outcomes such as increased productivity, higher return on profit, and higher customer satisfaction ratings (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; McKay, Avery, Liao, & Morris, 2011).

Though the work cited has greatly advanced our understanding of diversity climate, some limitations about the state of the literature were noted by McKay and Avery (2015). They discuss how studies have focused almost exclusively on similar models of employee attitudes based on race and gender (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions), while diversity climate effects on other attitudes, processes, and behavioral criteria are yet to be explored. Further, the treatment of race is problematic in many studies, which collapse minority groups

into a single category because of small group sizes. This obscures differences in racial group identification, work experiences, and dominant stereotypes (McKay & Avery, 2015). The present study set out to address these limitations by linking diversity climate to feedback seeking, a construct that had not yet been explored, by focusing on two racial groups rather than collapsing minority groups into one category, and by measuring racial identity.

Summary

Diversity climate is defined as employees' perceptions that an organization utilizes fair practices and socially integrates underrepresented groups into the work environment. Most of the work in this realm is based on the IMCD model, which conceptualizes diversity climate as composed of individual, group, and organizational factors that affect employee attitudes and behaviors, which ultimately affect the organization's bottom-line. Empirical research on diversity climate generally focuses on psychological climate, perceptions from an individual's perspective, rather than organizational climate which would be aggregated to the organization level. Findings thus far support the IMCD model propositions, especially regarding support for the "business case for diversity." However, there are still many areas to be explored, and the effects of diversity climate on feedback processes, which the IMCD places in a key role, have not yet been studied empirically.

Diversity Climate in the Current Model

The primary goals of this study are to extend research on diversity climate by examining other outcomes than those typically studied, and to understand the complexity of diversity climate effects by examining whether effects interact with

race characteristics. Race is included in the models as a moderator of the effects of diversity climate on trust, feedback seeking, job satisfaction, and work stress. This is in line with the IMCD proposition that the effects of diversity climate should be stronger for employees of color than for White employees. The outcomes of interest in the model also suggest additional reason to hypothesize that effects would be more pronounced for employees of color: the experience of attribution uncertainty that is typical for employees of color can diminish trust, and make the feedback-seeking process less effective because there is less hope of gaining accurate information. Not having desired feedback to gauge performance can negatively affect how employees go about achieving their work goals, which can culminate in increased work stress and lower job satisfaction. However, when diversity climates are supportive, these employees may feel more comfortable seeking feedback, which helps in doing work more effectively. This can have subsequent positive effects on job attitudes in the form of job satisfaction, and well-being in the form of work stress, and this effect should be more pronounced for employees of color who have worse experiences in unsupportive diversity climates.

For the group of Black employees, I will examine two additional factors that may interact in determining the effects of diversity climate, as a categorical race distinction does not result in homogenous subgroups and Black employees differ in how they experience and value the diversity climate. Employee racial identity, the degree to which race is central to one's self concept, will be examined as a moderator of the effect of race such that it was hypothesized to amplify the benefits of a supportive diversity climate for employees of color. Additionally, supervisor-

subordinate racial similarity is conceptualized as a moderator of the effects of diversity climate for employees of color. Specifically, it is hypothesized that diversity climate may have more of an effect in racially dissimilar dyads, because similarity facilitates relationship building with one's supervisor, meaning things like trust and feedback seeking would be more likely regardless of the diversity climate. Since diversity climate effects would be more salient for dyads without this predisposition, the effects of diversity climate should be strongest when dyads are racially dissimilar. Finally, interactions among diversity climate, racial identity, and racial similarity will be tested.

The present study extends scholarship on diversity climate in several ways. First, I hypothesize a positive relationship between diversity climate and trust, which fleshes out how organizational characteristics can affect supervisor-subordinate dyads. Second, the relationship between diversity climate and feedback seeking is examined, specifically the frequency of feedback seeking via inquiry from the focal employee's direct supervisor. This expands upon the IMCD proposition that diversity climate favorability bolsters effective processing of feedback (Cox, 1994), and applies it to the feedback-seeking context by proposing that more favorable feedback dynamics also facilitate employees' trust in their supervisor and comfort in seeking feedback. This also sets out to establish evidence for a behavioral outcome of diversity climate, while most work has focused on attitudinal outcomes.

Regarding affective outcomes, the IMCD suggests diversity climate perceptions should relate to outcomes such as job satisfaction and work stress, and empirical work thus far has supported these predictions. In the only study to my

knowledge that tests this, diversity climate was positively related to job satisfaction (Hofhuis et al., 2012). Work stress as another outcome has not been directly examined in the context of diversity climate, but follows from the IMCD model. This hypothesis also extends recent work demonstrating diversity climate builds psychological capital, which has implications for managing stress (Newman et al., 2018). Therefore, I hypothesize that diversity climate perceptions would positively relate to job satisfaction and negatively relate to feelings of work stress.

While it was noted that each of the effects described are influenced by race in complex ways, the nature of these interactions will be discussed in greater detail in the next section.

Race

Race is a socially constructed categorization that sorts individuals into groups based on perceived characteristics, with differential value and privilege assigned to each group (Markus, 2008). Race is one of the most salient surface-level characteristics about individuals, and our thoughts, feelings and actions are influenced by race as a primary categorization (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1985), which sets the stage for future interpretation and behavior across contexts such as the workplace.

There is an increasingly important need to study race as a focal variable in research as the workplace diversifies (Cox & Nkomo, 1990; Roberson, Ryan, & Ragins, 2017). From a purely numerical perspective, proportions of people of color are increasing in the general population and the workforce, and major news outlets have noted that the United States is shifting toward becoming a “majority-minority”

nation (Time, 2015; Toosi, 2002). Yet much of psychology's research is based on mostly White samples, and as a result, our understanding of workplace constructs, processes, and dynamics is limited (Henrich, Heine, & Norenzayan, 2010). From an egalitarian perspective, the status and treatment of employees of color tends to be less favorable than that of their White counterparts across formal and informal channels (McGuire, 2000), which needs to be documented to inform effective interventions. Because a major tenant of the study focuses on linking diversity climate to feedback, this section will discuss the scant treatment of race in the existing PM literature, provide an overview of relevant theoretical perspectives that shed light into how race affects PM processes such as feedback seeking, and discuss how race is conceptualized in the proposed study.

Race in Performance Management

PM literature has for the most part included race only when seeking to answer the question of whether racial rating bias exists, without reaching a clear consensus on the matter (Stauffer & Buckley, 2005). Race is rarely studied within the feedback-seeking literature, with only one known study including race, which examined feedback-seeking behavior of African-American managers when they hold solo status in an organization versus when they do not (Roberson, Dietch, Brief, & Block, 2003).

To expand on this noteworthy exception, Roberson and colleagues (2003) examined perceptions of stereotype threat among African-American managers, which were influenced by whether they were the only minority member in their work group, and compared feedback-seeking strategies under different levels of threat. They found stereotype threat perceptions positively related to feedback seeking via monitoring

and discounting of feedback, but found no differences in inquiry, concluding that threat may result in the use of less effective feedback strategies. The authors noted limitations of not accounting for the influence of representation of employees of color at senior organizational levels or including the organization's perspective toward diversity, fairness, and discrimination (i.e., diversity climate). This, in conjunction with recent work questioning the generalizability of stereotype threat theory to real-world situations (Cullen, Waters, & Sackett, 2006) and noting problems with self-reported stereotype threat measures (Czukor & Bayazit, 2014) leaves many questions unanswered which the current study aims to address.

Aside from this study, feedback-seeking literature has assumed that the general processes work in the same way regardless of race, mirroring much of the I-O literature that is based on White males as a defining group for the study of organizations (Nkomo, 1992). However, theory on race suggests that people of color have distinct psychological experiences that can affect how feedback dynamics play out in the workplace. As a result, established knowledge on feedback seeking is limited to the extent that we have not considered the impact of race.

When race is studied, it is typically examined at a surface level, in that the perspective focuses on whether race differences exist based upon racial category alone (Cox & Nkomo, 1990; Proudford & Nkomo, 2006). However, it does not draw on established theoretical frameworks (e.g., critical race theory, Black feminist theory) nor shed light onto the mechanisms, consequences, or remedies of those differences. To address this, the current study places race as a focal variable within a model of the effects of diversity climate on different interpersonal processes and

outcomes, with hypothesized effects of race that are theoretically grounded. Acknowledging that racial categories are not homogenous subgroups, additional considerations in the effects of race for Black employees, who are more attuned to racial cues, are included in the model (racial identity and racial similarity with the supervisor).

Theoretical Perspectives on Race

This study compares the experiences of Black and White employees to test race effects; using two groups allows for more clearly specified hypotheses. Social dominance theory (SDT), critical race theory (CRT), and cultural mistrust provide insight into why I expected racial group to serve as a key moderator for the proposed relationships. Generally, the higher status position of White employees as determinants of workplace cultures is more salient to Black employees who are not afforded the same status. This makes corrective action or explicit efforts toward inclusion and equality also more important and meaningful to Black employees. This is reflected in the current model which shows race as a moderator in the relationship of diversity climate to outcomes, such that the effects of favorable diversity climates are stronger for Black employees.

SDT and CRT

SDT argues that social inequality exists in almost all modern societies and is self-sustaining through individuals' social dominance orientation (SDO; Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). SDO is an individual difference orientation that describes the value placed on non-egalitarian and hierarchically structured relationships within social groups, describing the degree to which one favors inequality. Studies have

demonstrated in the U.S. that higher-status groups such as European-Americans have a higher SDO than African-Americans (Levin et al., 1998). The principles of CRT state that racism, while typically viewed as a temporary problem that can be remedied with legislation, is actually a fundamental part of American society (Delgado & Stefancic, 2000). This perspective argues that cultural realities are constructed out of the self-interest of dominant groups. Specifically, 'stock stories,' such as the common perception of affirmative action initiatives leading to the selection of unqualified minorities, perpetuate the distribution of rights and privileges in favor of White supremacy (Crenshaw, Gotanda, Peller, & Thomas, 1995).

Cultural mistrust

Cultural mistrust is used to describe an African-American cultural response style resulting from experiences with racism and prejudice in society (Terrell & Terrell, 1981). This response manifests in apprehension, issues of trust, suspicion, and self-consciousness in interracial situations. The research in interracial relationships in counseling and therapy emphasizes that mental health environments are a microcosm of the larger society and has shown that general attitudes play out in a similar fashion in counseling relationships (Whaley, 1998). Interactions within organizations are another example of a microcosm in which these racial dynamics can play out, such that if Black employees exhibit mistrust of Whites in society as a whole, it is likely that the individual would approach their workplace, including their supervisor, with the same mistrust.

Race in the Current Model

The current model places race in a key position as a moderator of the effects of diversity climate, such that the effects are stronger for Black versus White employees. Theoretical support for this comes from SDT and CRT, which explain how supportive diversity climates will be more salient to Black employees who hold a lower status position in typical organizational settings. Cultural mistrust literature suggests the supportiveness of a diversity climate would be more important to Black employees, who approach their workplace interactions with hesitation and are in greater need of identity affirmation to feel comfortable approaching sources such as their supervisor for feedback they desire.

Regarding the relationship between diversity climate perceptions and trust, due to prior experiences with prejudice and discrimination, Black employees may have less favorable trust perceptions toward the supervisor. In a supportive diversity climate, this cultural mistrust should be eased somewhat to be more on par with the perspective of White employees, who also reap the benefits of inclusive workplace climates. The relationship is expected to be positive for both groups who experience positive benefits of psychological safety and identity freedom, but stronger for Black employees who tend to approach individuals within their workplace with less trust.

These same dynamics would also impact employee's propensity to seek feedback at work. Black employees may be especially hesitant to approach their supervisors for valued feedback within predominantly White workplaces because of prior experiences with prejudice and discrimination resulting in cultural mistrust. Supportive diversity climates result in feelings of psychological safety which can

allow employees to feel comfortable seeking feedback, and this effect would be especially pronounced for Black subordinates who have additional hesitations due to these factors.

The relationships between diversity climate perceptions and the two outcomes of job satisfaction and work stress are also expected to be stronger for Black employees compared to White employees. Again, supportive diversity climates are expected to benefit everyone in unlocking the positive outcomes of diverse workplaces, but the effects seen should be more drastic for Black employees who approach their workplace with cultural mistrust and experience attribution uncertainty at work compared with White employees who are less aware of racial dynamics and more comfortable upholding the status quo. Black employees report more negative working conditions and fewer opportunities than White employees (Alderfer, Alderfer, Turker, & Tucker, 1980), so the additional salience of racial conditions is expected to translate to Black employees placing higher value on the supportiveness of diversity climate as a means to reduce racial discrimination.

Hypothesis 1: Employee race will moderate the expected positive relationships between diversity climate perceptions and (a) trust, (b) feedback seeking, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) work stress, such that the relationships are more strongly positive for Black employees in supportive diversity climates.

Additionally, I will examine two variables that would appear to be particularly relevant to the present model given the described experiences with cultural mistrust and attribution uncertainty for Black employees. Specifically, the degree to which individuals identify with their race and racial similarity with their direct supervisor should impact the salience of diversity climate; these are discussed in the following sections.

Black Employee Racial Identity

Background

Those interested in the work experiences of people of color will likely find inconsistencies when comparing racial categories without considering degree of racial identity (Cox & Nkomo, 1990). In comparing Black and White employees for instance, racial groups are treated as though they are homogenous, assuming those within each group have similar attitudes or psychological characteristics. Racial identity refers to the extent that an individual's self-concept is defined by membership in their racial group, the level of attachment toward the group, and participation in activities associated with group membership (Phinney, 1992). One's understanding of their racial identity is particularly significant for people of color whose minority status makes their race more salient in society (Phinney, 1990). Due to the way in which White individuals conceptualize racial identity (with a focus on their attitudes toward interracial interactions as opposed to their own race; Block, Roberson, & Neuger, 1995), researchers have argued that the construct is only meaningful for people of color (Sellers, Smith, Shelton, Rowley, & Chavous, 1998).

Though people of color tend to have stronger racial identity than White individuals, there is also significant within-group variability, which can provide a more proximal explanation for certain relationships than racial group membership alone (Crocker, Luhtanen, Blaine, & Broadnax, 1994; Sellers, Caldwell, Schmeelk-Cone, & Zimmerman, 2003). Research on the role of racial identity for people of color finds that high identification with one's racial group is associated with increased personal salience of race and a greater concern for protecting group identity from

perceived threats, such as discrimination (Ethier & Deaux, 1994; Thompson, 1999). Thus, Black racial identity should strengthen hypothesized effects of racial group membership. Many studies across content areas have found this pattern where racial identity moderates the effects of race on outcomes. For instance, one study in the customer service industry found this relationship in the domain of emotional labor. The researchers hypothesized that employees of color would respond to customer incivility with more negative attributions and that would lead to job exhaustion. They did not find a difference between racial groups, but did find the hypothesized effect for employees of color with stronger racial identity (Kern & Grandey, 2009).

Racial identity in the present study

Individuals with strong racial identity tend to be more reactive to cues about race, thus employees of color strongly identified with their racial group are thought to place a higher value on diversity climate as a means of mitigating prejudice at work (Mor Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998). This has been mentioned conceptually as an important component in the reactions to diversity climate (McKay et al., 2007) but has not been explicitly included in empirical studies of diversity climate.

I anticipate this pattern to occur in the present study. Specifically, theoretical perspectives on race point to stronger effects of diversity climate for Black employees compared with White employees. However, Black employees can differ in the extent to which their racial group is salient and central to their identity, some may attribute very high importance to their Black identity, which would relate to increased perceptions of cultural mistrust, while others may not think as much about their race or notice racial cues to the same extent. Black employees with stronger racial identity

are expected to respond more strongly to the favorability of the diversity climate, which can be seen with each outcome variable examined in the study, while Black employees lower in racial identity would be less reactive to perceptions of diversity climate.

Hypothesis 2: Among Black employees, diversity climate will be more strongly related to (a) trust), (b) feedback-seeking behavior, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) work stress for those with stronger racial identity compared to those with weaker racial identity.

Black Employee Supervisor-Subordinate Racial Similarity

Background

The supervisor has an important role in the model, serving as a linking mechanism between the organization's diversity climate and perceptions of the employee. The race of the supervisor, then, may be an important consideration in understanding how diversity climate perceptions relate to their attitudes and behavior toward their direct supervisor, specifically for Black employees who are more attuned to racial cues. Attraction-similarity theory states that similarity in values, beliefs, and experiences results in interpersonal attraction and liking. People are drawn to those similar to them on surface-level characteristics such as race, which are viewed as proxies for deeper-level similarity (Byrne, 1971; Byrne & Nelson, 1965).

Research in relational demography indeed finds employees with racially similar supervisors having stronger relationships due to increased comfort with one another and more frequent communication (Tsui & Gutek, 1999; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Other studies have linked racial similarity with job satisfaction, perceptions of justice, and withdrawal behaviors (Avery, Volpone, McKay, King, & Wilson, 2012; Wesolowski & Mossholder, 1997). Similar effects have been observed with racial

similarity and mentorship quality in terms of liking, satisfaction, and contact with one's mentor (Ensher & Murphy, 1997). One study on African-American subordinates demonstrated that having an African-American supervisor was associated with higher perceptions of supervisory support and developmental opportunities compared with having a White supervisor (Jeanquart-Barone, 1996). On the other hand, racially dissimilar individuals are assumed to come from different backgrounds and differ in values and social preferences (Foeman & Pressley, 1987). Per uncertainty reduction theory, dissimilarity reduces perceptions of predictability in interactions, causing less comfort and greater effort in communicating with dissimilar others (Berger & Calabrese, 1975).

Therefore, in the current study, supervisor-subordinate racial similarity is conceptualized as a moderator of the effects of diversity climate for Black employees. Specifically, it is hypothesized that \

those with a racially similar supervisor would experience weaker diversity climate effects because the context of the dyad facilitates a more favorable relationship regardless of organizational diversity cues. In contrast, those with racially dissimilar supervisors would be expected to experience a stronger effect of diversity climate in that they are more reliant on the organizational cues to promote trust in the supervisor.

Supervisor-subordinate racial similarity in the present study

The proposed study would be the first to examine how supervisor-subordinate racial similarity plays a moderating role affecting the influence of diversity climate. I specifically anticipate such an effect for Black employees who are more attuned to

and place higher value on diversity cues, suggesting they would be particularly aware of the race of their direct supervisor and, per signaling theory, encode their similarity as a signal of trustworthiness (Spence, 1973). On the other hand, White employees tend to place less importance on organizational diversity cues, but still experience positive benefits of a supportive diversity climate (Mor Barak et al., 1998).

Based on attraction-similarity theory, racial similarity with one's supervisor should facilitate positive attitudes and outcomes regardless of the diversity climate. On the other hand, having a racially dissimilar supervisor would amplify the effects of a supportive diversity climate that occur through positive attitudes toward the supervisor, which is needed moreso in the dissimilar dyads. Thus, it is hypothesized that supportiveness of employees' diversity climate will more strongly relate to trust and frequency of feedback seeking in racially dissimilar dyads.

To operationalize racial similarity, I considered supervisors who belong to an underrepresented minority racial group as racially similar, and White supervisors as racially different. While a number of studies on similarity with Black employees have coded Black supervisors as similar and those of any other race as different, such a distinction oversimplifies demographic differences without considering what group the supervisor belongs to. Others citing social identity theory (Ashford & Mael, 1989) specify that those belonging to other minority groups would represent similar characteristics and a shared experience in a White-dominated work environment (Riordan, 2000). Thus, a distinction between White supervisors and supervisors of color may be more appropriate in this context (Cole, 2016). Further, an additional measure of perceived cultural similarity will be included as a supplemental measure.

Hypothesis 3: Among Black employees, diversity climate will be more strongly related to (a) trust, (b) feedback-seeking behavior, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) work stress, for those with racially dissimilar supervisors compared to those with racially similar supervisors.

While Hypotheses 2 and 3 discuss the isolated effects of Black employees' racial identity and racial similarity with their supervisor, in reality, both exist simultaneously and may have interactive effects. Specifically, Black employees who have strong racial identity and have racially dissimilar supervisors would seem to be in the most "unfavorable context" because they are highly attuned to race cues, tend to experience attribution uncertainty and distrust in the workplace, and thus would respond most strongly to the favorability of the diversity climate.

Hypothesis 4: Among Black employees, the effect of diversity climate on (a) trust in the supervisor, (b) feedback-seeking behavior toward the supervisor, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) work stress, will interact with racial identity and racial similarity with the supervisor, such that those with strong racial identity and a dissimilar supervisor will experience the strongest positive relationships.

Feedback **Seeking**

Performance Management (PM) refers to a continuous process of measuring performance beyond formal performance rating (Aguinis, 2013). Recent PM scholarship has changed its focus from structural and rating format issues toward informal and social aspects such as feedback seeking, used as a way individuals gather information about their behavior to help self-regulation and goal attainment at work (Ashford & Tsui, 1991). The literature on feedback seeking was prompted by Ashford and Cummings's (1983) influential paper that drew attention to the fact that individuals are not passive recipients of feedback, but play an active role in obtaining it directly and indirectly. Since then, a great deal of research has been dedicated to

understanding the key aspects of feedback seeking, a major activity in the PM process. I will briefly summarize the major findings and state of the literature regarding antecedents, types of feedback seeking, and outcomes as they relate to the current investigation.

Antecedents of Feedback Seeking

The antecedents of feedback-seeking behavior are well established in research as falling under a general cost-value framework, stating that individuals consciously assess costs and values associated with feedback seeking which informs their future behavior (Ashford, 1986). Personal antecedents such as motives for seeking, whether for performance or impression management reasons, and dispositional variables (e.g., learning goal orientation, feedback orientation) show significant effects on whether and how one goes about seeking feedback. Different aspects of the feedback source such as supervisor leadership style and implicit person theory also play a role in whether individuals seek feedback (Ashford, De Stobbeleir, & Nujella, 2016). Research on contextual antecedents has mostly focused on the relational context (e.g. transformational leadership, LMX), while structural and organizational context have received less attention.

Others have noted there is a need to examine the social context in which PM takes place (Levy & Williams, 2004; Levy et al., In Press). Levy and Williams (2004) outlined a conceptual model of the social context of PM which describes the impact of distal variables (e.g., organizational climate, economic conditions, unemployment) on rater and ratee behavior (e.g., performance ratings and reactions) through its effect on both process proximal variables (e.g., trust, rater accountability) and structural

proximal variables (e.g., performance dimensions, performance standards). They note that most work has focused on proximal antecedents and the scarce empirical work examining distal variables is disappointing (Levy & Williams, 2004). Diversity climate is an important part of the organization that forms the social context, and would be considered a distal variable impacting behavior (feedback seeking) through its impact on proximal process variables (trust and source credibility), but this specific relationship has not yet been examined.

The current research focuses on diversity climate as a contextual antecedent of feedback-seeking frequency, which operates through its effect on trust in the supervisor and perceptions of source credibility. The conceptualization of different dimensions of trust (affective and cognitive) as well as source credibility will be discussed in further detail in the next section. Perceiving that one's organization is fair, inclusive, and free of bias at individual, group, and organizational levels can establish a sense of trust and credibility in one's supervisor as a more proximal representation of that company culture, which would give the employee more of a sense of ease and comfort with seeking feedback when desired.

Type of Feedback Seeking

The key aspects of feedback-seeking behavior, noted in a qualitative review by Ashford, and colleagues (2003), are the following: "(1) frequency, or how often individuals seek it; (2) the method of feedback seeking, whether by observing, comparing, or asking for it; (3) the timing of feedback seeking; (4) the target of feedback seeking; and (5) the topic on which feedback is sought, for example on successes versus failures or on certain aspects of performance" (p. 774).

This project focuses on the frequency of feedback-seeking behavior with a specific target, the supervisor, and method, direct inquiry. Seeking feedback with greater frequency is related to positive outcomes because employees have access to more desired information when they seek feedback more often. As a proactive self-regulation strategy, seeking feedback helps employees gain clarity of what is expected of them and correct any mistakes, which will better equip them to meet those expectations. As for the target, individuals can seek feedback from a variety of sources such as supervisors, coworkers, or subordinates (Ashford et al., 2003). The current study solely focuses on feedback seeking from an employee's direct supervisor, to flesh out how diversity climate effects operate through this important relationship.

There are different methods that employees can use to obtain feedback, such as: inquiry, which involves directly asking for verbal feedback, monitoring, which involves observing others' actions for clues as to how one is performing, and indirect inquiry, which involves subtly steering the conversation to performance-related topics without directly asking for feedback (Ashford et al., 2003). Feedback obtained through inquiry is likely to be more direct and actionable, but comes at higher effort and face loss costs compared to other strategies. On the other hand, feedback obtained through monitoring has lower costs but can be vague and prone to misinterpretation.

The current study places feedback seeking within a model of diversity climate and trust, in which potential effects on feedback seeking via inquiry are theoretically specified. It is possible that other feedback-seeking strategies like monitoring would be affected by the processes described, but potential effects are not hypothesized

because the mechanisms in terms of theory are unclear. While the current study primarily focuses on feedback seeking via inquiry, potential effects with monitoring will be tested as exploratory research questions (this is further discussed in the Supplementary Research Questions section).

Outcomes of Feedback Seeking

Research has focused much more on predictors of feedback-seeking behavior than outcomes, and these relationships can be more difficult to tease apart because the ultimate outcomes depend on so many factors outside of just seeking feedback, such as the content of the message, motivation to implement it, ability to act on it, etc. Although feedback seeking is conceptually described as a self-regulation strategy to help in performance goals, the meta-analytic correlation between feedback seeking and job performance (task performance) is small (Anseel et al., 2015). However, feedback seeking does show a positive relationship with job satisfaction, well-being, and socialization outcomes such as task mastery. Other outcomes that have been demonstrated are contextual performance, creative performance, and learning (Ashford et al., 2016). Similar to what has already been established in the literature, the proposed study anticipates observing the same relationships with job satisfaction and stress.

Feedback Seeking in the Current Study

The proposed study examines feedback-seeking behavior via direct inquiry from an employee's direct supervisor. Although much more research has been devoted to understanding antecedents of feedback seeking compared to outcomes, very little attention has been given to distal antecedents such as diversity climate.

This study seeks to establish a link between diversity climate and feedback-seeking behavior, which I expect based on conceptual models in both literatures. As mentioned, relationships between diversity climate and feedback seeking with outcomes such as job satisfaction and work stress have also been established in these literatures, but the current study tests whether feedback seeking operates as a mediator linking these variables together, as an extension of the IMCD framework (Cox, 1994).

Hypothesis 5: Frequency of feedback seeking will mediate the relationship between diversity climate and (a) job satisfaction, and (b) work stress.

Trust and Source Credibility

Trust is defined by Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) as the "willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the trustee will perform a particular action important to the trustor" (p.712). The addition of vulnerability to previous definitions of trust emphasizes the inherent risk in trusting, such as seeking feedback from a supervisor, which can express a deficiency or need for information. Feedback-seeking literature has noted the risk of this behavior manifested in effort and impression management costs (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Levy, Albright, Cawley, & Williams, 1995). Despite this, when employees trust their supervisor, they are willing to accept this vulnerability because of a belief that the supervisor will reciprocate with useful information.

The development of trust is influenced by previous experience with the trustee and an evaluation of the trustworthiness, which is made up of the trustee's perceived integrity, ability, and benevolence (Mayer et al., 1995). Social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) would suggest that characteristics of the

organizational environment, such as diversity climate, can increase positive perceptions toward a supervisor, such as trust. Several studies have found a positive association between trust and feedback seeking from a supervisor through inquiry (Barner-Rassmussen, 2003; Chuang, Lee, & Shen, 2014; Huang, 2012). Taken together within the proposed model, an employee's perceptions of a supportive diversity climate can promote employee feedback seeking through a positive impact on trust.

I hypothesize that favorability of diversity climate perceptions would be related to three aspects of trust in one's supervisor: (a) generalized trust toward the supervisor from liking and concern (affective-based trust) as well as perceptions of the supervisor's overall competence (cognitive-based trust), and (b) perceptions of competence for giving feedback (source credibility), which would each in turn relate to feedback-seeking behavior. Source credibility is not typically discussed as a form of trust, but I conceptualize the construct as a type of trust in a supervisor emerging from perceptions of them as a source of feedback. Trust is also conceptualized as a mediating mechanism of the effects of diversity climate; it is proposed that individuals approach the interpersonal process of feedback seeking with higher levels of affect-based trust (from liking of the supervisor), cognition-based trust (from belief in the supervisor's competence), and source credibility (perceptions of the ability of the supervisor to provide accurate feedback).

Trust

Conceptualization of trust

Several conceptualizations of trust have been proposed, but one of the most prominent is McAllister's (1995) distinction between affect and cognition-based dimensions of trust. Affect-based trust is grounded in reciprocal care and concern and consists of an emotional bond with mutual respect, while cognition-based trust is grounded in beliefs about another's competence and dependability and is formed with the expectation that the other has knowledge and skills to perform their tasks. The two dimensions are distinct but highly positively correlated (McAllister, 1995). I hypothesize that the two will operate in the same way within the present model, but distinguish between the affective and cognitive dimensions because they are qualitatively different components of the construct.

Trust in the current model

The trends toward more diversity in the workplace will make interpersonal trust at work increasingly important. Demographic similarity among a work group leads to initial feelings of attraction and willingness to work together, which facilitates the formation of trust. More and more, individuals will work closely with people not like themselves, which can cause interpersonal challenges because initial impressions of outgroup members tend to be more negative (Mayer et al., 1995). Diverse teams and groups have the potential to work well together and achieve even better outcomes than homogenous groups, but the organizational context needs to promote this and enable the development of mutual trust so that employees work together more effectively.

In supportive diversity climates, organizational values of fair and equal treatment can manifest in positive perceptions of supervisor values. Specifically,

perceptions of supervisor benevolence, defined as the desire to do good and help their subordinates, and integrity, defined as the extent to which the supervisor's actions are congruent with their words and show adherence to an acceptable set of principles (Mayer et al., 1995; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Following social-information processing theory, I anticipate that perceptions of supportive diversity climates would cultivate an employee's feelings of both types of trust toward their supervisor.

As previously stated, trust in a supervisor increases the probability that an employee would engage in the risky behavior of seeking feedback via inquiry. Specifically, subordinates with trust in supervisors are likely to think they possess considerable expertise to provide helpful feedback (cognition-based trust) and feel comfortable approaching supervisors without concern that it will hurt their image (affective-based trust). Several studies have empirically examined this, confirming a positive relationship between trust and feedback-seeking behavior (Barner-Rasmussen, 2003; Huang, 2012). Additional research shows that trust in one's supervisor influences cost and value perceptions, promoting feedback seeking because of higher perceived value and lower perceived costs (Choi, Moon, & Nae, 2014). These findings, in conjunction with the proposed influence of diversity climate, aligns with a mediational model of diversity climate and feedback seeking through trust.

Hypothesis 6: Diversity climate perceptions will relate to frequency of feedback seeking mediated through (a) affective-based trust and (b) cognition-based trust.

Source Credibility

Conceptualization of source credibility

Source credibility is another type of trust specific to the feedback domain, defined as an individual's perceived expertise and trustworthiness as a source of feedback (Giffin, 1967). Expertise refers to knowledge of the feedback recipient's job requirements, the recipient's performance, and an ability to judge the performance; trustworthiness focuses on whether the source is seen as someone intending to communicate accurate information (Giffin, 1967). Steelman and colleagues (2004) specify that supervisors who have observed their subordinates' behavior, are able to evaluate it, and have motives for providing feedback that can be trusted will encourage their employees to seek feedback more than supervisors who are not perceived as competent in evaluating job behavior.

Source credibility in the current model

In the same vein as the previous discussion on other aspects of trust, when employees perceive their organization values and promotes diversity and fair treatment, they are likely to process this in positive feelings toward their supervisor's competence in fair treatment and providing useful feedback (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Thus, favorable diversity climate perceptions should positively relate to perceptions of source credibility. Researchers see source credibility as an important antecedent to feedback seeking and several empirical studies support this, demonstrating that the higher the perceptions of credibility, the more likely an employee is to seek feedback from their supervisor through inquiry (Ashford et al., 2003; Fedor, Rensvold, & Adams, 1995). Further, similar to the findings of trust, mediated models show that source credibility affects feedback-seeking frequency through an influence on increased perceptions of informational value (Lu, Pan, &

Cheng, 2011). Within the current model, I propose a mediated relationship in which diversity climate perceptions influence feedback seeking through increased perceptions of source credibility. This is similar to the previous hypothesis, but specifies another path through which the effects of diversity climate on feedback seeking occur: through generalized trust in the supervisor and domain-specific trust as a source of feedback.

Hypothesis 6c: Diversity climate perceptions will relate to frequency of feedback seeking mediated through source credibility.

Job Satisfaction

Conceptualization of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction, defined as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception that one's job is fulfilling for their values and needs (Locke, 1976), is one of the most studied constructs in Organizational psychology, in part because of its relationship with job performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). Job satisfaction is an attitude comprised of overall evaluative judgments, beliefs about one's job, and affective experiences at work (Weiss, 2002). Satisfaction is highest when work is varied and allows for autonomy, is personally interesting and challenging, and when others in the workplace facilitate the process.

Job Satisfaction in the Current Model

Job satisfaction has been identified as an outcome of supportive diversity climates. Cox's (1994) IMCD specifies favorable job attitudes such as satisfaction as important individual-level outcomes. Collaborating in a diverse workforce can pose challenges with conflict and ambiguity, which have potentially negative effects for

job satisfaction, making the context in which diverse groups of employees interact especially important. Research examining diversity climate perceptions shows supportiveness relates to higher job satisfaction through lower role ambiguity and role conflict (Madera, Dawson, & Neal, 2013), and feelings of inclusion (Brimhall, Lizano, & Mor Barak, 2014).

The outcome of job satisfaction is of particular interest because several studies indicate race differences such that job satisfaction is lower for Black employees compared to their White counterparts (Cox & Nkomo, 1991). Supportive diversity climates should not only relate to higher job satisfaction, but should address disparities in the workplace that cause this discrepancy, potentially even closing the gap.

I expect the positive relationship between diversity climate perceptions and job satisfaction to be replicated in the present study, as well as the positive relationship between feedback-seeking behavior and job satisfaction. I also extend another IMCD proposition to the context of feedback-seeking behavior, that outcomes are obtained through more effective processing of feedback, by examining a mediated model of diversity climate perceptions impacting job satisfaction through feedback-seeking frequency via inquiry (Hypothesis 5a). Further, I will compare these relationships for White and Black employees, as race is conceptualized as a moderator of the effects of diversity climate such that relationships are expected to be stronger for Black employees, who have lower satisfaction in unfavorable climates (Hypotheses 1-3).

Social identity theory can further explain these hypothesized relationships: when an employee's group identity is affirmed through the organization's favorable diversity climate, they will identify more with the organization, particularly employees of color who perceive the organization is working to alleviate bias toward them (Hofhuis et al., 2012). They will then feel more comfortable seeking desired feedback from their supervisor, and have an overall improved work experience that shows in affective outcomes such as job satisfaction. While the hypotheses listed test portions of the presented model, a serial mediation model was also hypothesized to test comprehensive effects of how diversity climate relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between diversity climate and job satisfaction is serially mediated first by trust in terms of (a) affective-based trust, (b) cognition-based trust, and (c) source credibility, and then by feedback seeking.

Work Stress

Conceptualization of Work Stress

Work stress is defined as an individual's reaction to work environment characteristics that appear physically and emotionally threatening to an individual, indicating a poor fit in which either excessive demands are made of the individual, or the individual is not fully equipped to handle their demands (Jamal, 1984). Work stress has many negative outcomes, including implications for health such as anxiety, depression, and fatigue (Thorsteinsson, Brown, & Richards, 2014). Higher levels of work stress are also associated with burnout, lower organizational commitment, and higher turnover intentions (Jamal, 2005). Thus, it is important to study factors that can reduce work stress in order to promote well-being and avoid negative outcomes for individuals and their organizations.

Work Stress in the Current Model

Feedback seeking is conceptually related to work stress; the action of proactively seeking feedback about one's performance should equip employees with the information needed to better meet their job demands, which should buffer feelings of work stress. A meta-analysis of job characteristics shows feedback in a job is negatively related to employee stress and anxiety (Humphrey et al., 2007). This outcome is of particular interest in the present study because research has shown racial differences such that Black employees experience higher work stress compared to White employees (Wadsworth et al., 2006). This is due in part to more frequent instances of experiencing racial discrimination, which would suggest organizational diversity climate has the potential to play a role in reducing this discrepancy. Black employees in organizations with unfavorable diversity climates are likely to experience more prejudice, increasing stress, while favorable diversity climates can increase the well-being of all employees to similar levels.

No studies have directly examined the relationships between diversity climate, feedback-seeking behavior, and work stress. However, these relationships are expected as an extension of previous studies. One study demonstrated diversity climate perceptions were related to increased psychological capital, which has implications for stress management (Newman et al., 2018). Feedback seeking is related to other positive well-being outcomes. Increased role clarity and reduction of uncertainty gained through feedback seeking impacts job depression and job anxiety, which are correlates of work stress (Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008).

Linking the three together, the relationship between diversity climate and well-being outcomes such as work stress is expected within conservation of resources (COR) theory (Newman et al., 2018). Specifically, favorable diversity climates build psychological capital and allow individuals to be more resilient and more effectively seek and utilize feedback, which replenishes resources and should result in lower work stress. I hypothesize the favorability of diversity climate would directly relate to lower work stress, and indirectly relate to lower work stress via feedback seeking (Hypothesis 5b). As mentioned, I also hypothesize feedback seeking to be negatively associated with work stress. Regarding employee race, I hypothesize that these effects would be stronger for Black employees because they tend to experience more stress in unfavorable diversity climates (Hypotheses 1-3). While these hypotheses test portions of the presented model, a serial mediation model is also hypothesized to test comprehensive effects of how diversity climate relates to work stress.

Hypothesis 8: The relationship between diversity climate and work stress is serially mediated first by trust in terms of (a) affective-based trust, (b) cognition-based trust, and (c) source credibility, and then by feedback seeking.

Supplemental Research Questions

Individuals use multiple strategies in seeking feedback. While the focus of this study is on inquiry, it is possible that individuals may modify their use of other types of feedback seeking, via indirect strategies such as monitoring, in response to the favorability of their diversity climate. However, the effects on monitoring are not hypothesized because of a lack of theoretical rationale for how monitoring would be affected, the underlying mechanisms, and outcomes for job attitudes.

The literature has traditionally focused more on the strategy of inquiry in feedback seeking, and a recent meta-analysis highlighted that the effects of monitoring are not always clear. Though monitoring is moderately positively correlated with inquiry, relationships with antecedents and outcomes tend to be weaker, with confidence intervals including zero in many cases (Anseel et al., 2015).

It is conceptually unclear as to how monitoring would be impacted by the favorability of the diversity climate. Within an unfavorable diversity climate, it is possible that monitoring would be used more frequently because of high perceived costs associated with inquiry, leading individuals to rely on monitoring due to vigilance or mistrust in the feedback source. On the other hand, within a favorable diversity climate, monitoring may also be used more frequently because individuals feel comfortable relying on this low-effort strategy for cues about their behavior.

Thus, an additional measure of feedback seeking via monitoring is included in the study as an exploratory variable, and relationships will be assessed with this strategy of feedback seeking in order to examine this research question.

Research Question: What is the relationship between diversity climate and feedback seeking via monitoring?

Control Variables

With feedback seeking as a central component of the model in the present study, several other antecedents of outcome variables will be included as control variables to isolate the unique effects of diversity climate as an antecedent. The following are not meant to be an exhaustive list of all other correlates of feedback seeking, but those that stand out as most relevant to control for in the present investigation.

Gender. The role of gender is important to note with regard to the influence of diversity climate on the outcomes of interest in the present study. Diversity climate is clearly relevant to women, who commonly face sexism at work (McDonald, 2012; Nadler & Stockdale, 2012) and are likely to find diversity climate cues more salient compared to their male counterparts (McKay & Avery, 2015). Theories of intersectionality have discussed how looking only at race or gender in isolation obscures important differences between the experiences of White men and women for example, as well as how membership of multiple minority groups results in additive effects of oppression (Remedios & Synder, 2018). Gender may also relate to feedback seeking, depending on the gender composition of coworkers and the type of work (Miller & Karakowsky, 2005).

However, while gender may certainly play a role in employee's interpretation of diversity climate and its subsequent effects, the present study seeks to focus primarily on race due to the lack of research on the topic. Thus, study hypotheses are focused on the potential of race effects above and beyond those of gender and other variables. While it was conceptualized as a control variable in the current investigation, gender effects and interactive race and gender effects are promising avenues for extension of the model in future research.

Age. Age is negatively related to feedback seeking (Anseel et al., 2015). Sometimes viewed as a proxy for tenure, research finds that younger employees who are newer to organizations seek feedback more to adapt to their new roles, while older employees more accustomed to their expectations see less value in feedback. Age will

be considered as a control variable to isolate the effects of diversity climate outside of potential age differences.

Tenure. Tenure with the organization is negatively related to feedback seeking (Anseel et al., 2015). Employees who are newer to their positions are still acclimating to their responsibilities and need to gather more information about what is required of them on the job, while longer-tenured employees are more clear on their assignments and have less of a need for feedback-seeking behavior. Tenure will be considered as a potential control variable in order to examine the effects of diversity climate on feedback seeking outside of potential tenure effects.

Feedback Orientation. Feedback orientation is defined as an employee's overall receptivity to feedback (Linderbaum & Levy, 2010). Employees more receptive to feedback would be more likely to ask for it, relating to more frequent feedback seeking compared to those who are not as receptive to feedback messages (Anseel et al., 2015). As another important determinant of feedback seeking, feedback orientation will be considered as a potential control variable.

Learning Goal Orientation. Learning goal orientation is defined by a focus on gaining competence, developing new skills, and learning from experience. Individuals high in learning goal orientation have a desire to achieve a sense of mastery and exert effort to reach their goals, which is related to more frequent feedback seeking (Anseel et al., 2015). As a strong predictor of feedback seeking, learning goal orientation will be considered as a potential control variable.

Job Complexity. Job complexity refers to knowledge demands of the work. Within the extended job characteristics framework (Humphrey et al., 2007),

complexity is a motivational characteristic of the job itself, describing the extent to which a job is multifaceted and difficult to perform. Jobs that involve the use of high-level skills are mentally demanding in a way that can engage employees but also may overwhelm them. Meta-analytic evidence demonstrates complexity is positively related to job satisfaction ($\rho = .37$) and though no studies directly tested the relationship with work stress, complexity predicts related psychological states such as overload ($\rho = .59$; Humphrey et al., 2007).

Autonomy. Autonomy in a job refers to the freedom that an individual has in the way they carry out their work (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Humphrey et al., 2007). Different aspects of autonomy have been discussed such as autonomy in controlling the scheduling and timing of work, autonomy in the methods and procedures utilized in work, and the freedom in making decisions. As a strong predictor of job satisfaction, autonomy will be considered as a potential control variable.

Leader Member Exchange (LMX). LMX refers to the overall quality of the relationship within a supervisor-subordinate dyad including the three main components of respect, trust, and obligation (Graen & Uhl-Bein, 1995). This construct comes from relationship-based leadership theories. In order to include supervisor factors outside of the trust dimensions alone, LMX will be considered as a potential control variable in analysis.

Summary

In summary, the present study seeks to demonstrate that perceiving one's organization has a supportive diversity climate is related to increased frequency of

feedback-seeking behavior via inquiry from employees' direct supervisor, which occurs through improved perceptions of trust and credibility in the supervisor as a source of feedback. In turn, feedback seeking results in improved job attitudes of satisfaction and lower work stress. These relationships are expected to be moderated by race, with diversity climate having stronger effects for Black compared to White employees. This study also further hypothesizes two effects unique to the group of Black subordinates, conditional effects of racial identity and supervisor-subordinate racial similarity on the effects of diversity climate, as well as how the two interact (See Table 2.1 for a complete list of hypotheses).

This study contributes to the diversity climate and feedback-seeking literatures in several ways. Diversity climate literature has conceptually recognized processing of feedback as a mechanism for the effects on job attitudes, and the present study extends this to predict and test the mediating role of feedback-seeking behavior in predicting job satisfaction and work stress. A recent review on climate literature discusses the issue that studies have only focused on a conceptually similar set of outcome variables (e.g., withdrawal behaviors, performance outcomes) while other aspects of the IMCD model are still untested (McKay & Avery, 2015). Feedback-seeking literature has also recognized a need for organizational climate variables to be studied as distal antecedents, with the present study addressing that need. The study also examines mediating mechanisms of the effects of diversity climate that are theoretically grounded to explain outcomes previously studied such as job satisfaction, as well as another outcome, work stress, that has not yet been studied.

Another proposition of the diversity climate literature, that effects are stronger for employees of color compared with White employees, was tested by comparing groups of Black and White employees. To further flesh out the experience of employees of color, the degree of identification with their race and racial similarity with their supervisor will be examined, addressing a common problem in research of oversimplifying race by collapsing groups into White and non-White. The results of the current study will help inform future research on improving the organizational experiences of employees in diverse workforces.

Table 2.1: Summary of hypotheses

Hypothesis		Page
1	Employee race will moderate the expected positive relationships between diversity climate perceptions and (a) trust, (b) feedback seeking, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) work stress, such that the relationships are more strongly positive for Black employees in supportive diversity climates.	37
2	Among Black employees, diversity climate will be more strongly related to (a) trust), (b) feedback-seeking behavior, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) work stress for those with stronger racial identity compared to those with weaker racial identity.	40
3	Among Black employees, diversity climate will be more strongly related to (a) trust, (b) feedback-seeking behavior, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) work stress, for those with racially dissimilar supervisors compared to those with racially similar supervisors.	42
4	Among Black employees, the effect of diversity climate on (a) trust in the supervisor, (b) feedback-seeking behavior toward the supervisor, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) work stress, will interact with racial identity and racial similarity with the supervisor, such that those with strong racial identity and a dissimilar supervisor will experience the strongest positive relationships.	43
5	Frequency of feedback seeking will mediate the relationship between diversity climate and (a) job satisfaction, and (b) work stress.	48
6	Diversity climate perceptions will relate to frequency of feedback seeking mediated through (a) affective-based trust, (b) cognition-based trust, and (c) source credibility.	51-52
7	The relationship between diversity climate and job satisfaction is serially mediated first by trust in terms of (a) affective-based trust, (b) cognition-based trust, and (c) source credibility, and then by feedback seeking.	54
8	The relationship between diversity climate and work stress is serially mediated first by trust in terms of (a) affective-based trust, (b) cognition-based trust, and (c) source credibility, and then by feedback seeking.	56
RQ	What is the relationship between diversity climate perceptions and feedback seeking via monitoring?	57

CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

Participants

The study hypotheses were examined using a diverse sample of working adults. Participants were recruited via Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk), which is an online human subject pool that can provide access to diverse workers that meet certain specifications. MTurk is designed to permit qualified individuals to complete work tasks called Human Intelligence Tasks (HITs) for a monetary reward. With Institutional Review Board approval, participants were over the age of 18, worked at least 24 hours per week, were located in the United States, had at least a 95% approval rating from prior MTurk tasks, and identified as White/Caucasian or Black/African-American. Participants received $1.00 for their participation in each survey. 400 participants were recruited at time 1. The desired number of participants was based on a power analysis done in G*Power in addition to a review of the literature. Because G*Power does not accommodate complex models, an analysis was done with a similar model in an analysis of covariance framework, which indicated 200 participants would be needed. Looking to the literature, research generally suggests samples of around 400 respondents to detect moderation and mediation (Hayes, 2013; Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007). Specifically, mediation analyses with small to medium effect sizes suggest about 400 participants for .8 power (Fritz &

MacKinnon, 2007). Thus, 400 participants were recruited, with the goal of attaining complete data (matched cases at time 2) from at least 200 individuals.

Additional steps to verify the validity of the data were taken when appropriate. Specifically, items designed to assess respondents' attention were inserted throughout the survey, to identify cases of insufficient effort responding which can confound relationships among variables and can be deterred or detected with attention check items (Huang et al., 2015). IP addresses were checked to verify US location as well.

Upon completion of data collection for the study, time 1 and time 2 responses were matched, information directly identifying participants was deleted from the data set (e.g., name), and data were cleaned. In total, 401 participants accessed the Time 1 survey, and 331 had matched responses for time 1 and time 2 (N=85 missing; 82.5% retention). Individuals who missed any attention check items were flagged and removed from analysis (N=60), as well as those who reported working fewer than 24 hours per week (N=1). All the data were examined for outliers using Tabachnik and Fidell's (2001) guideline of identifying z scores over ±3.29 for variables being tested. Given this, 16 cases were flagged and removed from analysis. Multivariate outliers were examined using Cook's D as well, and no individual had a score higher than 1.00, meaning there were no flags. After this screening, there was a total sample of 258 participants with Time 1 and Time 2 data for analysis, with 101 in the Black group and 157 in the White group.

Participants ranged in age from 21-68, with the average age of 40.76 (SD = 10.80). Participants reported working between 24-72 hours per week (M = 40.92, SD

= 5.27). Overall, 55% identified as female, 44.2% identified as male, and .8% did not gender identify. Participants most frequently reported organizational tenure from 1-5 years (43.4%), followed by 6-10 years (22.5%), 15+ years (17.4%), 11-15 years (12.4%), and less than 1 year (4.3%). Industries were varied, but most individuals reported working within the following industries: Educational Services (14.7%), Health Care (13.6%), Retail (9.7%), Professional Scientific and Technological Services (9.3%), Finance & Insurance (7.8%) and Administrative Support (7.8%). Household income was also varied, with the largest percentage of participants reporting over $100,000 (20.5%), and equal portions (both 10.9%) reporting $40,000-$49,999 and $70,000-$79,999.

These were also examined by race and notable differences included the following: for industry, the White group was more well represented in Education (15.9% in the White group and 12.9% in the Black group) and Professional/Technical Services (10.8% in the White group and 6.9% in the Black group) industries, and the Black group was more well represented in Health Care (19.8% in the Black group compared to 9.6% in the White group). For tenure, more of the White group had over 15 years of experience (21.0% in the White group and 11.9% in the Black group), whereas the Black group was less tenured with half of the group reporting 1-5 years (50.5% in the Black group and 38.9% in the White group). This is shown in Tables 3.1 and 3.2 below.

Table 3.1. Employee industry

Industry	Percentage (Whole sample)	Percentage (White group)	Percentage (Black group)
Administrative Support	7.8%	7.0%	8.9%
Agriculture	0.8%	1.3%	0.0%
Arts/Entertainment/Recreation	2.3%	1.3%	4.0%
Construction	0.8%	0.0%	2.0%
Education Services	14.7%	15.9%	12.9%
Finance & Insurance	7.8%	8.3%	6.9%
Food Services	1.9%	2.5%	1.0%
Health Care	13.6%	9.6%	19.8%
Information	4.7%	5.7%	3.0%
Manufacturing	5.4%	7.0%	3.0%
Military	0.4%	0.6%	0.0%
Professional/Scientific/Technical Services	9.3%	10.8%	6.9%
Public Administration	3.9%	4.5%	3.0%
Real Estate	0.4%	0.0%	1.0%
Retail	9.7%	10.2%	8.9%
Social Assistance	1.2%	0.6%	2.0%
Student	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Transportation	4.3%	5.7%	2.0%
Utilities	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Warehouse	2.3%	0.6%	5.0%
Waste Management	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Wholesale Trade	0.4%	0.6%	0.0%
Other	8.5%	7.6%	9.9%

Table 3.2. Employee tenure

Tenure	Percentage (Whole sample)	Percentage (White group)	Percentage (Black group)
Less than 1 year	4.3%	4.5%	4.0%
1-5 years	43.4%	38.9%	50.5%
6-10 years	22.5%	22.3%	22.8%
11-15 years	12.4%	13.4%	10.9%
More than 15 years	17.4%	21.0%	11.9%

Supervisor race and racial similarity were part of the study, so this was examined in depth as well. Interestingly, the Black group reported that their supervisors were culturally similar to them (M = 3.33, SD = 1.34) on a 1 – 5 scale, while the White group found their supervisors less culturally similar (M = 1.97, SD = .92; t = 8.87, p < .01). Table 3.3 provides a breakdown of supervisor race, showing that 80.9% of the White group had White supervisors, while only 25.7% of the Black group had Black supervisors. This discrepancy between the reported cultural similarity and the supervisor demographics could be due to a difference in how the question of cultural similarity was interpreted. Going forward, hypothesis tests involving supervisor racial similarity are tested with both the reported similarity and the supervisor demographics.

Table 3.3. Supervisor race

Supervisor race	White group	Black group
Black/African-American	7 (4.5%)	26 (25.7%)
Asian-American/Pacific Islander	6 (3.8%)	-
Hispanic/Latino	8 (5.1%)	9 (8.9%)
American Indian	-	-
Middle Eastern	2 (1.3%)	2 (2.0%)
White/Caucasian	127 (80.9%)	62 (61.4%)
Multiracial	2 (1.3%)	-
Other (please specify)	3 (1.9%)	-
Do not wish to disclose	1 (1.0%)	1 (1.0%)
Do not know	1 (1.0%)	1 (1.0%)
Total	157 (100.0%)	101 (100.0%)

T-tests were conducted on study variables to examine whether significant differences exist between the two samples; results are presented in Table 3.4. The two groups were generally similar, but there was a difference in age and hours/week with the White group being older (White M = 42.57, Black M = 37.96) and working slightly more hours (White M = 41.60, Black M = 39.86). There were also differences

in job stress with the White group reporting higher stress (White M = 3.11, Black M = 2.74), although reported stress for both groups was low, below the midpoint of 4 on a 1-7 scale.

Table 3.4. Mean differences tests between the Black and White groups.

Variable	*t* value	*p* value	Interpretation
Age	-3.66	<.01	White group is significantly older White M = 42.57, SD = 11.76 Black M = 37.96, SD = 8.45
Hours/Week	-2.79	<.01	White group has more hours/week White M = 41.60, SD = 5.72 Black M = 39.86, SD = 4.81
Supervisor Similarity	8.87	<.01	Black group reported more cultural similarity with supervisors White M = 1.97, SD = 1.34 Black M = 3.33, SD = 0.92
Diversity Climate	-1.00	0.32	NSD
Trust-Affective	0.36	0.72	NSD
Trust-Cognitive	-0.18	0.85	NSD
Trust-Overall	0.09	0.93	NSD
Source Credibility	-0.22	0.82	NSD
Time 2- Feedback Seeking	-0.64	0.52	NSD
Time 2- Job Satisfaction	-0.67	0.50	NSD
Time 2- Job Stress	-2.23	0.02	White group reports higher job stress White M = 3.11, SD = 1.29 Black M = 2.74, SD = 1.14
Feedback Orientation	1.26	0.21	NSD
Learning Goal Orientation	-0.32	0.98	NSD
Job Complexity	-0.87	0.39	NSD
Job Autonomy	-0.53	0.60	NSD
Leader-Member Exchange	-0.33	0.74	NSD
Feedback Seeking-Monitoring	-0.22	0.83	NSD

Note: NSD= No significant difference.

Procedure

Potential participants read a description of the study on a HIT page in MTurk including a description of the study qualifications. From this page, those who met the qualifications and elected to participate were directed to a link that contained the time 1 survey materials and completed the surveys online hosted through Qualtrics. Before beginning the survey, participants were presented with an Informed Consent form that asked participants to provide their consent by clicking a button. Participants who did not consent at this point were redirected out of the Qualtrics survey.

Those who continued at time 1 completed an online survey including measures of demographics (including employee race and supervisor race), diversity climate, feedback seeking, trust, source credibility, racial identity, job satisfaction, work stress, and the control variables (feedback orientation, learning goal orientation, job complexity, and job autonomy). Two weeks after the initial time 1 survey was received, participants were invited to complete an additional online survey of the outcome variable measures.

Measures

All measures and questions included in the surveys are listed in Appendix A. Table 3.5 lists the order in which participants viewed the questions.

Demographic information. Participants were asked to give demographic and job-related information. Demographic items included questions about racioethnic background (Black = 1, White = 2), gender (Male = 1, Female = 2), age, socio-economic status, and education level. Job-related items included questions about employment status, number of hours worked per week, tenure (both with the current

organization and with their direct supervisor), frequency of interaction with their direct supervisor, racioethnicity of the direct supervisor (0 = Not racially similar, 1 = Racially similar), job title, industry, and organizational characteristics.

Diversity climate. Participants provided information about the favorability of the diversity climate in their current organization with their responses to the Authenticity of Diversity Management Scale (Smith, Morgan, King, Hebl, & Peddie, 2012). This is a 12-item scale in which responses are indicated on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = "Strongly Disagree" and 7 = "Strongly Agree." Sample items include "Top leaders are committed to diversity" and "Managers have open communication regarding the importance of diversity for our company." The internal consistency of the scale was $\alpha = .92$ for the original scale and $\alpha = .91$ for the adjusted scale. This scale's factor structure was examined, which resulted in the removal of one item; this is described in the Factor Analysis section of Results).

Feedback seeking. Participants provided information about how often they directly seek feedback via inquiry from their supervisor using an adapted version of the Combined Feedback Inquiry Scale (Dahling, Chau, & O'Malley, 2012). This scale demonstrated higher reliability than the individual scales, and has been used in other research (Dahling, O'Malley, & Chau, 2015). Regarding the adaption made, the prior scale included some items asking how often individuals "sought out" feedback, this language was changed to be consistent with the other items that asked how often they "asked for" feedback. This scale consists of 7 items describing different behaviors with responses indicating how frequently participants engage in each behavior from a scale of 1 = "Never" and 5 = "Very Frequently." Sample items

include “Asked for critiques from your boss” and “Asked for your boss’s opinion of your work.” The internal consistency of the scale was α = .92.

Trust. Participants provided information about their trust in their direct supervisor by responding to the Interpersonal Trust Scale created by McAllister (1995). This scale has demonstrated strong reliability and validity evidence both in English and Chinese contexts (Ding & Ng, 2007; McAllister, 1995). This is an 11-item scale with affect- and cognition-based trust dimensions, in which responses are indicated on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1= “Strongly Disagree” and 7 = “Strongly Agree.” Sample items include “I can talk freely to this individual about feelings I am having at work and know that (s)he will want to listen.” Reliabilities of affect- and cognition-based trust measures were α = .91 and α = .89, respectively.

Source Credibility. Participants’ perceptions of the credibility of their direct supervisors as a source of feedback were measured with the Source Credibility Subscale of the Feedback Environment Scale (Steelman, Levy, & Snell, 2004). This scale has demonstrated reliability, construct, and discriminant validity and is commonly used in feedback research (Rosen, Levy, & Hall, 2006; Whitaker, Dahling, & Levy, 2007). This is a 5-item scale in which responses are indicated on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = “Strongly Disagree” and 7 = “Strongly Agree.” A sample item is “In general, I respect my supervisor’s opinions about my job performance.” The internal consistency of the scale was α = .84.

Black Racial Identity. Participants who indicate their race as Black provided information about their identity in the Centrality Subscale of the Revised Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (Sellers, Rowley, Chavous, Shelton, &

Smith, 1997). This scale has demonstrated prior reliability and construct validity evidence, and is commonly used (Sellers & Shelton, 2003; Sellers et al., 2003). This is a 7-item scale where responses are marked from 1 = "Strongly Disagree" to 7 = "Strongly Agree." A sample item is "In general, being Black is an important part of my self-image." The internal consistency of the scale was α = .90.

Supervisor-Subordinate Racial Similarity. The racial similarity of supervisor-subordinate dyads was coded based on responses to the demographic question in which participants indicate the race of their direct supervisor. Those in dissimilar dyads were coded as 0 and those in racially similar dyads were coded with a 1. This approach has been used in previous studies (Avery et al., 2007). The item "To what extent is your supervisor culturally similar to you?," which was rated on 1 - 5 scale, as a way to capture a similar but distinct construct of supervisor similarity.

Job Satisfaction. Participants' perceptions of overall satisfaction with their job were measured with the Brief Job Satisfaction Scale, which has demonstrated reliability and convergent validity evidence (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). This is a 5-item scale in which responses are indicated on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = "Strongly disagree" and 7 = "Strongly agree." An example item is "Most days I am enthusiastic about my work." The internal consistency of the scale was α = .93.

Work stress. Participants' perceptions of the amount of stress they experience at work were measured with the Job Stress Scale (Judge, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1994). This scale was developed as an alternative to more established, but very long, scales by including similar items to those in other measures, and thus demonstrating face validity in addition to reliability. Participants indicate the extent to which each of 16

items produces stress at work for them on a scale from 1 = “Produces no stress” to 5 = “Produces a great deal of stress.” Sample items include “The amount of time I spend in meetings,” and “The lack of job security I have.” The internal consistency of the scale was α = .92.

Feedback Orientation. Participants provided information about their overall receptivity to feedback with their answers to the Feedback Orientation Scale (Linderbaum & Levy, 2010). This scale has demonstrated reliability and construct validity evidence, and is commonly used in feedback research (Dahling et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2015). This is a 20-item scale in which responses are measured on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = “Strongly disagree” and 5 = “Strongly agree.” Sample items include “I find that feedback is critical for reaching my goals,” and “I don’t feel a sense of closure until I respond to feedback.” The internal consistency of the scale was α = .92.

Learning Goal Orientation. Learning goal orientation was measured with participants’ responses to the Learning Goal Orientation subscale of the Work Domain Goal Orientation Scale, which has demonstrated evidence of reliability and construct validity (VandeWalle, 1997). This is a 5-item scale in which responses are measured on a 6-point Likert scale where 1 = “Strongly disagree” and 6 = “Strongly agree.” A sample item is “I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I’ll learn new skills.” The internal consistency of the scale was α = .92.

Job Complexity. Job complexity was measured with participants’ responses to the Job Complexity Subscale of the Job Diagnostic Survey, which has demonstrated reliability and construct validity across many job types (JDS; Hackman

& Oldham, 1974). This is a 3-item scale in which responses are measured on a 7-point Likert scale describing the accuracy of statements about one's job such that 1 = "Very inaccurate" and 7 = "Very accurate." A sample item is "My job is quite simple and repetitive." The internal consistency of the scale was α = .79.

Job Autonomy. Autonomy was measured with participants' responses to the Autonomy Subscale of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS; Hackman & Oldham, 1974). This is a 3-item scale in which responses are measured on a 7-point Likert scale describing the accuracy of statements about one's job such that 1 = "Very inaccurate" and 7 = "Very accurate." A sample item is "My job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my work." The internal consistency of the scale was α = .74.

LMX. LMX was measured with participant's responses to the Leader-Member Exchange Scale, the most consistently used measure of the construct, which has consistently demonstrated reliability and validity (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994). This is a seven-item scale in which responses are measured on a 5-point Likert scale describing the accuracy of statements about one's supervisor on a scale from 1 = "Not at all" and 5 = "Fully." A sample item is "How well does your leader recognize your potential?" The internal consistency of the scale was α = .89.

Feedback Seeking via Monitoring. As a supplementary exploratory measure, an additional scale was included of feedback seeking via monitoring (Roberson, Deitch, Brief, & Block, 2003). The scale was developed by combining items from two previously validated scales, and has clear face validity and internal consistency evidence. This scale consists of 7 items asking participants how often they engage in

activities on a 5 point Likert scale from 1= “Very infrequently” to 5 = “Very frequently.” A sample item is: “Compare yourself with your peers.” The internal consistency of the scale was α = .88.

Attention Check Items. Seven items developed by Huang, Liu, and Bowling (2015) were randomly included throughout the survey to identify insufficient effort responding. How participants respond is indicative of whether they have paid attention to the questions presented in the survey. Sample items include “I can run 2 miles in 2 min,” and “I eat cement occasionally.” Response scores for the items will depend on the scale they are inserted into, but responses should disagree with the items. Participants who responded to any of the questions incorrectly (i.e., expressed agreement), were dropped from analysis.

Analytic Strategy

Hypotheses were tested using feedback seeking, job satisfaction, and job stress scales from the time 2 survey and all other scores from the time 1 survey. To explore hypotheses 1-3, which specify moderated models via interaction effects, the statistical model was tested using the PROCESS macro model 1 (Hayes, 2013). To test hypotheses 5 and 6, which specify mediation models via indirect effects, the statistical model was tested in SPSS using the PROCESS macro model 4 template (Hayes, 2013). Hypotheses 7 and 8, which specify serial mediation, were tested using the PROCESS macro model 6 template. All hypotheses in the current study are summarized in Table 2.1 and statistical models which were used in analyses are presented in Appendix B.

Table 3.5: Measures and order of presentation

Order	Time point	Construct	Measure	# of items
1	1	Personal demographics	Age, gender, racioethnicity, yearly household income, education level	5
2	1	Job-related demographics	Employment status, hours worked weekly, organizational tenure, industry, job level, job title, job tenure, direct supervisor, supervisor tenure, frequency of interaction with supervisor, supervisor racioethnicity, gender of supervisor.	12
3	1	Diversity climate	Authenticity of Diversity Management Scale (Smith et al., 2012)	12
4	1	Feedback seeking (inquiry)	Combined Feedback Inquiry Scale (Dahling et al., 2012)	7
5	1	Trust	Interpersonal Trust Scale (McAllister, 1995)	11
6	1	Source credibility	Source Credibility Facet of the Feedback Environment Scale (Steelman et al., 2004)	5
7	1	Racial identity	Centrality Subscale of the Revised Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity (Sellers et al., 2003)	7
9	1	Feedback orientation	Feedback Orientation Scale (Linderbaum & Levy, 2010)	20
10	1	Learning Goal Orientation	Learning Goal Orientation Subscale of the Work Domain Goal Orientation Scale (VandeWalle, 1997)	5
11	1	Job Complexity	Job Complexity Subscale of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS; Hackman & Oldham, 1974)	3
12	1	Job Autonomy	Autonomy Subscale of the JDS (Hackman & Oldham, 1974)	3
13	1	LMX	Leader-Member Exchange Scale (Scandura & Schrieshem, 1994)	7
14	1	Feedback seeking (monitoring)	Feedback-seeking scale (Roberson, Deitch, Brief, & Block, 2003)	7
1	2	Job satisfaction	Brief Job Satisfaction Scale (Judge et al., 1998)	5
2	2	Work stress	Job Stress Scale (Parker & DeCotiis, 1983)	13
N/A	Both	Attention Check Items	Insufficient Effort Responding Items (Huang et al., 2015)	8

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Factor Analysis of Diversity Climate Measure

Factor analysis was conducted to better understand the measure of Diversity Climate, which was captured with the Authenticity of Diversity Management scale originally used by Smith et al., 2012. This scale consisted of 12 items that Smith et al. (2012) describe were intended to capture diversity climate, which they define as the extent to which there is a focus on having a diverse workforce and integrating all employees regardless of background. This definition aligns with most of the work in the diversity climate literature (Dwertman et al, 2016; McKay & Avery, 2015), and is similar to how it is conceptualized and defined in the present study. Smith and colleagues (2012) developed this scale by adding 8 items to a 4-item subscale (titled the organizational inclusion dimension) of an existing measure by Mor Barak and colleagues (1998). Smith et al (2012) developed additional items based on related work of other individuals in the literature (McKay et al., 2007, 2008; Roberson, 2006). The scale had a reliability of $\alpha = .88$ in the Smith et al study. Overall, the scale has high face validity as the items appear highly relevant to the way the construct is defined, which is why it was used in the present study. However, because the factor structure had not been previously examined, I conducted factor analysis to identify latent constructs in the measure.

Following the recommendations of Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, and Strahan (1999), a series of exploratory factor analyses (EFA) were conducted with various extractions and rotation methods, while taking the content of the items into consideration. Using the Kaiser Criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1, as well as a visual examination of a scree plot, two factors were interpretable. A parallel analysis estimate, which is considered one of the best procedures for determining number of factors, was also examined by comparing Eigenvalues with mean Eigenvalues from randomly generated correlation matrices on a web application developed by Vivek, Singh, Mishra, & Donovan (2017). This suggested interpreting two factors as well (specifically, the Eigenvalues for 1 and 2 factors of 6.80 and 1.32 were larger than the corresponding random Eigenvalues of 1.37 and 1.26, while the value of .80 for a third factor was less than the randomly generated 1.19); thus, it was decided to go forward with two factors.

Using a Maximum Likelihood (ML) extraction with a Direct Oblimin rotation produced the cleanest structure, and this was examined in greater depth. The ML extraction is considered preferable, and the rotation is appropriate because it allows for relationships among the factors, which would be expected, rather than having the factors be orthogonal or uncorrelated (Fabrigar et al., 1999). Further, Thurstone's (1947) simple structure criterion supports this as well, meaning that the solution with the best "simple structure" is the most psychologically meaningful and replicable. This was conducted with a .4 suppression cutoff. A two-factor structure emerged, which I interpret as follows: Factor 1. Formal aspects of diversity climate, such as policies and explicit diversity efforts (Items 8, 7, 4, 2, 10 and 1); Factor 2. Informal

aspects of diversity climate, such as practices, behavior, and less structured diversity efforts (Items 9, 11, 6, 3, and 5). See Table 4.1 for the factor loadings in the initial EFA.

Upon examining this structure, one item (Item 12) was flagged because of cross-loadings and conceptual differences with the remaining items: "*The organization as a whole emphasizes inclusion of diverse perspectives in all processes, policies, and procedures*." Specifically, the present study conceptualization of diversity climate focused on fair practices and social integration, which has been called the "diversity perspective," and which the 11 other items appear to reflect. On the other hand, item 12's mention of "inclusion of diverse perspectives in all processes" aligns more closely with an alternative, "inclusion perspective" of diversity climate, referring to a focus on how diverse employees interact in order to leverage synergistic potential. This conceptual distinction within the measure- the inclusion of an item reflecting a different facet of diversity climate, was highlighted in a review of diversity climate measures by Dwertman et al. (2016). For these reasons, item 12 was removed from the measure for all analyses in the current study.

With item 12 removed, another ML extraction with a Direct Oblimin rotation and the same suppression cutoff was run. This analysis revealed a clear pattern matrix with the same two factors and each item loading where expected (specifically, items loading above the cutoff of .4 on a factor were considered as loading onto that factor). See Table 4.2 for all items and factor loadings of the final EFA.

Table 4.1. EFA results: Initial pattern matrix of diversity climate items

#	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
8	Managers publicize principles for diversity.	**.929**	.095
7	Managers have open communication with regard to the importance of diversity for our company.	**.837**	-.097
4	The company spends enough time and money on diversity awareness and related training.	**.720**	-.051
2	There is a mentoring program in use here that identifies and prepares all minority and female employees for promotion.	**.708**	.098
10	Top leaders are committed to diversity.	**.633**	-.331
1	Management here encourages the formation of employee network support groups.	**.488**	-.068
9	Managers respect the perspectives of people, regardless of ethnicity, gender, age, or social background.	-.058	**-.942**
11	Managers strive to be inclusive of all employees, regardless of ethnicity, gender, age, or social background.	-.007	**-.897**
6	Managers here offer equal access to training programs, regardless of factors such as ethnicity, gender, age, or social background.	.030	**-.729**
3	The 'old boy's' network is alive and well here.*	.027	**-.543**
5	Managers here recruit new employees from diverse sources.	.382	**-.414**
12	The organization as a whole emphasizes inclusion of diverse perspectives in all processes, policies, and procedures.	.471	-.456

Note. EFA = Exploratory Factor Analysis; Extraction method: Maximum Likelihood; Rotation Method: Direct Oblimin; N= 258; Factor 1: Diversity climate- Formal, Factor 2: Diversity climate- Informal; *Item 3 was reverse-scored prior to factor analysis.

Table 4.2. EFA results: Final pattern matrix of diversity climate items

#	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
8	Managers publicize principles for diversity.	.931	_
7	Managers have open communication with regard to the importance of diversity for our company.	.825	_
4	The company spends enough time and money on diversity awareness and related training.	.724	_
2	There is a mentoring program in use here that identifies and prepares all minority and female employees for promotion.	.708	_
10	Top leaders are committed to diversity.	.626	_
1	Management here encourages the formation of employee network support groups.	.485	_
9	Managers respect the perspectives of people, regardless of ethnicity, gender, age, or social background.	_	-.940
11	Managers strive to be inclusive of all employees, regardless of ethnicity, gender, age, or social background.	_	-.887
6	Managers here offer equal access to training programs, regardless of factors such as ethnicity, gender, age, or social background.	_	-.736
3	The 'old boy's' network is alive and well here.*	_	-.541
5	Managers here recruit new employees from diverse sources.	_	-.422

Note. EFA = Exploratory Factor Analysis; Extraction method: Maximum Likelihood; Rotation Method: Direct Oblimin; N= 258; Loadings below .40 are suppressed. Factor 1: Diversity climate- Formal, Factor 2: Diversity climate- Informal; *Item 3 was reverse-scored.

Table 4.3. Descriptive statistics for diversity climate factors

		M	SD	1	2
Factor 1	Overall	4.36	1.39	(.89)	
	White Group	4.39	1.37		
	Black Group	4.32	1.44		
Factor 2	Overall	5.26	1.23	.66**	(.86)
	White Group	5.36	1.21		
	Black Group	5.10	1.25		

N=258. **$p < .01$. Means and standard deviations for each factor were determined from unit weighted scale scores. Reliability coefficient **α** for each factor is on the diagonal, while the correlation between Factor 1: Fair Practices and Factor 2: Social Integration is on the bottom left.

Following this, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was run. Although this was done after determining the number of factors in an exploratory manner in the

same data set, this approach was used to gain further insight into the two-factor structure by examining multiple fit indices that can lend additional support to the structure. In the future, it would be recommended to test this with a different dataset (Fabrigar et al., 1999). This purpose of this technique is to verify a hypothesized factor structure, which in this case was modeled according to the factor structure presented in Table 4.2, with Factor 1 (Formal) consisting of Items 8, 7, 4, 2, 10, and 1, and Factor 2 (Informal) consisting of Items 9, 11, 6, 3, and 5. Several fit indices were used to provide a holistic assessment of model adequacy: comparative fit index (CFI) = .92, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .90 root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) =.115, and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) =.065. For CFI and TLI, values of .90 or higher are considered acceptable, and for the RMSEA and SRMR indices, values below .08 are indicative of good fit (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Taken together, the CFI, TFI, and SRMR values indicate adequate fit, and the RMSEA does not reach the desired level; still, this lends further support to the two-factor model shown in Table 4.2.

Descriptive statistics for the two factors, including correlations between the two factors are in Table 4.3. Factors 1 and 2 were strongly positively correlated, $r = .66$, $p < .01$, and each has high reliability: $\alpha = .89$ and $\alpha = .86$, respectively. Both the Formal factor (Factor 1, M = 4.36, SD = 1.39) and Informal factor (Factor 2, M = 5.26, SD = 1.23) showed slightly positive perceptions of diversity climate, near the midpoint of 4 on a 1-7 scale, although responses were more favorable for Informal. Correlations between the factors and main study variables are in Tables 4.5 through 4.7. Generally, the same patterns of relationships were observed for each of the

diversity climate factors as the overall scale. Specifically, diversity climate was positively related to overall trust (Overall r = .53, p < .01; F1 r = .50, p < .01; F2 r = .47, p < .01), feedback-seeking at T2 (Overall r = .25, p < .01; F2 r = .29, p < .01; F2 r = .16, p < .05), job satisfaction at T2 (Overall r = .54, p < .01; F1 r = .55, p < .01; F2 r = .44, p < .01), and negatively related to job stress at T2 (Overall r = -.38, p < .01; F1 r = -.37, p < .01; F2 r = -.32, p < .01).

Because the study relied on two samples, the measurement invariance of the scale across White and Black subgroups was considered. Measurement invariance is used to determine whether items and underlying constructs mean the same thing to members of different groups (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Here, the concern was whether the two-factor structure, represented by two facets of diversity climate, held across groups. Measurement invariance is established with four tests, which are ordered from least to most stringent: factor form (whether there are the same number of factors across groups; the baseline model), factor loadings (whether the factor loadings are the same across groups), factor variances-covariances (whether factor interrelationships are the same across groups), and error variances (i.e., whether measurement error is the same across groups). Satisfaction of equal factor loadings is of interest in this case, and is considered the minimum standard to establish invariance (Raju, Lafitte, & Byrne, 2002; Riese, Widaman, & Pugh, 1993).

Each measurement invariance assumption was evaluated with the CFI statistic, which is highly robust to factor model complexity and is commonly reported by researchers. As a guide, a change in model fit of .001 or less represents a nonsignificant change in fit after imposing an additional equality constraint (Cheung

& Rensvold, 2002). The results of these tests are noted in Table 4.4. First, the baseline model shows adequate fit (CFI = .916, RMSEA = .12). Specifying equal factor loadings did not result in a significant decrease in fit (Δ CFI = .001), meaning invariance in factor loadings is supported. The next test of equal variances-covariances resulted in a worse fit (Δ CFI = .003), suggesting noninvariance on this criteria. But with the test of equal factor loadings supported, indicating partial invariance, it was decided to go forward with the two-factor model. This is reasonable because the question of whether the factor structure (equal factor loadings) holds across the two groups was supported, while noninvariance in the more stringent tests was not necessary in this case.

Table 4.4. Fit statistics for measurement invariance tests across racial groups

Model	df	$\chi 2$	Δ $\chi 2$	CFI	Δ CFI	RMSEA	AIC	BIC
Equal factors	86	244.43	--	.916	--	.12	9170.5	9412.1
Equal factor loadings	95	251.06	6.64	.917	.001	.11	9159.1	9368.1
Equal variances-covariances	104	265.63	14.57	.914	.003	.11	9155.7	9333.3
Equal error variances	106	270.07	4.43	.913	.001	.11	9156.1	9326.7

N = 258.

Overall, this effort to understand the factor structure provided insight into two important aspects of diversity climate that are captured in the Smith et al. (2012) measure, formal policies and informal practices, which together make up the extent to which an organization has a supportive diversity climate. Both aspects are important because a company that has fair policies and dedicates resources and training to diversity goals without buy-in from employees to carry these out would likely not result in experiences of inclusion. On the other hand, in an organization where

individuals carry out fair and inclusive practices, a lack of company support or formal structure limits the effectiveness of these efforts. Since both factors capture important parts of the construct, and since the two are highly positively correlated, the hypotheses are explored with the overall scale including both factors. As a note, testing the hypotheses with each factor individually resulted in the same overall pattern of results.

Descriptive Statistics

All means, standard deviations, and correlations are available in Table 4.5 for demographic and main variables with the overall sample. Tables 4.6 and 4.7 list group means, standard deviations, and correlations. Participants in the study reported slightly positive perceptions of diversity climate (M = 4.77, SD = 1.21), with a mean that is close to the midpoint of 4 on a 1-7 scale. Reported feedback-seeking behavior via inquiry at Time 2 was moderate, at about the midpoint of the 1-5 scale (Time 2 M = 2.70, SD = 0.80). Overall trust in the supervisor was high (M = 5.17, SD = 1.15), as was source credibility (M = 5.74, SD = 0.99), each on a 1-7 scale. Reported attitudes were positive for job satisfaction (M = 4.93, SD = 1.51) on a 1-7 scale, and relatively low for job stress (Time 2 M = 2.97, SD = 1.24), also on a 1-7 scale. The low level of reported job stress is surprising; more so when considering that the Black group reported lower job stress compared with the White group. Black employees typically report experiencing more job stress (Wadsworth et al., 2006), and this group was well-represented in healthcare which is considered a high-stress field.

As expected, diversity climate was positively related to feedback seeking by inquiry, (r = .26, p <.01), trust in the supervisor (r = .53, p < .01) and perceptions of

source credibility (r = .47, p < .01), job satisfaction (r = .54, r = < .01), and negatively related to job stress (r = -.38, p <.01). Diversity climate was positively related to feedback seeking by monitoring as well (r = .16, p <.01). Trust was positively related to feedback seeking (r = .33, p <.01), as was source credibility (r = .24, p < .01). Feedback seeking was positively related to job satisfaction (r = .23, p < .01), but surprisingly was not related to job stress (r = -.04, p = .55). These relationships were similar in the White group, but some differences emerged in the Black group. Specifically, diversity climate was not related to feedback seeking by inquiry (r = .06, p = .54), two dimensions of trust were not related to feedback seeking (Cognitive trust r = .16, p = .11; Source Credibility r = .08, p = .44), and feedback seeking was not related to job satisfaction (r = .13, p = .21). Surprisingly, the measure of Black centrality in the Black group did not relate to any of the focal study variables, as expected in the hypotheses.

Several variables were included as potential control variables: age, gender, tenure, feedback orientation, learning goal orientation, job complexity, job autonomy, and leader-member exchange. Gender was not related to any of the study variables and therefore was not included in subsequent analyses, but each of the other variables were.

Table 4.5. Overall sample means, standard deviations, and correlations study variables.

		Mean	St. Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Age	40.76	10.80	---									
2	Gender	1.57	0.51	0.06	---								
3	Race	1.61	0.49	.21**	-.14*	---							
4	Hours/Week	40.92	5.27	0.12	-0.08	.16**	---						
5	Tenure	2.95	1.20	.49**	-0.03	.13*	.24**	---					
6	Supervisor Similarity	2.50	1.29	-.14*	0.10	-.51**	-0.07	-0.11	---				
7	Diversity Climate (DC)	4.77	1.21	0.06	-0.08	0.06	0.06	0.09	-.15*	---			
8	DC- Formal	4.36	1.39	0.05	-0.10	0.02	0.07	0.12	-0.11	.94**	---		
9	DC- Informal	5.26	1.23	0.06	-0.04	0.10	0.03	0.04	-.18**	.88**	.67**	---	
10	Trust-Affective	4.79	1.37	-0.05	-0.02	-0.02	0.11	0.12	-.21**	.51**	.49**	.43**	---
11	Trust-Cognitive	5.49	1.19	-0.03	-0.01	0.01	0.07	-0.01	-.23**	.45**	.41**	.42**	.65**
12	Trust-Overall	5.17	1.15	-0.04	-0.02	-0.01	0.10	0.06	-.24**	.53**	.50**	.47**	.90**
13	Source Credibility	5.74	0.99	-0.01	0.04	0.01	0.03	0.01	-.20**	.47**	.39**	.48**	.61**
14	Black Centrality	5.09	1.44	-0.01	.26**	---	0.04	0.06	0.12	0.02	0.00	0.05	-0.01
15	Time 2- Feedback Seeking	2.70	0.80	-.23**	-0.07	0.04	.14*	-0.10	-0.01	.26**	.29**	.16*	.33**
16	Time 2- Job Satisfaction	4.93	1.51	.24**	-0.07	0.04	.12*	.27**	-0.08	.54**	.55**	.42**	.45**
17	Time 2- Job Stress	2.97	1.24	-.24**	0.00	.15*	0.03	-0.10	-0.02	-.38**	-.36**	-.32**	-.26**
18	Feedback Orientation	3.96	0.58	-0.06	0.10	-0.08	0.08	-0.03	0.08	.36**	.36**	.27**	.32**
19	Learning Goal Orientation	4.75	0.89	0.00	0.00	0.00	.13*	0.00	0.07	.34**	.35**	.27**	.30**
20	Job Complexity	5.26	1.30	.17**	-0.07	0.05	.23**	.23**	-0.05	.24**	.27**	.15*	.25**
21	Job Autonomy	5.47	1.19	0.04	0.02	0.03	.15*	.15*	-0.03	.19**	.23**	0.11	.27**
22	Leader-Member Exchange	3.73	0.74	0.04	0.03	0.02	.13*	0.11	-.16*	.52**	.50**	.43**	.76**
23	Feedback Seeking- Monitoring	3.25	0.79	-.13*	0.08	0.01	-0.10	-0.10	-0.04	.16**	.15*	.15*	.19**

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. N=258.

Table 4.5. *(Continued)*

	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
1 Age												
2 Gender												
3 Race												
4 Hours/Week												
5 Tenure												
6 Supervisor Similarity												
7 Diversity Climate (DC)												
8 DC- Formal												
9 DC- Informal												
10 Trust-Affective												
11 Trust-Cognitive	---											
12 Trust-Overall	.91**	---										
13 Source Credibility	.79**	.78**	---									
14 Black Centrality	0.04	0.02	0.13	---								
15 Time 2- Feedback Seeking	.26**	.33**	.24**	-0.01	---							
16 Time 2- Job Satisfaction	.36**	.44**	.38**	0.05	.23**	---						
17 Time 2- Job Stress	-.25**	-.28**	-.24**	0.08	-0.04	-.58**	---					
18 Feedback Orientation	.33**	.36**	.40**	.21*	.42**	.26**	-0.10	---				
19 Learning Goal Orientation	.28**	.32**	.30**	0.17	.28**	.38**	-.21**	.55**	---			
20 Job Complexity	.19**	.24**	.21**	0.06	.27**	.38**	-0.08	.28**	.44**	---		
21 Job Autonomy	.19**	.25**	.19**	0.00	.14*	.33**	-.18**	0.10	.30**	.33**	---	
22 Leader-Member Exchange	.67**	.79**	.70**	0.09	.30**	.51**	-.35**	.40**	.39**	.27**	.24**	---
23 Feedback Seeking- Monitoring	.18**	.20**	.18**	.23*	.26**	0.04	.19**	.42**	.12*	0.11	-0.05	.14*

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. N=258.

Table 4.6. White group means, standard deviations, and correlations.

		Mean	St. Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Age	42.57	11.75	---									
2	Gender	1.51	0.51	0.15	1.00								
3	Race	2.00	0.00	---	---	---							
4	Hours/Week	41.60	5.72	0.03	-0.06	---	---						
5	Tenure	3.08	1.24	.48**	0.01	---	0.12	---					
6	Supervisor Similarity	1.97	0.92	-0.05	0.00	---	0.00	-0.05	---				
7	Diversity Climate (DC)	4.83	1.17	0.01	-0.10	---	0.01	0.09	-0.07	---			
8	DC- Formal	4.39	1.37	0.01	-0.13	---	0.05	0.10	-0.04	.93**	---		
9	DC- Informal	5.36	1.21	0.00	-0.04	---	-0.04	0.05	-0.09	.87**	.64**	---	
10	Trust-Affective	4.76	1.36	-0.09	-0.01	---	0.07	0.07	-.32**	.48**	.42**	.46**	---
11	Trust-Cognitive	5.50	1.24	-0.07	0.01	---	0.06	-0.05	-.34**	.44**	.39**	.41**	.67**
12	Trust-Overall	5.17	1.18	-0.08	0.00	---	0.07	0.01	-.36**	.50**	.44**	.48**	.91**
13	Source Credibility	5.75	1.02	-0.07	0.02	---	0.03	-0.01	-.29**	.51**	.41**	.54**	.68**
14	Black Centrality	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
15	Time 2- Feedback Seeking	2.73	0.78	-.34**	-0.03	---	0.12	-.19*	-0.04	.39**	.41**	.29**	.39**
16	Time 2- Job Satisfaction	4.98	1.54	.22**	-0.04	---	0.05	.21**	-0.15	.60**	.61**	.44**	.49**
17	Time 2- Job Stress	3.11	1.29	-.23**	-0.03	---	0.03	-0.10	0.10	-.44**	-.42**	-.37**	-.32**
18	Feedback Orientation	3.92	0.59	-0.05	0.09	---	0.04	-0.05	-0.04	.37**	.38**	.28**	.32**
19	Learning Goal Orientation	4.75	0.93	0.02	0.00	---	0.10	-0.04	0.04	.32**	.34**	.23**	.27**
20	Job Complexity	5.32	1.25	0.15	-0.09	---	.21**	0.14	-0.02	.28**	.31**	.17*	.32**
21	Job Autonomy	5.50	1.11	0.00	0.05	---	0.13	0.14	-0.04	.21**	.23**	0.15	.25**
22	Leader-Member Exchange	3.74	0.74	0.02	0.07	---	0.10	0.04	-.22**	.48**	.42**	.45**	.74**
23	Feedback Seeking- Monitoring	3.26	0.77	-0.15	0.10	---	-.16*	-0.15	-0.05	0.09	0.07	0.09	.16*

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. N=157.

Table 4.6. *(continued)*

		11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
1	Age												
2	Gender												
3	Race												
4	Hours/Week												
5	Tenure												
6	Supervisor Similarity												
7	Diversity Climate (DC)												
8	DC- Formal												
9	DC- Informal												
10	Trust-Affective												
11	Trust-Cognitive	---											
12	Trust-Overall	.92**	---										
13	Source Credibility	.82**	.82**	---									
14	Black Centrality	---	---	---	---								
15	Time 2- Feedback Seeking	.32**	.39**	.34**	---	---							
16	Time 2- Job Satisfaction	.41**	.49**	.44**	---	.30**	---						
17	Time 2- Job Stress	-.29**	-.33**	-.28**	---	-0.03	-.65**	---					
18	Feedback Orientation	.31**	.34**	.41**	---	.44**	.33**	-.18*	---				
19	Learning Goal Orientation	.27**	.29**	.29**	---	.23**	.41**	-.34**	.51**	---			
20	Job Complexity	.22**	.29**	.21**	---	.32**	.44**	-0.11	.27**	.49**	---		
21	Job Autonomy	.22**	.25**	.24**	---	.16*	.39**	-.24**	0.14	.35**	.41**	---	
22	Leader-Member Exchange	.70**	.79**	.74**	---	.37**	.56**	-.44**	.39**	.37**	.31**	.25**	---
23	Feedback Seeking- Monitoring	0.13	.16*	.22**	---	.37**	0.05	.16*	.37**	0.06	0.06	-0.05	0.07

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. N=157.

Table 4.7. Black group means, standard deviations, and correlations

		Mean	St. Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Age	37.96	8.45	---									
2	Gender	1.65	0.50	-0.04	---								
3	Race	1.00	0.00	---	---	---							
4	Hours/Week	39.86	4.29	.25*	-0.05	---	---						
5	Tenure	2.76	1.10	.47**	-0.04	---	.48**	---					
6	Supervisor Similarity	3.33	1.34	-0.02	0.08	---	0.03	-0.06	---				
7	Diversity Climate (DC)	4.68	1.25	0.14	-0.02	---	0.12	0.08	-.22*	---			
8	DC- Formal	4.32	1.44	0.13	-0.03	---	0.11	0.13	-0.19	.95**	---		
9	DC- Informal	5.10	1.25	0.13	0.00	---	0.12	-0.01	-.22*	.90**	.71**	---	
10	Trust-Affective	4.83	1.40	0.05	-0.05	---	.22*	.21*	-.21*	.55**	.60**	.39**	---
11	Trust-Cognitive	5.48	1.11	0.04	-0.04	---	0.09	0.07	-0.19	.48**	.45**	.43**	.61**
12	Trust-Overall	5.18	1.11	0.05	-0.05	---	0.17	0.15	-.22*	.58**	.59**	.46**	.90**
13	Source Credibility	5.72	0.96	0.10	0.07	---	0.03	0.05	-0.16	.40**	.36**	.39**	.52**
14	Black Centrality	5.09	1.44	-0.01	.26**	---	0.04	0.06	0.12	0.02	0.00	0.05	-0.01
15	Time 2- Feedback Seeking	2.66	0.83	-0.06	-0.12	---	0.17	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.13	-0.05	.26**
16	Time 2- Job Satisfaction	4.85	1.48	.28**	-0.11	---	.27**	.38**	0.02	.45**	.45**	.38**	.39**
17	Time 2- Job Stress	2.74	1.14	-.39**	0.10	---	-0.06	-0.17	0.03	-.33**	-.30**	-.30**	-0.15
18	Feedback Orientation	4.02	0.57	-0.03	0.09	---	.22*	0.03	0.14	.34**	.34**	.29**	.32**
19	Learning Goal Orientation	4.75	0.84	-0.05	0.01	---	.20*	0.08	0.14	.38**	.36**	.33**	.36**
20	Job Complexity	5.17	1.36	.21*	-0.03	---	.26**	.38**	-0.02	0.19	.23*	0.10	0.15
21	Job Autonomy	5.42	1.30	0.11	-0.01	---	0.17	0.18	0.00	0.16	.22*	0.05	.30**
22	Leader-Member Exchange	3.71	0.73	0.07	-0.01	---	.20*	.24*	-0.13	.58**	.62**	.41**	.79**
23	Feedback Seeking- Monitoring	3.24	0.81	-0.10	0.06	---	0.00	-0.03	-0.02	.26**	.25*	.23*	.22*

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. N=101.

Table 4.7. *(continued)*

		11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
1	Age												
2	Gender												
3	Race												
4	Hours/Week												
5	Tenure												
6	Supervisor Similarity												
7	Diversity Climate (DC)												
8	DC- Formal												
9	DC- Informal												
10	Trust-Affective												
11	Trust-Cognitive	---											
12	Trust-Overall	.89**	---										
13	Source Credibility	.73**	.69**	---									
14	Black Centrality	0.04	0.02	0.13	---								
15	Time 2- Feedback Seeking	0.16	.24*	0.08	-0.01	---							
16	Time 2- Job Satisfaction	.26**	.37**	.29**	0.05	0.13	---						
17	Time 2- Job Stress	-0.17	-0.18	-0.17	0.08	-0.06	-.50**	---					
18	Feedback Orientation	.39**	.39**	.39**	.21*	.40**	0.15	0.07	---				
19	Learning Goal Orientation	.31**	.38**	.33**	0.17	.35**	.31**	0.04	.62**	---			
20	Job Complexity	0.15	0.17	.21*	0.06	.20*	.28**	-0.06	.31**	.35**	---		
21	Job Autonomy	0.16	.26**	0.12	0.00	0.11	.25*	-0.12	0.05	.24*	.22*	---	
22	Leader-Member Exchange	.62**	.79**	.63**	0.09	0.18	.42**	-.21*	.41**	.42**	.21*	.23*	---
23	Feedback Seeking- Monitoring	.26**	.27**	0.13	.23*	0.10	0.03	.25*	.50**	.23*	0.18	-0.065	.24*

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$. N=101.

Hypothesis Testing

As a general note, each of the following analyses were tested with the following control variables in the respective models: Feedback Orientation, Learning Goal Orientation, Job Complexity, Job Autonomy, Leader-Member Exchange, Age, and Tenure.

Moderated effects of diversity climate on outcomes. Hypothesis 1 stated that employee race would moderate the relationship between diversity climate perceptions and (a) trust in the supervisor, (b) feedback seeking, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) job stress, such that those relationships would be stronger for Black participants. This was tested using PROCESS model 1. Analyses are organized by variable below. This hypothesis was not supported overall, as relationships held for the White group only, contrary to expectations.

Trust. The model tested is depicted in Figure 4.1. There was a significant interaction between race and diversity climate on source credibility, (t = -2.21, p = .03), but this effect only holds for White participants (t = 3.23, p < .01), and not Black participants (t = 0.14, p = .88). This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.2. There was no significant interaction between race and diversity climate predicting overall trust (t = -.30, p = .77), the affective dimension of trust (t = .39, p = .70), or cognitive trust (t = -.76, p = .45). These results can be seen in Table 4.8.

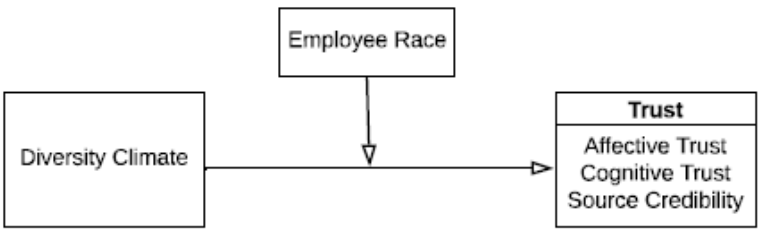


Figure 4.1. Relationship between diversity climate, race, and trust.

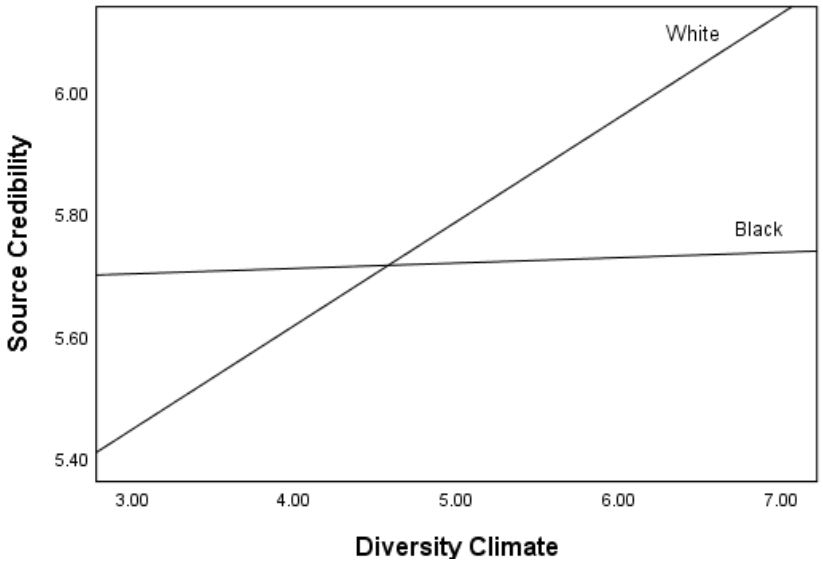


Figure 4.2. The diversity climate-source credibility relationship by race (Hypothesis 1a)

Table 4.8. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on trust.

	Overall Trust				Affective Trust			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.07	0.09	0.69	0.49	-0.01	0.12	-0.08	0.94
Learning Goal Orientation	-0.07	0.06	-1.03	0.30	-0.07	0.08	-0.89	0.37
Job Complexity	0.02	0.04	0.61	0.54	0.04	0.05	0.76	0.45
Job Autonomy	0.06	0.04	1.60	0.11	0.09	0.05	1.78	0.08
Leader-Member Exchange	1.08	0.07	14.79	0.00	1.23	0.09	13.46	0.00
Age	-0.01	0.00	-1.81	0.07	-0.02	0.01	-2.65	0.01
Tenure	-0.01	0.04	-0.15	0.88	0.08	0.05	1.57	0.12
Constant	0.27	0.42	0.64	0.52	-0.58	0.53	-1.11	0.27
Race	0.14	0.36	0.38	0.71	-0.07	0.45	-0.16	0.87
Diversity Climate	0.17	0.05	3.16	0.00	0.17	0.07	2.61	0.01
Race*Diversity Climate	-0.02	0.07	-0.30	0.77	0.04	0.09	0.39	0.70
	R^2 = 0.65, *MSE* = .48				R^2 = .62, *MSE* = .75			
	$F(10,247) = 46.31$, $p < .01$				$F(10,247) = 39.45$, $p < .01$			

N = 257. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Table 4.8 *(cont)*. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on trust.

	Cognitive Trust				Source Credibility			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.13	0.12	1.08	0.28	0.24	0.09	2.61	0.01
Learning Goal Orientation	-0.06	0.08	-0.77	0.44	-0.08	0.06	-1.21	0.23
Job Complexity	0.01	0.05	0.26	0.80	0.01	0.04	0.29	0.78
Job Autonomy	0.04	0.05	0.86	0.39	0.03	0.04	0.70	0.49
Leader-Member Exchange	0.96	0.09	10.43	0.00	0.82	0.07	11.22	0.00
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.45	0.65	0.00	0.00	-0.04	0.97
Tenure	-0.08	0.05	-1.52	0.13	-0.06	0.04	-1.45	0.15
Constant	0.98	0.53	1.85	0.07	1.28	0.42	3.04	0.00
Race	0.31	0.45	0.68	0.50	0.74	0.36	2.06	0.04
Diversity Climate	0.16	0.07	2.45	0.02	0.17	0.05	3.23	0.00
Race*Diversity Climate	-0.07	0.09	-0.76	0.45	-0.16	0.07	-2.21	0.03
	R^2 = .48, *MSE* = .76				R^2 = .54, *MSE* = .48			
	$F(10,247) = 23.00$, $p < .01$				$F(10,247) = 28.45$, $p < .01$			

N = 257. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Feedback Seeking. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.3. There was a significant interaction between race and diversity climate on feedback-seeking behavior (t = -2.62, p <.01), such that the relationship is positive for White participants (t=2.35, p=.02) and non-significant for Black participants (t=-1.11, p=.27). This can be seen in Figure 4.4 and Table 4.9.

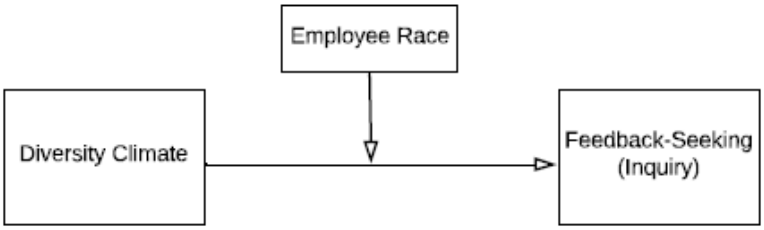


Figure 4.3. Relationship between diversity climate, race, and feedback seeking.

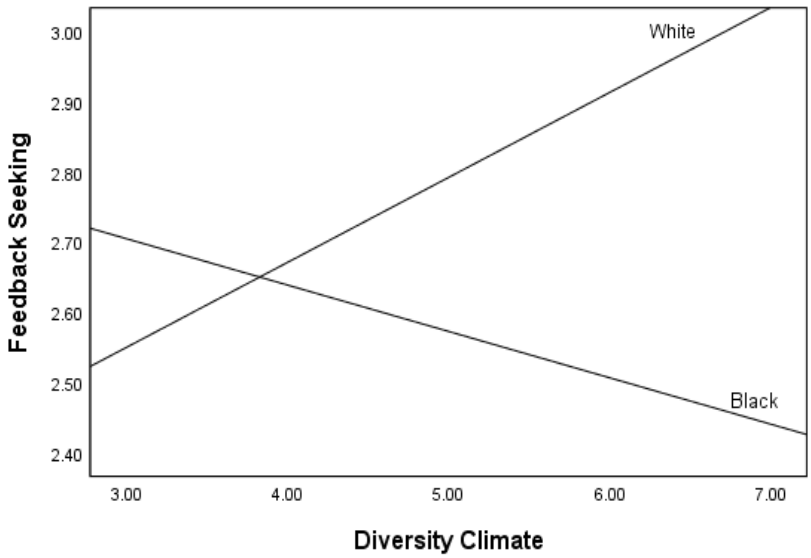


Figure 4.4. The diversity climate-feedback seeking relationship by race (Hypothesis 1b).

Table 4.9. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on feedback seeking.

	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.42	0.09	4.57	0.00
Learning Goal Orientation	-0.05	0.06	-0.78	0.43
Job Complexity	0.12	0.04	3.07	0.00
Job Autonomy	0.02	0.04	0.61	0.54
Leader-Member Exchange	0.13	0.07	1.83	0.07
Age	-0.02	0.00	-3.92	0.00
Tenure	-0.03	0.04	-0.80	0.42
Constant	0.36	0.41	0.88	0.38
Race	0.72	0.35	2.04	0.04
Diversity Climate	0.12	0.05	2.35	0.02
Race*Diversity Climate	-0.19	0.07	-2.62	0.01
		R^2 = .31, *MSE* = .46		
		$F(10, 246) = 10.00$, $p < .01$		

N = 257. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Job Satisfaction. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.5. There was a significant interaction between race and diversity climate predicting job satisfaction ($t = -2.25$, $p = .03$), such that the positive relationship is stronger for White participants ($t = 6.18$, $p > .01$), than Black participants ($t = 2.67$, $p=.01$). This can be seen in Figure 4.6 and Table 4.10.

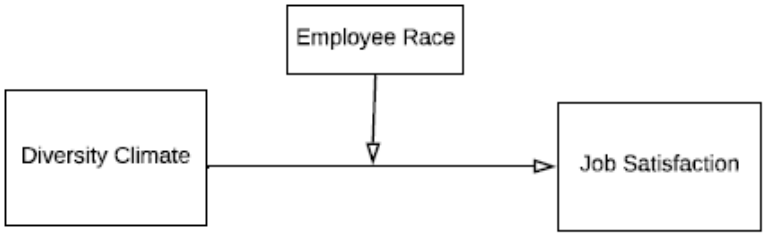


Figure 4.5. Relationship between diversity climate, race, and job satisfaction.

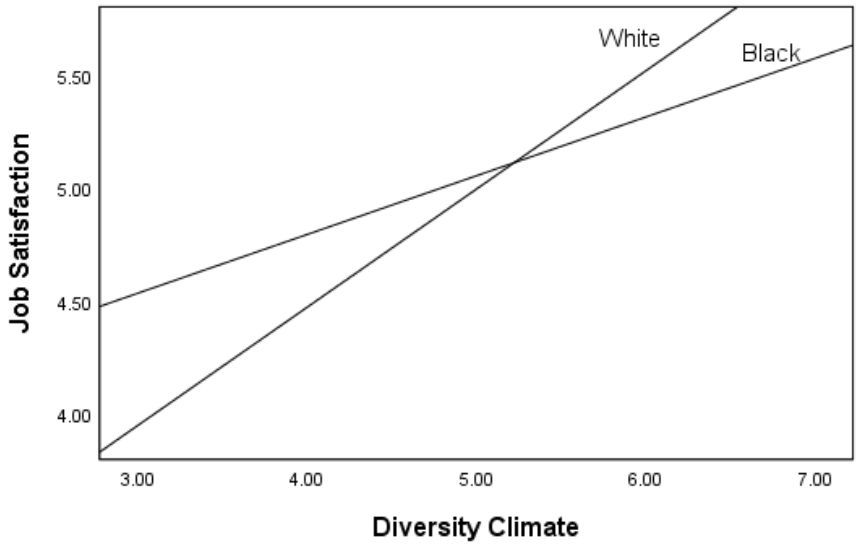


Figure 4.6. The diversity climate-job satisfaction relationship by race (Hypothesis 1c).

Table 4.10. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on job satisfaction.

	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	-0.14	0.15	-0.90	0.37
Learning Goal Orientation	0.19	0.10	1.88	0.06
Job Complexity	0.12	0.06	1.91	0.06
Job Autonomy	0.16	0.06	2.50	0.01
Leader-Member Exchange	0.50	0.12	4.26	0.00
Age	0.02	0.01	2.72	0.01
Tenure	0.13	0.07	1.89	0.06
Constant	-2.59	0.67	-3.84	0.00
Race	1.37	0.58	2.39	0.02
Diversity Climate	0.52	0.08	6.18	0.00
Race*Diversity Climate	-0.26	0.12	-2.25	0.03
		R^2 = .48, *MSE* = 1.23		
		$F(10,247) = 22.99$, $p < .01$		

N = 257. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Job Stress. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.7. There was a significant interaction between race and diversity climate predicting job stress (t = 2.22, p = .03), such that the negative relationship only holds for White participants (t = -4.95, p < .01), and not Black participants (t = -1.63, p = .11). This can be seen in Figure 4.8 and Table 4.11.

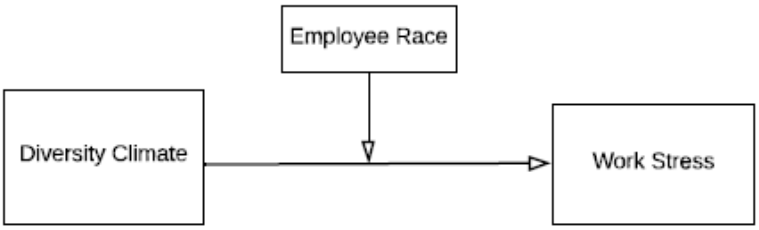


Figure 4.7. Relationship between diversity climate, race, and job stress.

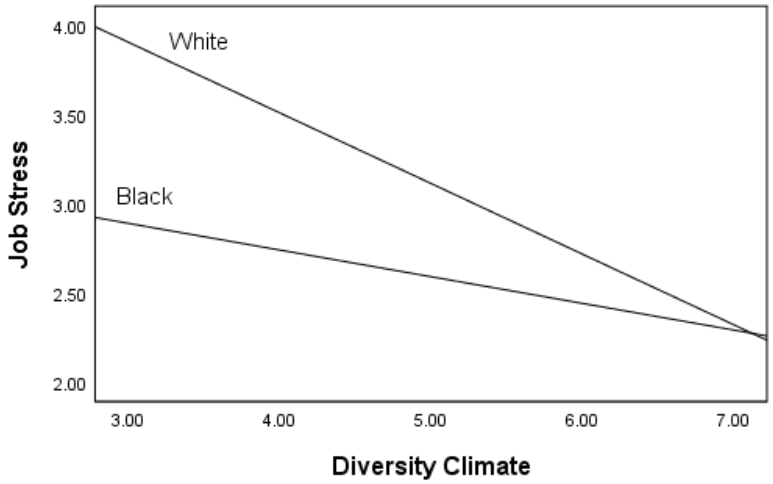


Figure 4.8. The diversity climate-job stress relationship by race.

Table 4.11. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on job stress.

	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.31	0.14	2.17	0.03
Learning Goal Orientation	-0.18	0.10	-1.82	0.07
Job Complexity	0.11	0.06	1.91	0.06
Job Autonomy	-0.10	0.06	-1.62	0.11
Leader-Member Exchange	-0.38	0.11	-3.42	0.00
Age	-0.03	0.01	-4.89	0.00
Tenure	0.06	0.06	0.99	0.32
Constant	7.30	0.64	11.44	0.00
Race	-1.76	0.55	-3.22	0.00
Diversity Climate	-0.40	0.08	-4.95	0.00
Race*Diversity Climate	0.25	0.11	2.22	0.03
		R^2 = .32, *MSE* = 1.10		
		F(10,247) = 11.38, *p* < .01		

N = 257. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Black Group- Moderated effects of diversity climate on outcomes by racial identity. Hypothesis 2 stated that among Black employees, diversity climate would be more strongly related to (a) trust, (b) feedback seeking, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) job stress, for those with higher racial identity. This was tested with PROCESS Model 1. Analyses are organized by variable below. Overall, this hypothesis was not supported, but there was one significant interaction in the opposite direction from what was expected.

Trust. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.9. There was no significant interaction between racial identity and diversity climate on overall trust (*t* = .59, *p* = .56). Similarly, there were no significant interactions for the affective dimension of trust (*t* = -.39, *p* = .70), cognitive dimension of trust (*t* = 1.16, *p* = .25), and source credibility (*t* = -.29, *p* = .78). These results can be seen in Table 4.12.

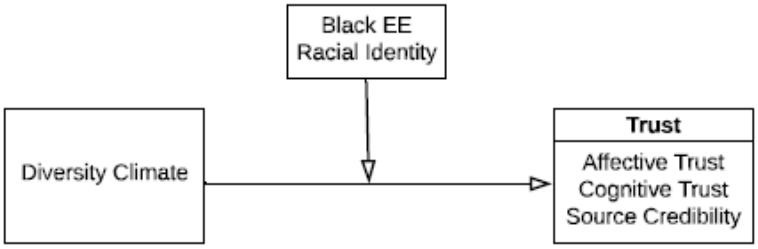


Figure 4.9. Relationship between diversity climate, racial identity, and trust (Black group).

Table 4.12. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on trust by racial identity (Black group).

	Overall Trust				Affective Trust			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.18	0.16	1.14	0.26	-0.01	0.20	-0.06	0.95
Learning Goal Orientation	-0.04	0.11	-0.31	0.76	0.04	0.14	0.27	0.79
Job Complexity	-0.02	0.06	-0.41	0.68	-0.06	0.07	-0.77	0.44
Job Autonomy	0.09	0.06	1.51	0.13	0.13	0.07	1.80	0.08
Leader-Member Exchange	1.01	0.13	8.02	0.00	1.29	0.16	8.20	0.00
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.30	0.77	-0.01	0.01	-0.65	0.52
Tenure	-0.02	0.08	-0.28	0.78	0.08	0.10	0.83	0.41
Constant	0.74	1.08	0.68	0.50	-1.27	1.35	-0.94	0.35
Black Centrality	-0.15	0.18	-0.82	0.41	0.01	0.22	0.05	0.96
Diversity Climate (DC)	0.04	0.19	0.21	0.84	0.26	0.24	1.05	0.30
Black Centrality*DC	0.02	0.04	0.59	0.56	-0.02	0.04	-0.39	0.70
	R^2 = .66, *MSE* = .46				R^2 = .67, *MSE* = .72			
	$F(10,90) = 17.71$, $p < .01$				$F(10,90) = 18.05$, $p < .01$			

	Cognitive Trust				Source Credibility			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.35	0.21	1.68	0.10	0.18	0.18	1.00	0.32
Learning Goal Orientation	-0.10	0.14	-0.67	0.51	0.00	0.12	-0.03	0.98
Job Complexity	0.00	0.08	0.04	0.97	0.08	0.07	1.18	0.24
Job Autonomy	0.05	0.07	0.70	0.49	-0.02	0.06	-0.35	0.73
Leader-Member Exchange	0.78	0.16	4.83	0.00	0.80	0.14	5.73	0.00
Age	0.00	0.01	0.10	0.92	0.02	0.01	1.52	0.13
Tenure	-0.11	0.10	-1.09	0.28	-0.17	0.09	-1.99	0.05
Constant	2.41	1.38	1.75	0.08	1.22	1.19	1.02	0.31
Black Centrality	-0.28	0.23	-1.22	0.23	0.09	0.20	0.48	0.63
Diversity Climate (DC)	-0.14	0.25	-0.56	0.58	0.05	0.21	0.23	0.82
Black Centrality*DC	0.05	0.05	1.16	0.25	-0.01	0.04	-0.29	0.78
	R^2 = .44, *MSE* = .76				R^2 = .45, *MSE* = .56			
	$F(10,90) = 7.17$, $p < .01$				$F(10,90) = 7.42$, $p < .01$			

N = 257. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Feedback Seeking. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.10. There was no significant interaction between racial identity and diversity climate predicting feedback-seeking behavior (t = -1.51, p = .13). This is presented in Table 4.13.

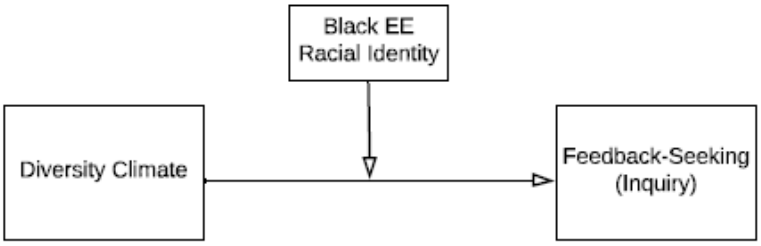


Figure 4.10. Relationship between diversity climate, racial identity, and feedback seeking (Black group).

Table 4.13. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on feedback seeking by racial identity (Black group).

	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.45	0.18	2.44	0.02
Learning Goal Orientation	0.17	0.13	1.37	0.17
Job Complexity	0.04	0.07	0.67	0.51
Job Autonomy	0.02	0.06	0.30	0.77
Leader-Member Exchange	0.04	0.14	0.28	0.78
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.30	0.76
Tenure	0.04	0.09	0.45	0.65
Constant	-1.12	1.22	-0.92	0.36
Black Centrality	0.22	0.20	1.13	0.26
Diversity Climate (DC)	0.21	0.22	0.95	0.35
Black Centrality*DC	-0.06	0.04	-1.51	0.13
		R^2 = .23, *MSE* = .59		
		F(10,89) = 2.67, p < .01		

N = 257. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Job Satisfaction. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.11. There was a significant interaction between racial identity and diversity climate predicting job satisfaction (t = -2.08, p = .04), such that the effect is stronger at lower levels of racial identity. The Johnson-Neyman technique was used to examine the critical values of this conditional relationship: this identified a transition point of 5.90, meaning the conditional effect of diversity climate on job satisfaction is positive and significant at

values of racial identity below 5.90, and nonsignificant above that threshold. In other words, there is a stronger relationship between diversity climate and job satisfaction for those who report lower racial identity. This is presented in Figure 4.12 and Table 4.14.

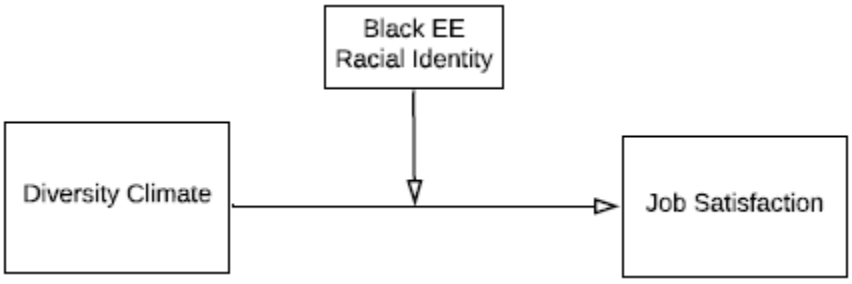


Figure 4.11. Relationship between diversity climate, racial identity, and job satisfaction (Black group).

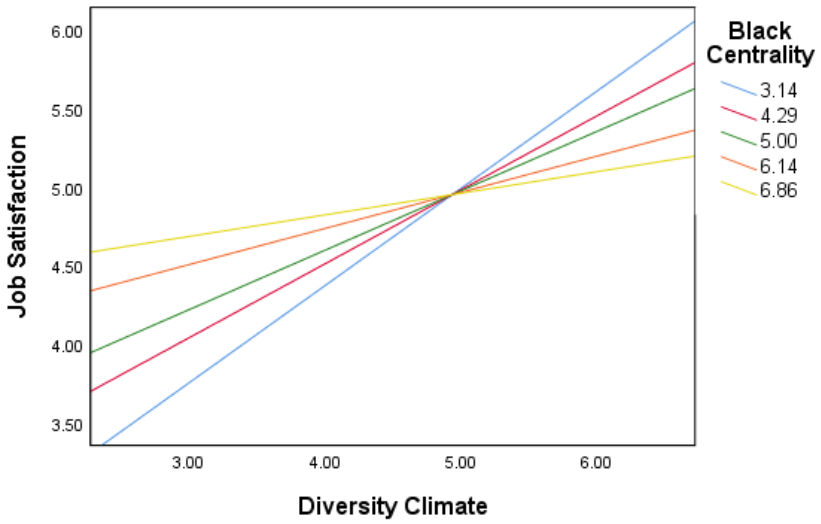


Figure 4.12. The diversity climate-job satisfaction relationship by racial identity (Black group)

Table 4.14. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on job satisfaction by racial identity (Black group).

	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	-0.43	0.29	-1.51	0.13
Learning Goal Orientation	0.34	0.20	1.71	0.09
Job Complexity	0.07	0.10	0.67	0.51
Job Autonomy	0.04	0.10	0.35	0.73
Leader-Member Exchange	0.25	0.22	1.13	0.26
Age	0.02	0.02	1.49	0.14
Tenure	0.35	0.14	2.55	0.01
Constant	-3.37	1.90	-1.77	0.08
Black Centrality	0.64	0.31	2.05	0.04
Diversity Climate (DC)	1.02	0.34	2.98	0.00
Black Centrality*DC	-0.13	0.06	-2.08	0.04
		R^2 = .41, *MSE* = 1.43		
		$F(10,90) = 6.17$, $p < .01$		

N = 257. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Job Stress. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.13. There was no significant interaction between racial identity and diversity climate predicting job stress ($t = .95$, $p = .34$). This is presented in Table 4.15.

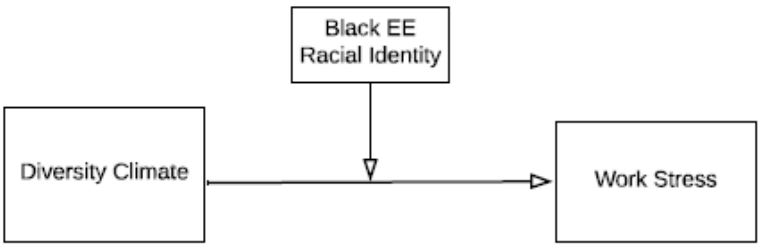


Figure 4.13. Relationship between diversity climate, racial identity, and job stress (Black group).

Table 4.15. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on job stress by racial identity (Black group).

	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.33	0.24	1.37	0.17
Learning Goal Orientation	0.10	0.17	0.60	0.55
Job Complexity	0.00	0.09	-0.05	0.96
Job Autonomy	-0.02	0.09	-0.19	0.85
Leader-Member Exchange	-0.19	0.19	-1.00	0.32
Age	-0.05	0.01	-3.44	0.00
Tenure	0.02	0.12	0.20	0.84
Constant	5.80	1.62	3.59	0.00
Black Centrality	-0.20	0.26	-0.77	0.44
Diversity Climate (DC)	-0.52	0.29	-1.78	0.08
Black Centrality*DC	0.05	0.05	0.95	0.34
		R^2 = .28, *MSE* = 1.04		
		$F(10,90) = 3.48$, $p < .01$		

N = 257. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Black Group- Moderated effects of diversity climate on outcomes by racial similarity. Hypothesis 3 stated that among Black participants, diversity climate would be more strongly related to (a) trust, (b) feedback seeking, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) job stress for those with racially dissimilar supervisors. This was tested with PROCESS Model 1. First, similarity was coded dichotomously with ethnic minority supervisors as similar and White supervisors as different. This was also tested with a self-report item of the degree to which participants perceived their supervisors as culturally similar. While the two operationalizations differ somewhat, they are presented together because they intend to capture similar constructs. Analyses are organized by variable and by operationalization of similarity below. Overall, there was partial support for this hypothesis.

Trust. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.14. First, results are presented with the coded similarity of supervisors. For the cognitive dimension of trust, there was a significant interaction between supervisor racial similarity and diversity climate

predicting cognitive trust (t = 2.08, p = .04), such that the effect only holds for those with ethnic minority supervisors (t=2.59, p=.01), and not White supervisors (t=0.28, p=.78). This is plotted in Figure 4.15. Interestingly, this interaction was not in the expected direction, as Hypothesis 3 stated that the effects would have been stronger for those with dissimilar supervisors. There are no significant interactions when tested with overall trust (t = 1.26, p = .21), affective trust (t = -.29, p = .77), or source credibility (t = .45, p = .65). When tested with the self-reported cultural similarity, no significant interaction between supervisor similarity and diversity climate predicting overall trust (t = .42, p = .68). The same holds for affective trust (t = 1.43, p = .16), cognitive trust (t = -.57, p = .57), and source credibility (t = -2.03, p = .05). This is presented in Table 4.16 and 4.17.

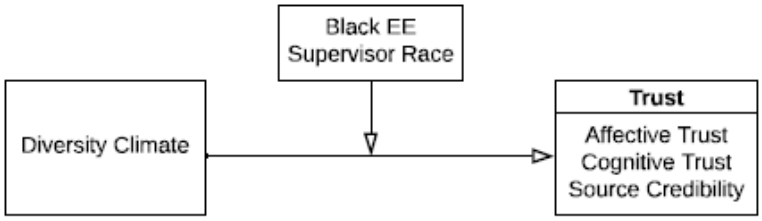


Figure 4.14. Relationship between diversity climate, supervisor racial similarity, and trust (Black group).

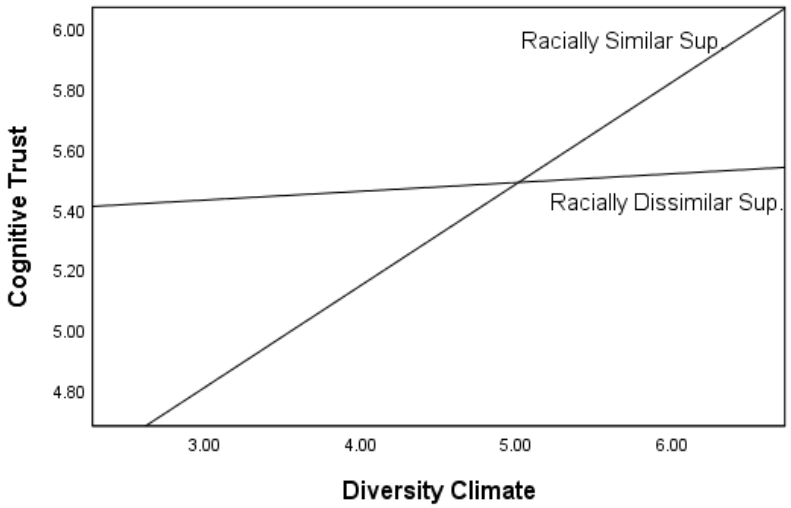


Figure 4.15. The diversity climate-cognitive trust relationship by racial similarity (Black group).

Table 4.16. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on trust by coded racial similarity (Black group).

	Overall Trust				Affective Trust			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.14	0.16	0.86	0.39	-0.04	0.20	-0.18	0.86
Learning Goal Orientation	-0.02	0.11	-0.21	0.83	0.02	0.14	0.14	0.89
Job Complexity	-0.02	0.06	-0.34	0.74	-0.06	0.07	-0.76	0.45
Job Autonomy	0.08	0.06	1.45	0.15	0.14	0.07	1.89	0.06
Leader-Member Exchange	0.99	0.13	7.84	0.00	1.29	0.16	8.14	0.00
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.17	0.87	-0.01	0.01	-0.70	0.48
Tenure	-0.04	0.08	-0.48	0.63	0.07	0.10	0.74	0.46
Constant	0.42	0.68	0.62	0.54	-1.14	0.86	-1.32	0.19
Coded Sup. Race	-0.76	0.58	-1.30	0.20	0.18	0.74	0.25	0.80
Diversity Climate (DC)	0.10	0.08	1.25	0.22	0.19	0.10	1.83	0.07
Sup. Race*DC	0.15	0.12	1.26	0.21	-0.04	0.15	-0.29	0.77
	R^2 = .66, *MSE* =.46				R^2 = .66, *MSE* = .74			
	$F(10,90) = 17.85$, $p < .01$				$F(10,90) = 17.60$, $p < .01$			

	Cognitive Trust				Source Credibility			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.28	0.20	1.39	0.17	0.20	0.18	1.14	0.26
Learning Goal Orientation	-0.06	0.14	-0.43	0.67	0.00	0.12	0.04	0.97
Job Complexity	0.01	0.07	0.14	0.89	0.07	0.07	1.10	0.27
Job Autonomy	0.04	0.07	0.53	0.60	-0.02	0.06	-0.26	0.80
Leader-Member Exchange	0.73	0.16	4.62	0.00	0.80	0.14	5.71	0.00
Age	0.00	0.01	0.34	0.73	0.02	0.01	1.51	0.14
Tenure	-0.13	0.10	-1.32	0.19	-0.18	0.09	-2.06	0.04
Constant	1.72	0.86	2.01	0.05	1.70	0.75	2.26	0.03
Coded Sup. Race	-1.55	0.74	-2.10	0.04	-0.25	0.65	-0.38	0.70
Diversity Climate (DC)	0.03	0.10	0.28	0.78	-0.04	0.09	-0.39	0.69
Sup. Race*DC	0.31	0.15	2.08	0.04	0.06	0.13	0.45	0.65
	R^2 = .46, *MSE* = .73				R^2 = .45, *MSE* = .56			
	$F(10,90) = 7.69$, $p < .01$				$F(10,90) = 7.35$, $p < .01$			

N = 101. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Table 4.17. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on trust by self-report racial similarity (Black group).

	Overall Trust				Affective Trust			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.20	0.16	1.27	0.21	0.04	0.20	0.18	0.86
Learning Goal Orientation	0.00	0.11	-0.01	0.99	0.06	0.14	0.45	0.65
Job Complexity	-0.03	0.06	-0.47	0.64	-0.07	0.07	-0.90	0.37
Job Autonomy	0.09	0.06	1.53	0.13	0.15	0.07	2.10	0.04
Leader-Member Exchange	0.99	0.13	7.91	0.00	1.30	0.16	8.30	0.00
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.14	0.89	-0.01	0.01	-0.83	0.41
Tenure	-0.02	0.08	-0.27	0.79	0.08	0.10	0.83	0.41
Constant	0.56	0.87	0.65	0.52	0.21	1.09	0.19	0.85
Self-Report Sup. Similarity	-0.18	0.20	-0.92	0.36	-0.44	0.25	-1.78	0.08
Diversity Climate (DC)	0.06	0.16	0.38	0.70	-0.11	0.20	-0.56	0.57
Sup. Race*DC	0.02	0.04	0.42	0.68	0.07	0.05	1.43	0.16
	R^2 = .67, *MSE* = .45				R^2 = .68, *MSE* = .70			
	$F(10,90) = 18.48$, $p < .01$				$F(10,90) = 18.84$, $p < .01$			

	Cognitive Trust				Source Credibility			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.34	0.21	1.67	0.10	0.20	0.17	1.17	0.24
Learning Goal Orientation	-0.05	0.14	-0.38	0.71	0.03	0.12	0.21	0.83
Job Complexity	0.00	0.08	0.06	0.96	0.07	0.06	1.04	0.30
Job Autonomy	0.03	0.07	0.49	0.63	-0.02	0.06	-0.41	0.69
Leader-Member Exchange	0.73	0.16	4.55	0.00	0.75	0.14	5.54	0.00
Age	0.01	0.01	0.47	0.64	0.02	0.01	1.98	0.05
Tenure	-0.11	0.10	-1.06	0.29	-0.20	0.08	-2.37	0.02
Constant	0.86	1.12	0.77	0.45	0.51	0.94	0.55	0.59
Self-Report Sup. Similarity	0.03	0.26	0.14	0.89	0.33	0.22	1.53	0.13
Diversity Climate (DC)	0.20	0.20	1.00	0.32	0.27	0.17	1.58	0.12
Sup. Race*DC	-0.03	0.05	-0.57	0.57	-0.09	0.04	-2.03	0.05
	R^2 = .45, *MSE* = .75				R^2 = .49, *MSE* = .53			
	$F(10,90) = 7.37$, $p < .01$				$F(10,90) = 8.50$, $p < .01$			

N = 101. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Feedback Seeking. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.16. There was no significant interaction of racial similarity with diversity climate predicting feedback-seeking behavior with the coded racial similarity (t = -.72, p = .47), or with self-reported cultural similarity (t = -.22, p = .83). This is presented in Table 4.18.

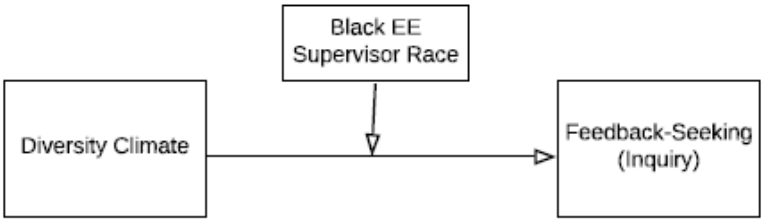


Figure 4.16. Relationship between diversity climate, supervisor racial similarity, and feedback seeking (Black group).

Table 4.18. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on feedback seeking by racial similarity (Black group).

	Coded Similarity				Self-Report Similarity			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.45	0.18	2.44	0.02	0.45	0.19	2.40	0.02
Learning Goal Orientation	0.15	0.13	1.12	0.27	0.16	0.13	1.21	0.23
Job Complexity	0.04	0.07	0.56	0.58	0.03	0.07	0.51	0.61
Job Autonomy	0.04	0.07	0.59	0.56	0.04	0.06	0.63	0.53
Leader-Member Exchange	0.06	0.14	0.41	0.68	0.04	0.15	0.29	0.77
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.51	0.61	0.00	0.01	-0.40	0.69
Tenure	0.02	0.09	0.27	0.79	0.01	0.09	0.10	0.92
Constant	-0.03	0.78	-0.04	0.97	0.04	1.01	0.04	0.97
Racial Similarity	0.46	0.67	0.68	0.50	0.03	0.23	0.13	0.90
Diversity Climate (DC)	-0.06	0.10	-0.62	0.54	-0.06	0.18	-0.35	0.73
Sup. Race*DC	-0.10	0.13	-0.72	0.47	-0.01	0.05	-0.22	0.83
	R^2 = .20, *MSE* = .61				R^2 = . 20, *MSE* = .61			
	F(10,89) = 2.28, p = .02				F(10,89) = 2.23, p = .02			

N = 101. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Job Satisfaction. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.17. There was no significant interaction of racial/cultural similarity with diversity climate predicting job satisfaction with the coded racial similarity (t = -.21, p = .84). There was a

significant interaction with self-reported similarity (t = -2.44, p = .02), such that the effect is stronger for those with less similar supervisors. This is presented in Figure 4.18 and Table 4.19. The Johnson-Neyman technique was used to examine the critical values of the conditional relationship of diversity climate on job satisfaction. This analysis revealed a point of transition: the conditional effect of diversity climate on job satisfaction was positive and significant at values below 4.44 in similarity, and nonsignificant at and above this threshold. In other words, below the value of 4.44, self-reported similarity amplified the effect of diversity climate on job satisfaction, resulting in a stronger relationship for those who reported their supervisor was culturally dissimilar to them; this pattern was as expected and provides partial support for Hypothesis 3c.

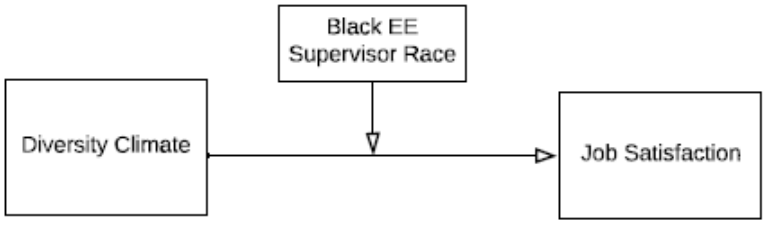


Figure 4.17. Relationship between diversity climate, supervisor racial similarity, and job satisfaction (Black group).

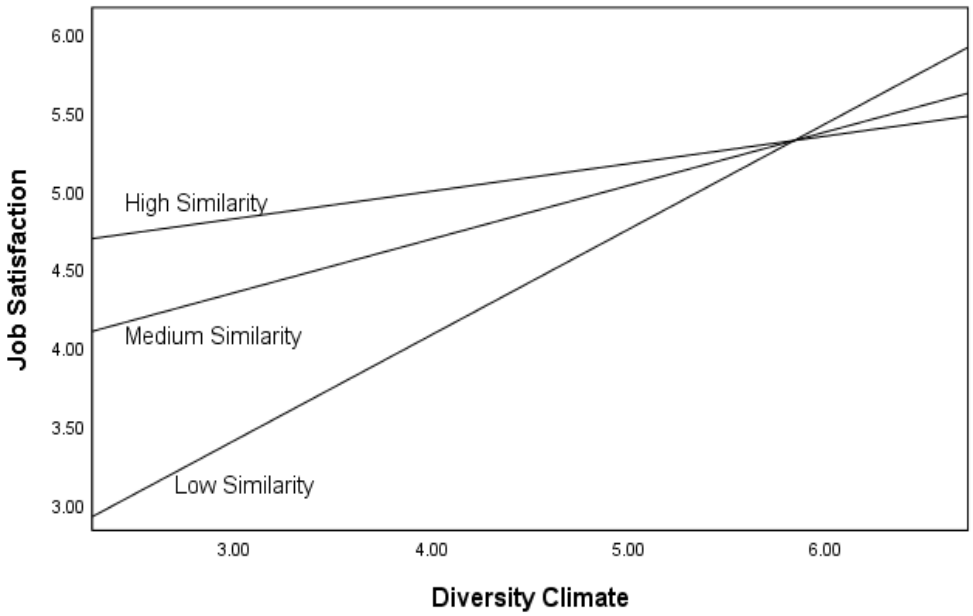


Figure 4.18. The diversity climate-job satisfaction relationship by self-report similarity.

Table 4.19 Results for the moderation of diversity climate on job satisfaction by racial similarity (Black group).

	Coded Similarity				Self-Report Similarity			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	-0.37	0.29	-1.27	0.21	-0.50	0.28	-1.79	0.08
Learning Goal Orientation	0.31	0.20	1.54	0.13	0.25	0.20	1.28	0.20
Job Complexity	0.05	0.11	0.46	0.65	0.06	0.10	0.57	0.57
Job Autonomy	0.08	0.10	0.74	0.46	0.06	0.10	0.64	0.52
Leader-Member Exchange	0.29	0.23	1.25	0.21	0.25	0.22	1.14	0.26
Age	0.02	0.02	1.17	0.24	0.03	0.02	1.53	0.13
Tenure	0.31	0.14	2.20	0.03	0.28	0.13	2.06	0.04
Constant	-0.23	1.23	-0.19	0.85	-3.02	1.52	-1.99	0.05
Racial Similarity	0.18	1.05	0.17	0.87	0.97	0.35	2.78	0.01
Diversity Climate (DC)	0.37	0.15	2.51	0.01	1.01	0.28	3.64	0.00
Sup. Race*DC	-0.04	0.21	-0.21	0.84	-0.17	0.07	-2.44	0.02
	R^2 = .38, *MSE* = 1.50				R^2 = .43, *MSE* = 1.37			
	$F(10,90) = 5.48$, $p < .01$				$F(10,90) = 6.84$, $p < .01$			

N = 101. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Job Stress. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.19. There was no significant interaction of racial/cultural similarity with diversity climate predicting job stress with the coded racial similarity (t = .89, p = .38), or with self-reported similarity (t = 1.14, p = .26). This is presented in Table 4.20.

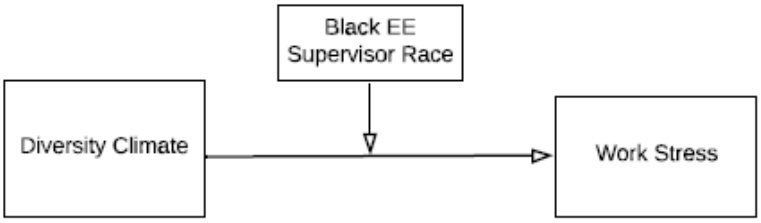


Figure 4.19. Relationship between diversity climate, supervisor racial similarity, and job stress (Black group).

Table 4.20. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on job satisfaction by racial similarity (Black group).

	Coded Similarity				Self-Report Similarity			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.29	0.24	1.20	0.23	0.39	0.24	1.62	0.11
Learning Goal Orientation	0.14	0.17	0.80	0.42	0.15	0.17	0.89	0.37
Job Complexity	0.01	0.09	0.07	0.95	0.00	0.09	-0.04	0.97
Job Autonomy	-0.04	0.08	-0.51	0.61	-0.03	0.08	-0.33	0.74
Leader-Member Exchange	-0.22	0.19	-1.18	0.24	-0.19	0.19	-1.01	0.31
Age	-0.05	0.01	-3.36	0.00	-0.05	0.01	-3.44	0.00
Tenure	0.02	0.12	0.20	0.84	0.06	0.12	0.48	0.63
Constant	5.14	1.02	5.04	0.00	5.88	1.31	4.49	0.00
Racial Similarity	-0.96	0.87	-1.10	0.28	-0.41	0.30	-1.38	0.17
Diversity Climate (DC)	-0.30	0.12	-2.39	0.02	-0.53	0.24	-2.23	0.03
Sup. Race*DC	0.16	0.18	0.89	0.38	0.07	0.06	1.14	0.26
	R^2 = .28, MSE = 1.03				R^2 = .29, *MSE* = 1.02			
	F(10,90) = 3.55, p = < .01				F(10,90) = 3.65, p < .01			

N = 101. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Black Group- Three-way interactions of diversity climate, racial similarity, and racial identity. Hypothesis 4 stated that among Black participants, the effect of diversity climate on trust, feedback seeking, job satisfaction, and job stress, would interact with racial similarity and racial identity. Again, similarity was

tested with both the coded and self-report versions of the variable. These three-way interactions were tested with PROCESS model 3. Analyses are organized by variable below. Overall, this hypothesis was not supported.

Trust. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.20. When tested with the coded supervisor similarity, there were no significant three-way interactions with diversity climate, supervisor similarity, and racial identity on overall trust (t = -.69, p = .49), affective trust (t = -.09, p = .93), cognitive trust (t = -.94, p = .58), or source credibility (t = .52, p = .60). Similarly, with the self-reported cultural similarity, there were no significant three-way interactions when tested with overall trust (t = -1.06, p = .29), affective trust (t = -1.04, p=.29), cognitive trust (t = -.68, p =. 50), or source credibility (t = 1.85, p = .07). This can be seen in Tables 4.21 and 4.22.

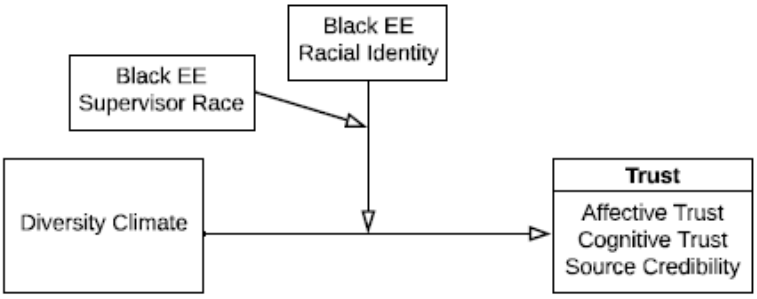


Figure 4.20. Relationship between diversity climate, racial identity, supervisor racial similarity, and trust (Black group).

Table 4.21. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on trust by coded racial similarity and racial identity (Black group).

	Overall Trust				Affective Trust			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.21	0.17	1.24	0.22	-0.02	0.21	-0.08	0.94
Learning Goal Orientation	0.00	0.12	0.00	1.00	0.04	0.15	0.25	0.81
Job Complexity	-0.03	0.06	-0.47	0.64	-0.06	0.08	-0.77	0.44
Job Autonomy	0.08	0.06	1.40	0.17	0.13	0.08	1.70	0.09
Leader-Member Exchange	0.97	0.13	7.55	0.00	1.30	0.16	7.91	0.00
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.44	0.66	-0.01	0.01	-0.59	0.55
Tenure	-0.03	0.08	-0.35	0.73	0.08	0.10	0.82	0.42
Constant	1.12	1.15	0.98	0.33	-1.26	1.46	-0.87	0.39
Coded Supervisor Race	-2.19	2.92	-0.75	0.46	-0.41	3.72	-0.11	0.91
Diversity Climate (DC)	-0.07	0.21	-0.31	0.76	0.26	0.27	0.97	0.33
Sup. Race*DC	0.56	0.57	0.98	0.33	0.05	0.72	0.07	0.94
Black Centrality	-0.18	0.19	-0.94	0.35	0.01	0.24	0.03	0.98
DC*Centrality	0.03	0.04	0.82	0.41	-0.02	0.05	-0.36	0.72
Sup. Race*Centrality	0.25	0.55	0.46	0.65	0.09	0.70	0.13	0.90
DC * Sup. Race * Centrality	-0.07	0.11	-0.69	0.49	-0.01	0.13	-0.09	0.93
	R^2 = .68, *MSE* =.47				R^2 = .67, *MSE* = .76			
	$F(14,86) = 12.79$, $p < .01$				$F(14,86) = 12.33$, $p < .01$			

N = 101. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Table 4.21 *(continued)*. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on trust by coded racial similarity and racial identity (Black group).

	Cognitive Trust				Source Credibility			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.40	0.21	1.89	0.06	0.24	0.18	1.30	0.20
Learning Goal Orientation	-0.03	0.14	-0.21	0.84	0.01	0.13	0.09	0.93
Job Complexity	0.00	0.08	-0.03	0.97	0.09	0.07	1.30	0.20
Job Autonomy	0.04	0.07	0.61	0.55	-0.01	0.06	-0.13	0.90
Leader-Member Exchange	0.70	0.16	4.38	0.00	0.75	0.14	5.27	0.00
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.14	0.89	0.01	0.01	1.24	0.22
Tenure	-0.12	0.10	-1.21	0.23	-0.18	0.09	-2.07	0.04
Constant	3.10	1.43	2.18	0.03	1.04	1.26	0.82	0.41
Coded Supervisor Race	-3.68	3.64	-1.01	0.32	2.47	3.21	0.77	0.44
Diversity Climate (DC)	-0.34	0.26	-1.29	0.20	0.00	0.23	0.01	0.99
Sup. Race*DC	0.98	0.71	1.38	0.17	-0.24	0.62	-0.39	0.70
Black Centrality	-0.33	0.24	-1.40	0.17	0.12	0.21	0.55	0.58
DC*Centrality	0.08	0.05	1.51	0.13	0.00	0.04	-0.09	0.93
Sup. Race*Centrality	0.39	0.69	0.56	0.58	-0.54	0.61	-0.90	0.37
DC * Sup. Race * Centrality	-0.12	0.13	-0.94	0.35	0.06	0.12	0.53	0.60
	R^2 = .49, *MSE* = .73				R^2 = .47, *MSE* = .56			
	$F(14,86) = 5.89$, $p < .01$				$F(14,86) = 5.55$, $p < .01$			

N = 101. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Table 4.22. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on trust by self-report cultural similarity and racial identity (Black group).

	Overall Trust				Affective Trust			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.20	0.16	1.22	0.23	0.03	0.20	0.14	0.89
Learning Goal Orientation	0.03	0.12	0.28	0.78	0.09	0.14	0.60	0.55
Job Complexity	-0.03	0.06	-0.44	0.66	-0.05	0.07	-0.67	0.51
Job Autonomy	0.09	0.06	1.52	0.13	0.13	0.07	1.77	0.08
Leader-Member Exchange	0.98	0.13	7.78	0.00	1.29	0.16	8.17	0.00
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.21	0.84	-0.01	0.01	-0.72	0.48
Tenure	-0.03	0.08	-0.41	0.68	0.09	0.10	0.95	0.35
Constant	3.34	2.41	1.38	0.17	1.34	3.00	0.45	0.66
Self-Report Sup. Similarity	-1.03	0.73	-1.41	0.16	-1.26	0.91	-1.39	0.17
Diversity Climate (DC)	-0.33	0.45	-0.74	0.46	-0.35	0.55	-0.64	0.52
Sup. Similarity*DC	0.14	0.14	1.04	0.30	0.25	0.17	1.45	0.15
Black Centrality	-0.64	0.49	-1.32	0.19	-0.20	0.60	-0.34	0.74
DC*Centrality	0.09	0.09	1.04	0.30	0.04	0.11	0.38	0.70
Sup. Similarity *Centrality	0.18	0.14	1.30	0.20	0.15	0.17	0.86	0.39
DC * Sup. Similarity * Centrality	-0.03	0.03	-1.06	0.29	-0.03	0.03	-1.04	0.30
	R^2 = .68, *MSE* = .46				R^2 = .69, *MSE* = .71			
	$F(14,86) = 13.18$, $p < .01$				$F(14,86) = 13.60$, $p < .01$			

N = 101. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Table 4.22 *(continued)*. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on trust by self-report cultural similarity and racial identity (Black group).

	Cognitive Trust				Source Credibility			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.34	0.21	1.65	0.10	0.21	0.17	1.20	0.23
Learning Goal Orientation	-0.01	0.15	-0.09	0.93	0.03	0.12	0.24	0.81
Job Complexity	-0.01	0.08	-0.08	0.93	0.05	0.06	0.85	0.40
Job Autonomy	0.05	0.07	0.75	0.45	-0.03	0.06	-0.45	0.66
Leader-Member Exchange	0.73	0.16	4.56	0.00	0.75	0.14	5.51	0.00
Age	0.00	0.01	0.28	0.78	0.02	0.01	2.09	0.04
Tenure	-0.14	0.10	-1.36	0.18	-0.18	0.09	-2.09	0.04
Constant	5.00	3.07	1.63	0.11	-3.21	2.59	-1.24	0.22
Self-Report Sup. Similarity	-0.84	0.93	-0.90	0.37	1.46	0.78	1.87	0.07
Diversity Climate (DC)	-0.31	0.57	-0.55	0.58	1.07	0.48	2.24	0.03
Sup. Similarity *DC	0.05	0.17	0.31	0.75	-0.34	0.15	-2.31	0.02
Black Centrality	-1.00	0.62	-1.63	0.11	0.76	0.52	1.46	0.15
DC*Centrality	0.13	0.11	1.19	0.24	-0.16	0.09	-1.74	0.09
Sup. Similarity *Centrality	0.21	0.17	1.18	0.24	-0.23	0.15	-1.54	0.13
DC * Sup. Similarity * Centrality	-0.02	0.03	-0.68	0.50	0.05	0.03	1.85	0.07
	R^2 = .48, *MSE* = .74				R^2 = .51, *MSE* = .53			
	$F(14,86) = 5.69$, $p < .01$				$F(14,86) = 6.41$, $p < .01$			

N = 101. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Feedback Seeking. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.21. There were no significant three-way interactions predicting feedback seeking behavior with either the coded similarity (t = -.40, p = .69), or self-reported similarity (t = -1.06, p = .29), as can be seen in Table 4.23.

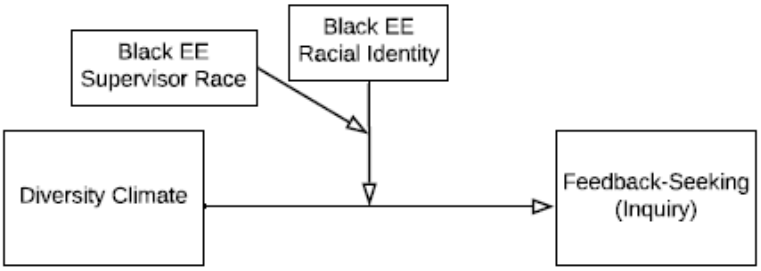


Figure 4.21. Relationship between diversity climate, racial identity, supervisor racial similarity, and feedback seeking (Black group).

Table 4.23. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on feedback seeking by cultural similarity and racial identity (Black group).

	Coded Similarity				Self-Report Similarity			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.39	0.19	2.07	0.04	0.45	0.19	2.39	0.02
Learning Goal Orientation	0.16	0.13	1.24	0.22	0.19	0.13	1.43	0.16
Job Complexity	0.03	0.07	0.51	0.61	0.05	0.07	0.74	0.46
Job Autonomy	0.01	0.07	0.14	0.89	0.02	0.07	0.26	0.79
Leader-Member Exchange	0.09	0.15	0.61	0.55	0.03	0.15	0.19	0.85
Age	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.99	0.00	0.01	-0.24	0.81
Tenure	0.05	0.09	0.55	0.59	0.03	0.09	0.31	0.76
Constant	-1.06	1.29	-0.83	0.41	0.86	2.77	0.31	0.76
Sup. Similarity	-2.09	3.30	-0.63	0.53	-0.74	0.84	-0.89	0.38
Diversity Climate (DC)	0.27	0.24	1.13	0.26	-0.21	0.51	-0.42	0.68
Sup. Similarity *DC	0.18	0.64	0.28	0.78	0.15	0.16	0.98	0.33
Black Centrality	0.22	0.22	1.04	0.30	-0.16	0.56	-0.28	0.78
DC*Centrality	-0.07	0.04	-1.61	0.11	0.02	0.10	0.25	0.81
Sup. Similarity *Centrality	0.48	0.62	0.76	0.45	0.14	0.16	0.89	0.38
DC * Sup. Similarity * Centrality	-0.05	0.12	-0.40	0.69	-0.03	0.03	-1.06	0.29
	R^2 = .26, *MSE* = .59				R^2 = . 25, *MSE* = .60			
	$F(14,85) = 2.14$, $p = .02$				$F(14,85) = 1.98$, $p = .03$			

N = 101. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Job Satisfaction. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.22. There were no significant three-way interactions predicting job satisfaction with either the coded similarity (t = -.60, p = .55), or the self-reported similarity (t = -.50, p = .62), as can be seen in Table 4.24.

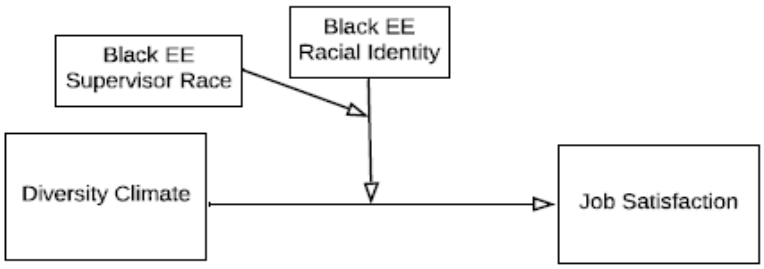


Figure 4.22. Relationship between diversity climate, racial identity, supervisor racial similarity, and job satisfaction (Black group).

Table 4.24. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on job satisfaction by racial/cultural similarity (Black group).

	Coded Similarity				Self-Report Similarity			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	-0.39	0.30	-1.31	0.19	-0.52	0.28	-1.83	0.07
Learning Goal Orientation	0.36	0.21	1.77	0.08	0.33	0.20	1.63	0.11
Job Complexity	0.06	0.11	0.57	0.57	0.07	0.10	0.63	0.53
Job Autonomy	0.03	0.11	0.28	0.78	0.04	0.10	0.43	0.67
Leader-Member Exchange	0.23	0.23	1.01	0.31	0.22	0.22	1.01	0.32
Age	0.02	0.02	1.32	0.19	0.03	0.02	1.60	0.11
Tenure	0.37	0.15	2.53	0.01	0.29	0.14	2.12	0.04
Constant	-3.09	2.04	-1.51	0.13	-1.49	4.20	-0.35	0.72
Sup. Similarity	-2.64	5.22	-0.51	0.61	-0.03	1.27	-0.02	0.98
Diversity Climate (DC)	0.92	0.38	2.43	0.02	0.99	0.77	1.28	0.20
Sup. Similarity *DC	0.63	1.02	0.62	0.54	-0.05	0.24	-0.21	0.83
Black Centrality	0.56	0.34	1.65	0.10	-0.37	0.84	-0.43	0.66
DC*Centrality	-0.11	0.07	-1.53	0.13	0.01	0.15	0.06	0.95
Sup. Similarity *Centrality	0.48	0.99	0.49	0.63	0.19	0.24	0.80	0.43
DC * Sup. Similarity * Centrality	-0.11	0.19	-0.60	0.55	-0.02	0.04	-0.50	0.62
	R^2 = .41, *MSE* = 1.49				R^2 = .45, *MSE* = 1.39			
	$F(14,86) = 4.28$, $p < .01$				$F(10,86) = 5.06$, $p < .01$			

N = 101. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Job Stress. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.23. There were no significant three-way interactions predicting job stress with either the coded similarity (t = -.92, p = .36), or the self-reported similarity (t = -.95, p = .34), as can be seen in Table 4.25.

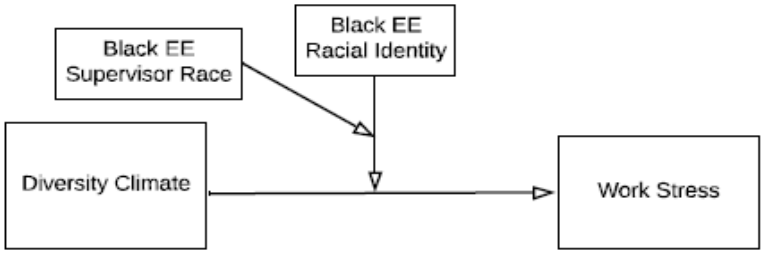


Figure 4.23. Relationship between diversity climate, racial identity, supervisor racial similarity, and job stress (Black group).

Table 4.25. Results for the moderation of diversity climate on job satisfaction by racial/cultural similarity (Black group).

	Coded Similarity				Self-Report Similarity			
	Coeff	*SE*	*t*	*p*	*Coeff*	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Feedback Orientation	0.32	0.25	1.26	0.21	0.35	0.25	1.43	0.16
Learning Goal Orientation	0.14	0.17	0.80	0.43	0.17	0.18	0.98	0.33
Job Complexity	-0.01	0.09	-0.13	0.90	0.00	0.09	0.00	1.00
Job Autonomy	-0.04	0.09	-0.46	0.65	-0.01	0.09	-0.16	0.88
Leader-Member Exchange	-0.21	0.19	-1.11	0.27	-0.19	0.19	-1.01	0.32
Age	-0.05	0.01	-3.47	0.00	-0.05	0.01	-3.51	0.00
Tenure	0.03	0.12	0.21	0.83	0.03	0.12	0.24	0.81
Constant	6.63	1.72	3.86	0.00	9.87	3.64	2.71	0.01
Sup. Similarity	-4.46	4.39	-1.02	0.31	-1.61	1.10	-1.47	0.15
Diversity Climate (DC)	-0.65	0.32	-2.05	0.04	-1.22	0.67	-1.81	0.07
Sup. Similarity *DC	0.89	0.85	1.04	0.30	0.26	0.21	1.25	0.21
Black Centrality	-0.30	0.29	-1.06	0.29	-0.79	0.73	-1.08	0.28
DC*Centrality	0.07	0.06	1.25	0.21	0.14	0.13	1.06	0.29
Sup. Similarity *Centrality	0.70	0.83	0.84	0.40	0.23	0.21	1.12	0.27
DC * Sup. Similarity * Centrality	-0.15	0.16	-0.92	0.36	-0.04	0.04	-0.95	0.34
	R^2 = .30, MSE = 1.05				R^2 = .31, *MSE* = 1.04			
	$F(14,86) = 2.64$, $p < .01$				$F(14,86) = 1.04$, $p < .01$			

N = 101. Coeff = Unstandardized beta coefficient; Control variables shaded in gray.

Conditional mediated effects. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.24. Hypothesis 5 stated that the relationship between diversity climate and (a) job satisfaction and (b) job stress would be mediated by feedback seeking. Given the conditional effects found between diversity climate and feedback seeking, these were tested as two mediation models conditional based on race, one with each outcome, estimated with the PROCESS model 7. These were no significant conditional indirect effects for diversity climate on job satisfaction or job stress, as confidence intervals included zero for each outcome for both Black and White employees. Results are presented in Table 4.26.

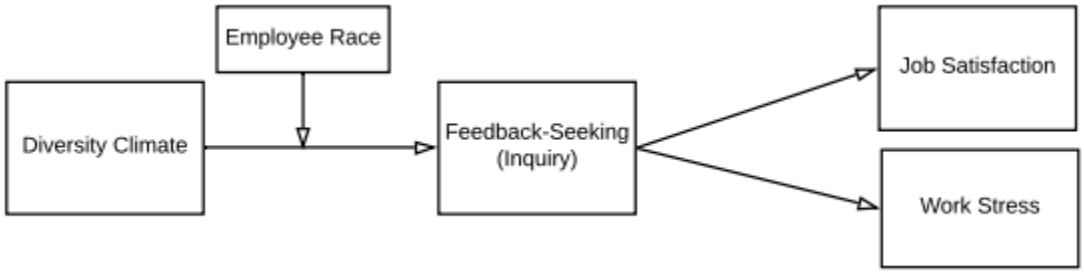


Figure 4.24. Conditionally mediated relationship between diversity climate, race feedback seeking, job satisfaction, and job stress.

Table 4.26. Bootstrap results for the direct and conditional indirect effects of diversity climate on job satisfaction and job stress through feedback seeking.

	Outcome Variable	Effect	*SE*	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
Direct Effect	Job Satisfaction	0.39	0.07	0.26	0.53
	Job Stress	-0.28	0.07	-0.41	-0.14
Indirect Effect – White	Job Satisfaction	0.02	0.02	-0.00	0.06
	Job Stress	0.00	0.01	-0.03	0.03
Indirect Effect – Black	Job Satisfaction	-0.01	0.01	-0.06	0.01
	Job Stress	-0.00	0.01	-0.04	0.01

Note: N = 257. Bootstrap set to 10,000; Indirect effect SE and 95% LLCI/ULCI are bootstrapped; SE = standard error; LLCI = lower limit confidence interval; ULCI = upper limit confidence interval. Control variables included: Feedback Orientation, Learning Goal Orientation, Job Complexity, Job Autonomy, Leader-Member Exchange, Age, Tenure.

Hypothesis 6 stated that the relationship between diversity climate and feedback seeking would be mediated by (a) affective-based trust, (b), cognitive-based trust, and (c) source credibility. This relationship is depicted in Figure 4.25. Similarly, given the conditional effects found between diversity climate and feedback seeking, these mediation models were tested as conditional based on race, estimated with PROCESS model 7. There were no significant conditional indirect effects found, as confidence intervals for the models with each mediator included zero for both Black and White employees. Results are presented in Table 4.27.

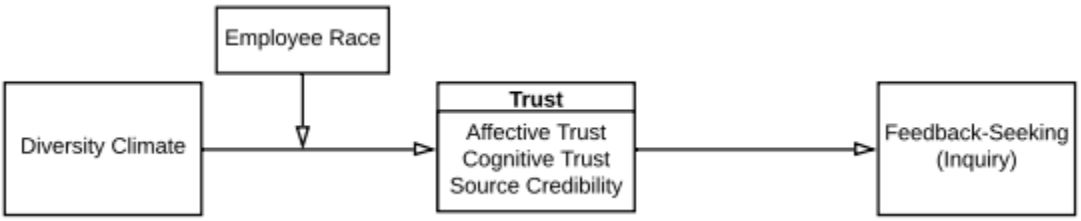


Figure 4.25. Conditionally mediated relationship between diversity climate, race, trust, and feedback seeking.

Table 4.27. Bootstrap results for the direct and conditional indirect effects of diversity climate on job satisfaction and job stress through feedback seeking.

	Mediator	Effect	*SE*	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
Direct Effect	Affective Trust	0.02	0.04	-0.07	0.10
	Cognitive Trust	0.03	0.04	-0.05	0.12
	Source Credibility	0.04	0.04	-0.04	0.13
Indirect Effect – White	Affective Trust	0.02	0.01	-0.00	0.05
	Cognitive Trust	0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.03
	Source Credibility	-0.01	0.01	-0.04	0.02
Indirect Effect – Black	Affective Trust	0.02	0.01	-0.00	0.05
	Cognitive Trust	0.00	0.01	-0.02	0.01
	Source Credibility	-0.00	0.01	-0.02	0.01

Note: N = 257. Bootstrap set to 10,000; Indirect effect SE and 95% LLCI/ULCI are bootstrapped; SE = standard error; LLCI = lower limit confidence interval; ULCI = upper limit confidence interval. Control variables included: Feedback Orientation, Learning Goal Orientation, Job Complexity, Job Autonomy, Leader-Member Exchange, Age, Tenure.

Serial mediation effects. Although the results of Hypotheses 5 and 6 did not support mediated effects, the serially mediated effects proposed in Hypotheses 7 and 8 were still tested. Specifically, Hypothesis 7 stated that the relationship between diversity climate and job satisfaction would be serially mediated by (a) affective-based trust, (b), cognitive-based trust, and (c) source credibility and then feedback seeking. Hypothesis 8 was the same, but with the outcome of job stress. These relationships are depicted in Figure 4.26. Each of these was tested by examining three separate models with each facet of trust and their respective indirect effect estimates. Confidence intervals for the indirect effects in the serially mediated models included zero and thus Hypotheses 7 and 8 were not supported. Results are presented in Table 4.28.

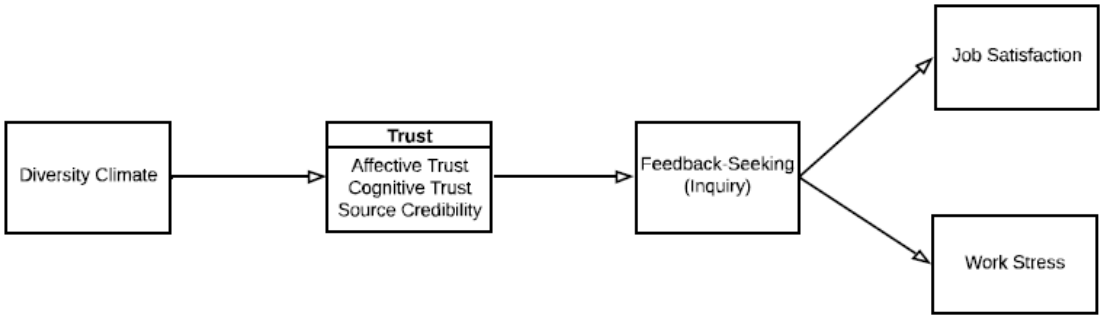


Figure 4.26. Serially mediated relationship between diversity climate, trust, feedback-seeking, job satisfaction, and job stress.

Table 4.28. Indirect effects of diversity climate on job satisfaction and job stress through feedback seeking.

Outcome	Indirect Path	Effect	*SE*	95% LLCI	95% ULCI
Job Satisfaction	**Affective Trust**				
	Affective Trust	0.00	0.02	-0.03	0.05
	Affective Trust and Feedback Seeking	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.01
	Feedback Seeking	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.01
	Total Indirect Effect	0.01	0.02	-0.02	0.06
	Cognitive Trust				
	Cognitive Trust	-0.00	0.01	-0.03	0.02
	Cognitive Trust and Feedback Seeking	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.01
	Feedback Seeking	0.01	0.01	-0.00	0.01
	Total Indirect Effect	0.00	0.02	-0.03	0.04
	Source Credibility				
	Source Credibility	0.00	0.01	-0.02	0.03
	Source Credibility and Feedback Seeking	-0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.00
	Feedback Seeking	0.01	0.01	-0.00	0.04
	Total Indirect Effect	0.01	0.01	-0.02	0.04
Job Stress	**Affective Trust**				
	Affective Trust	0.01	0.02	-0.02	0.05
	Affective Trust and Feedback Seeking	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.01
	Feedback Seeking	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.02
	Total Indirect Effect	0.01	0.02	-0.02	0.05
	Cognitive Trust				
	Cognitive Trust	0.00	0.01	-0.02	0.03
	Cognitive Trust and Feedback Seeking	0.00	0.00	-0.00	0.00
	Feedback Seeking	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.02
	Total Indirect Effect	0.00	0.01	-0.02	0.03
	Source Credibility				
	Source Credibility	0.01	0.02	-0.01	0.04
	Source Credibility and Feedback Seeking	-0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.00
	Feedback Seeking	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.03
	Total Indirect Effect	0.01	0.02	-0.02	0.05

Note: Bootstrap set to 10,000; Indirect effect SE and 95% LLCI/ULCI are bootstrapped; SE = standard error; LLCI = lower limit confidence interval; ULCI = upper limit confidence interval. Control variables included: Feedback Orientation, Learning Goal Orientation, Job Complexity, Job Autonomy, Leader-Member Exchange, Age, Tenure.

Research Question. Lastly, to examine the Research Question of whether there would be a relationship between diversity climate and feedback seeking via monitoring, a significant positive correlation was observed in the Black group (r = 0.26, $p < .01$), while the relationship was not significant in the White group (r = 0.09, p = 0.28).

Additional Analysis. Since many of the central hypotheses surrounding the focal variable of feedback seeking were not supported, some additional tests were run to understand the predictors of feedback-seeking behavior through inquiry and monitoring. Specifically, for the Black and White groups separately, each variable that was significantly correlated to a) inquiry and b) monitoring, was included in a multiple regression equation predicting each feedback-seeking type. This allowed an analysis of which variables uniquely predicted each type of feedback-seeking behavior for those in that group. The results can be seen in Tables 4.29 and 4.30.

Although each set of predictors going into the equations was different, there were some patterns that emerged. First, diversity climate was included in the initial set of predictors (based on the bivariate correlations) in two of the four groups for inquiry with White employees and for monitoring with Black employees, and emerged as a significant predictor above and beyond the other variables in their respective sets in the multiple regressions. Trust was related in bivariate correlations to inquiry and monitoring for both Black and White employees, and thus included in the sets of predictors for the regressions, but did not emerge as a unique predictor in the sets except for the prediction of inquiry in the White group. On the other hand, Feedback Orientation uniquely predicted both types of feedback-seeking behavior for

both Black and White groups. Job stress also came up as a unique predictor of monitoring for both Black and White employees.

To summarize the results from Tables 4.29 and 4.30, in the White group, the variables related to inquiry in a bivariate sense and thus entered into the regression were age, tenure, diversity climate, trust, source credibility, job satisfaction, feedback orientation, learning goal orientation, job complexity, job autonomy, and LMX. In the multiple regression, age ($t = -4.43$, $p < .01$), diversity climate ($t = 2.17$, $p = 0.03$), feedback orientation ($t = 4.01$, $p < .01$), learning goal orientation ($t = -2.21$, $p = 0.03$), and job complexity ($t = 3.42$, $p = 0.00$) emerged as unique predictors of inquiry. The variables related to monitoring in a bivariate sense in the White group and, thus, included in the regression equation were hours/week, trust, source credibility, job stress, and feedback orientation. Hours/week ($t = -2.70$, $p = 0.01$), source credibility ($t = 0.85$, $p = 0.40$), job stress ($t = 3.64$, $p < . 01$), and feedback orientation ($t = 4.65$, $p < .01$) all emerged as unique predictors of monitoring.

In the Black group, the variables included in the multiple regression were trust, feedback orientation, learning goal orientation, and job complexity: only feedback orientation ($t = 2.18$, $p = 0.03$) was a unique predictor in this set. The variables correlated to monitoring in the Black group were diversity climate, trust, black centrality, job stress, feedback orientation, learning goal orientation, and LMX. When included in the multiple regression, diversity climate ($t = 2.12$, $p = 0.04$), job stress ($t = 3.28$, $p < .01$), and feedback orientation ($t = 4.34$, $p < .01$) emerged as unique predictors for monitoring.

Table 4.29. Regression results predicting inquiry and monitoring for the White group.

Inquiry					**Monitoring**				
	B	*SE*	*t*	*p*		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Constant	1.05	0.47	2.25	0.03	Constant	1.32	0.60	2.18	0.03
Age	-0.02	0.00	-4.43	<.01	Hours/Week	-0.03	0.01	-2.70	0.01
Tenure	-0.06	0.05	-1.34	0.18	Trust	0.03	0.08	0.40	0.69
DC	0.12	0.06	2.17	0.03	SC	0.08	0.10	0.85	0.40
Trust	0.06	0.08	0.79	0.43	Job Stress	0.16	0.05	3.64	<.01
SC	-0.09	0.09	-1.02	0.31	FO	0.47	0.10	4.65	<.01
Job Satisfaction	0.04	0.05	0.81	0.42					
FO	0.41	0.10	4.01	<.01					
LGO	-0.15	0.07	-2.21	0.03					
Job Complexity	0.16	0.05	3.42	0.00					
Job Autonomy	-0.01	0.05	-0.22	0.82					
LMX	0.14	0.12	1.21	0.23					

Note. N = 157. DC = Diversity Climate; SC = Source Credibility; FO = Feedback Orientation; LGO = Learning Goal Orientation; LMX = Leader Member Exchange.

Table 4.30. Regression results predicting inquiry and monitoring for the Black group.

Inquiry					**Monitoring**				
	B	*SE*	*t*	*p*		B	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Constant	0.02	0.58	0.04	0.97	Constant	-0.42	0.55	-0.76	0.45
Trust	0.05	0.08	0.66	0.51	Diversity Climate	0.15	0.07	2.12	0.04
FO	0.38	0.18	2.18	0.03	Trust	0.08	0.10	0.82	0.41
LGO	0.14	0.12	1.16	0.25	Black Centrality	0.08	0.05	1.57	0.12
Job Complexity	0.03	0.06	0.58	0.56	Job Stress	0.21	0.06	3.28	<.01
					FO	0.67	0.15	4.34	<.01
					LGO	-0.20	0.10	-1.90	0.06
					LMX	-0.05	0.16	-0.33	0.74

Note. N = 101. FO = Feedback Orientation; LGO = Learning Goal Orientation; DC = Diversity Climate; LMX = Leader Member Exchange.

Summary of Results

Overall, two of the Hypotheses (2 and 3) received partial support, and an unexpected relationship emerged when exploring Hypothesis 1. To reiterate Hypothesis 1, it was expected that employee race would moderate the relationship between diversity climate perceptions and (a) trust in the supervisor, (b) feedback seeking, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) job stress, such that those relationships would be stronger for Black participants. While significant interactions between diversity climate and race were observed for one facet of trust (source credibility), feedback seeking, job satisfaction, and job stress, the interactions were such that the relationships were stronger for White employees than Black employees (for job satisfaction), or relationships were only significant for White employees and did not hold for the group of Black individuals alone (for source credibility, feedback seeking, and work stress).

Hypothesis 2 stated that among Black employees, diversity climate would be more strongly related to (a) trust, (b) feedback seeking, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) job stress for those with stronger racial identity. There was a significant interaction between racial identity and diversity climate in predicting job satisfaction, but it was such that the relationship was stronger at lower levels of racial identity, counter to expectations.

Hypothesis 3 stated that among Black employees, diversity climate would be more strongly related to (a) trust, (b) feedback seeking, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) job stress for those with racially dissimilar supervisors. There was a significant interaction between diversity climate and supervisor racial similarity with one

operationalization (coded similarity) for one facet of trust (cognitive-based trust), although the interaction revealed counter to expectations that the positive relationship between diversity climate and cognitive-based trust in the supervisor only held for those with ethnic minority supervisors. Then, looking at the outcome of job satisfaction and the self-reported degree of similarity, there was an interaction between diversity climate and supervisor racial similarity such that individuals with racially dissimilar supervisors showed a more strongly positive relationship between diversity climate and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4 stated that among Black participants, the effect of diversity climate on (a) trust, (b) feedback seeking, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) job stress, would interact with racial similarity and racial identity: this hypothesis was not supported. Hypothesis 5 stated that the relationship between diversity climate and (a) job satisfaction and (b) job stress would be mediated by feedback seeking. Hypothesis 6 stated that the relationship between diversity climate and feedback seeking would be mediated by (a) affective-based trust, (b), cognitive-based trust, and (c) source credibility. Hypothesis 7 stated that the relationship between diversity climate and job satisfaction would be serially mediated by (a) affective-based trust, (b), cognitive-based trust, and (c) source credibility and then feedback seeking. Hypothesis 8 was the same, but with the outcome of job stress. None of the mediation or serial mediation effects specified in Hypotheses 5-8 were supported.

Additional analyses were conducted beyond hypothesis testing, which revealed that diversity climate was related to feedback seeking via monitoring in the Black group, but not in the White group. A multiple regression analysis of predictors

of inquiry and monitoring within the Black and White groups showed some interesting patterns. In particular, diversity climate was not only correlated with inquiry in the White group and monitoring in the Black group, but retained unique predictive value when included in regressions among other variables that were related to the respective outcomes.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The diversity climate in an organization represents an important aspect of the workplace; this construct gained attention because the assumption that workplace diversity would facilitate positive outcomes was not consistently supported (Jackson & Joshi, 2011; Joshi & Roh, 2009). Diversity climate theory explains that the existence of diverse organizational membership in and of itself may not facilitate positive outcomes because a supportive organizational climate is also needed. This theoretical reasoning and its associated line of research is primarily informed by the IMCD model, which defines diversity climate as the extent to which an organization utilizes fair practices and socially integrates underrepresented groups into the work environment (Cox, 1994). Research thus far highlights that a supportive diversity climate relates to positive job attitudes, and that relationships tend to be stronger for those belonging to underrepresented groups (Dwertman et al., 2016; McKay & Avery, 2015). While these findings are promising, the IMCD model outlines additional mechanisms and outcomes yet to be tested; hence, more research is needed that can expand the nomological net of related constructs.

One overarching goal and contribution of the present study was to answer scholarly calls to broaden the outcomes known to be associated with diversity climate (McKay & Avery, 2015). Specifically, the study sought to understand if the diversity

climate in an organization was related as an antecedent to seeking feedback from one's supervisor, which was expected based on models from both diversity climate and performance management literatures (Cox, 1994; Levy & Williams, 2004). Another contribution was the examination of conditional effects of race; it was hypothesized that the effects of diversity climate would be more strongly positive for Black employees who would be more attuned to organizational cues of diversity compared with White employees, based on social dominance theory, critical race theory, and theories of cultural mistrust (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001; Delgado & Stefancic, 2000, Terrell & Terrell, 1981). Within the Black group, racial identity and supervisor race were also thought to play a role, which would explain the relationship more clearly than race alone (Byrne, 1971; Crocker et al., 1994). Lastly, a mediational model was examined that specified how diversity climate impacts feedback seeking through trust, as well as subsequent outcomes of job satisfaction and work stress, which were explained with social information processing theory, social identity theory, and conservation of resources theory, respectively (Hofhuis et al., 2012; Newman et al., 2018, Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978).

The present study demonstrated several relationships that had not been studied prior: positive overall relationships between organizational diversity climate and trust in one's supervisor, frequency of feedback sought from one's supervisor (in the direct form of inquiry in the White group and the indirect form of monitoring in the Black group), and a negative overall relationship with work stress. Both the positive relationship between diversity climate and trust and the negative relationship between diversity climate and work stress were expected, as they align with the IMCD

diversity climate model and lend further support to the purported positive work outcomes of an inclusive climate. The relationships that emerged with feedback-seeking behavior were more complex, and suggest further research is needed.

Interestingly, many of the hypotheses specifying interactions with race were not supported or revealed interactions in the opposite direction from what was expected, and hypothesized mediated relationships did not receive support. Taken together, the findings indicate that diversity climate does relate to many different workplace outcomes, but different research and measurement approaches, as discussed below, may be needed in order to better understand the effects of diversity climate on feedback-seeking behavior.

The nature of the relationships observed was somewhat aligned with what has been demonstrated in prior research. A recent meta-analysis on diversity climate research found significant and positive relationships with several outcomes including job satisfaction (Holmes, Jiang, Avery, McKay, Oh, & Tillman, 2020), similar to the relationships found with the overall sample in the present study. While several studies note an interaction with race such that relationships are stronger for the minority group, the present study found the opposite in that relationships were stronger for the majority group. The meta-analysis did not examine race as a moderator of diversity climate effects, which is something that can be tested in the future. While previous research has certainly advanced an understanding of diversity climate, this area of study has been slow to develop in the 25 years since its inception, due to factors like a lack of agreement over the construct definition and measurement, and a focus on a narrow set of outcomes (Dwertman et al., 2016; Holmes et al., 2020). While

important work has been done recently to clarify the conceptual discrepancies in the literature (Dwertman et al., 2016), there is still a need for a new multi-dimensional measure diversity climate that would facilitate consistent measurement going forward, and potential race effects can be better understood.

Bivariate Relationships

This study identified an overall positive relationship between diversity climate and job satisfaction and negative relationship between diversity climate and job stress. These relationships were expected based on the IMCD model, but the empirical support demonstrated in this study bolsters the diversity climate propositions by demonstrating links with these important work outcomes.

Moderation Effects

In testing interactions between race and diversity climate in predicting trust, feedback seeking, job satisfaction, and job stress, (as outlined in hypothesis 1), an unexpected pattern emerged such that for White employees, those who reported a more favorable diversity climate also tended to have more trust in their supervisor, engaged in more frequent feedback seeking, had higher job satisfaction, and lower job stress. For Black employees, the relationship between diversity climate and job satisfaction was weaker, and there was no association at all between diversity climate and source credibility, feedback seeking, or work stress. The rationale for the hypothesis was that diversity climate should show benefits for everyone in an organization, but moreso for Black employees for whom diversity cues are more salient. One might argue that the observed pattern of results suggests instead that diversity climate engenders positive work attitudes for White employees or majority

group members, but Black employees are in need of more than just organizational support for diversity, which can be seen as surface-level talking points, in order to experience the positive benefits of a workplace diversity.

The positive outcomes associated with diversity climate in the White group are noteworthy considering that diversity climate efforts are considered less personally relevant compared with the Black group. This lends credence to the propositions that supportive diversity climates can benefit the organization as a whole and not just underrepresented group members. In considering this, it is also important to note that the diversity climate measure was not specific to race and participants, particularly in the White group, who may have had other identities in mind when thinking about the diversity climate in their organization, such as their gender, age, sexual orientation, or disability status.

Further tests examining conditional effects of racial identity and racial similarity with supervisors within the Black group similarly revealed unexpected patterns. For instance, Black employees lower in racial identity experienced a stronger relationship between diversity climate and job satisfaction. While it was initially expected that those who are more identified with their race, and therefore more attuned to diversity cues at work, would benefit more from a supportive diversity climate, it may be the case that diversity climate has less of an effect on individuals who are more attuned to diversity cues, who also need to see more genuine, deeply embedded inclusion efforts to feel positive job attitudes in response. Considering racial similarity with supervisors, with one operationalization, the relationship between diversity climate and cognitive based-trust was stronger for

those with ethnic minority supervisors. Once again, those with White supervisors are in a context where diversity cues would appear more salient, but these results may suggest those individuals in particular need additional support beyond a favorable diversity climate to experience the purported benefits of diverse environments.

Exploratory Findings

The present study focused on feedback seeking defined as direct inquiry from one's supervisor. When examining the relationship between diversity climate and monitoring, an indirect form of feedback seeking, in an exploratory analysis, there was a positive correlation observed between diversity climate and feedback seeking via monitoring in the Black group, but no significant relationship in the White group. In contrast, looking at the relationship between diversity climate and feedback seeking via inquiry, there was a positive correlation in the White group, but no significant relationship in the Black group. Future research should further flesh out how diversity climate relates to different forms of feedback-seeking behavior for individuals of different groups. In particular, the positive correlation between diversity climate and monitoring in the Black group is intriguing. Taken together with the results as a whole, it may represent a sense of vigilance and a desired work environment that embraces inclusion beyond what was captured in the present study. It would also be critical to include an examination of feedback type, source, and motives in future research to fully understand this.

A regression approach was also used to understand the predictors of inquiry and monitoring for Black and White employees separately. Each case had a different set of variables that were entered a regression to examine what unique predictors

would emerge. The predictors being different for each group was initially unexpected, but made sense considering that Black and White employees may have very different experiences when it comes to seeking feedback. A particularly striking piece of this analysis was that Feedback Orientation was a unique predictor of feedback seeking for both inquiry and monitoring and for both Black and White employees. This may suggest that personality traits, particularly those that are specific to the domain of feedback, are more proximal and thus show stronger relationships with feedback seeking across these distinct groups, compared with distal antecedents like diversity climate which was only related to feedback seeking in two of the four cases.

Diversity Climate Type

Considering the perspective or type of diversity climate studied can provide context for the findings in the present study. Dwertman and colleagues (2016) note that two distinct perspectives can be reflected in a diversity climate. The fairness and discrimination (diversity) perspective conceptualizes diversity climate as the extent to which the organization promotes fairness and elimination of discrimination through fair practices and norms of fair treatment; this perspective is most concerned with the absence of discrimination (Dwertman et al., 2016). On the other hand, the synergy (inclusion) perspective is the extent to which employees perceive the organization to promote the listening and integration of diverse perspectives; the focus is on efforts to create synergy from diversity, or on promoting positive outcomes rather than preventing negative ones (Dwertman et al., 2016). Research thus far has generally taken the diversity perspective, and inclusion is not well represented in the literature.

The present study is in alignment with the diversity perspective in terms of the way diversity climate is defined. Likewise, the rationale for the hypotheses, which is similar to prior research from this perspective- generally speaking, that employees who work in organizations with supportive diversity climates where individuals are treated fairly are likely to reciprocate in the form of positive work attitudes, and relationships tend to be stronger for those in marginalized groups who are more attuned to the diversity climate. The factor analysis results highlighted two facets of the diversity-focused diversity climate perspective: formal and informal components.

In contrast, an inclusion perspective would have focused more on an engagement of the whole self at work and learning from different perspectives (Nishii, 2013). Admittedly, this perspective may hold value in understanding the relationships examined in the present study. A recent meta-analysis on diversity climate literature found that climate type was a significant moderator of diversity climate-outcome relationships, such that an inclusion focus exhibited stronger positive relationships with outcomes (Holmes et al., 2020). Dwertman and colleagues (2016) speculated that "a strong [diversity climate] may be important to reduce or eliminate negative social categorization processes, but this in and of itself would not be enough to stimulate synergistic outcomes… [diversity] climate would be a necessary but insufficient precondition for the effects of a strong [inclusion] climate (p. 1162)." Roberson (2006) suggests that current efforts at diversity management, which shapes diversity climate, tend to come from a more shallow understanding of "diversity," the varied perspectives and approaches to work that members of different

groups bring, rather than "inclusion," or the way an organization configures its systems to best leverage potential (Roberson, 2006).

Considering the differences between the two perspectives of diversity climate may explain the pattern of results. A supportive diversity climate as defined in the present study, as the extent to which an organization utilizes fair practices and socially integrates underrepresented groups into the work environment, while necessary from an egalitarian perspective, is not enough to generate the positive outcomes anticipated in the study in the group of Black employees. Rather, the addition of a positive inclusive diversity climate is needed to truly harness the benefits of a diverse workforce for members of underrepresented groups. Originally, it was thought that Black employees, particularly those high in racial identity and with racially dissimilar supervisors are in a less favorable context which could be alleviated by a supportive diversity climate, but the inclusion perspective suggests that more support is needed for these individuals.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

Definition and Measurement of Diversity Climate

The definition and measurement of diversity climate in research has historically lacked alignment, clarity, and consistency, which naturally has led to confusion within the literature (Dwertman et al., 2016). This study has taken the diversity-focused perspective of diversity climate, which is most common in this line of research (Holmes et al., 2020). The scale used for measurement of diversity climate showed content and face validity, but lacked additional refinement. A factor analysis was conducted in the present study, that revealed two aspects of the diversity

perspective, namely formal and informal aspects within the diversity climate. In the future, research should take a broader approach by capturing both perspectives and sub-dimensions within each, which could illuminate important differences among the two perspectives. In the present study, the hypothesized model may have received more support using the inclusion perspective. While there was one item in the original scale that was removed due to alignment with the inclusion perspective, it was not on its own fully representative of inclusion. Additional items with content fully capturing this perspective would be needed to explore this question.

The development and validation of a broad diversity climate measure is an important next step for diversity climate research, as it has been somewhat common to use self-developed scales for single studies (Avery et al., 2007; Chrobot-Mason & Aramovich, 2013; McKay et al., 2007; McKay et al., 2008) or for measures to be misaligned with construct definitions. This would allow consistency across studies as well as clearer comparisons between the effects of both types of diversity climate effects. For instance, it would allow testing of the speculation that diversity climate is a necessary but insufficient condition of the work outcomes in the study for minority group members, which would be seen in a supportive inclusion climate. Having an understanding of both types would facilitate an exploration of whether antecedents and outcomes differ, and whether effects are additive or multiplicative.

Considering Supervisor Diversity Attitudes

As stated prior, the intent of the study was to connect a distal climate antecedent, diversity climate, to the interpersonal process of feedback-seeking behavior. It is possible that a different approach would have been more revealing.

Rather than considering the diversity climate in the organization in general, the supervisor's own attitudes toward diversity may be more closely connected to feedback-seeking behaviors, particularly for those in underrepresented groups. Directly seeking feedback from one's supervisor is an inherently vulnerable interpersonal process, so it follows that diversity cues from the source, the supervisor, would matter more than the distal context of the organizational diversity climate.

Specifically, employees of color are generally more attuned to diversity cues due to their experiences with race and discrimination. Rather than considering the diversity climate generally, they may look to supervisors that they perceive as holding values of antiracism and multiculturalism, and feel more comfortable approaching those individuals for feedback and accepting feedback messages. Antiracism is defined as "forms of practice that seek to confront, eradicate, or ameliorate racism" by Bonnett (2000, p. 4). This is strongly related to multiculturalism, a set of principles that uphold the right of all individuals to equal access and participation in social, cultural, economic, and political life (Hartmann & Gerteis, 2005). Supervisor behaviors like promoting empathy, having intercultural contact, dispelling false or stereotypical beliefs, and engaging in anti-racist education and workplace training would signal that the supervisor holds such values (Berman & Paradies, 2010). In a workplace with a favorable diversity climate, it is possible that an employee of color would not feel a sense of inclusion or the associated positive attitudes, if they still directly report to a supervisor that is seen as prejudiced. In future research, it would be important to consider supervisor diversity attitudes in addition to diversity climate.

Implications for Practice

The results of the present study can provide some insight for practitioners, though more research is needed. Fostering a supportive diversity climate in an organization would seem to have positive benefits in terms of work attitudes. The relationships being stronger in the White group highlights that diversity climate is not only relevant to those in marginalized groups. Traditional diversity management approaches resulted in White employees feeling shamed and responding with resentment and backlash (McCormick, 2007), but the current results suggest this is no longer the case, and that White employees also respond favorably to diversity cues. However, these results also suggest that the "diversity" focused diversity climate, compared with inclusion, may not be enough to foster the benefits of diversity for members of underrepresented groups.

Potential Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

No study is without limitations, so it is important to discuss these within the present study. First, the nature of the data collection took an individual-level approach to understanding diversity climate, so any study implications are limited to this level of analysis and cannot speak to the effects of unit-level perceptions of diversity climate. The source of data collection through MTurk made it so that individuals from various organizations, job types, and work experiences could participate, and the Black and White groups did show some differences in the types of jobs that they held. It is unclear whether this could have influenced any results.

There have been some concerns around data collection from MTurk samples noted in the literature (Aguinis et al., 2020). Although best practices were used

whenever possible, there may still be limitations associated with this approach. One potential concern is the magnitude of the relationships found, particularly with diversity climate, which showed strong correlations with several outcomes. Looking to a recent diversity climate meta-analysis (Holmes et al., 2020), the estimate of the correlation between diversity climate and job satisfaction was $\rho = .47$, compared with r=.53 in the present study. While the relationships between diversity climate and other outcomes had not been studied prior, meta-analytic estimates of relationships with other variables show a similar magnitude (diversity climate shows relationships of $\rho = .54$ with organizational commitment; $\rho = .45$ with engagement). Thus, although strong relationships were found, they are likely not that unusual or only slightly higher than what would be expected based on the literature. The strength of the associations may also be due to common method bias.

From a methodological perspective, the single-source data collection does raise some concerns of common method bias, although the two time point design was meant to minimize this. Also, with a correlational design, the ability to imply causal relationships is limited. As a first examination into the potential relationships with trust and feedback-seeking, the present study does provide insight, but future studies should continue to examine this with different approaches such as an experimental design.

There were certain odd patterns within the sample that should be noted. Specifically, there were large differences between the Black and White groups in tenure, with the White group reporting longer tenure. While this was used as a control variable, it is unclear if other related differences between the two groups may have

influenced results. The Black and White groups also differed quite a bit with regard to industry, which may have affected results. While subgroup sizes were too small to examine any patterns within one industry, future research can explore this further by testing if similar results would be found for a sample focused in just one industry or job type.

One potential measurement concern to note is that supervisor racial similarity was considered in two ways: coded with racial minority supervisors considered similar, and rated by participants with self-report of how culturally similar their supervisors were to them. Both conceptualizations were included and tested, and the two may capture similar constructs, but should not be considered equivalent. It is also not necessarily clear how participants interpreted the question of cultural similarity versus racial similarity, especially given that the Black group reported more cultural similarity with their supervisors, despite a majority of them reporting having White supervisors. This is something that can be further explored in future research.

The measure of diversity climate is also a limitation. The Smith et al (2012) diversity climate scale was selected for the study because of face validity: the items appear highly relevant to the diversity climate domain. However, the psychometric properties of the scale (beyond reliability) were not thoroughly examined in the Smith et al. study. While this is somewhat common practice, a measure that presents convergent and divergent validity evidence, including distinct dimensions and types of the construct, would facilitate better research allowing a deeper understanding of the processes and the relationships of interest.

As mentioned previously, it would be interesting to delve into more detail about the supervisors' attitudes toward diversity, perhaps through an analogous construct of diversity climate at the supervisor level. It also would be useful to measure prior employee experiences of discrimination in and outside of the workplace, which could impact the relationships of interest.

Future research should revisit the question of whether diversity climate is related to feedback-seeking by developing a strong diversity climate measure including both diversity and inclusion perspectives. Different sources of feedback (supervisor and peer), types of feedback sought (self or peer; positive or negative; Gong, Wang, Huang, & Cheung, 2017), and format (such as continuous feedback) are all interesting avenues to flesh out this relationship in the future.

Conclusions

Given the paucity of research addressing the distal antecedents of feedback seeking and the limited scope of current diversity climate research, the present study contributes to both literatures by providing and testing a model of the impact of diversity climate on trust, feedback seeking, job satisfaction, and work stress. This study identified for the first time, relationships between diversity climate and several facets of trust, feedback-seeking, and job stress. Future research should further explore whether there are differences in the impact of diversity climate depending upon climate type, consider the role of the supervisor and their diversity attitudes, and continue to examine conditional effects based on race.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY MEASURES

Demographic Information

Demographics

1. Age (in years)
2. Gender
    - Man
    - Woman
    - I do not gender identify
    - Transgender, Man to Woman
    - Transgender, Woman to Man
    - Do not wish to disclose
3. Racioethnicity
    - Black/African-American
    - Asian-American/Pacific Islander
    - Hispanic/Latino

- American Indian
- Middle Eastern
- White/Caucasian
- Multiracial
- Other (please specify)
- Do not wish to disclose
- Any additional information you would like to provide with regard to your racial and ethnic background.

4. What is your average yearly household income?
    - $1-$9,999
    - $10,000-$19,999
    - $20,000-$29,999
    - $30,000-$39,999
    - $40,000-$49,999
    - $50,000-$59,999
    - $60,000-$69,999
    - $70,000-$89,999
    - $90,000-$99,999
    - Greater than $100,000
5. What is your greatest level of education?
    - Some high school
    - High school degree
    - Associates degree
    - Some college
    - College degree
    - Some graduate school
    - Graduate degree (Masters, PhD, JD, MD, etc.)

<u>Job-Related Demographics</u>

1. Are you currently employed at an organization in the United States?
    a. Yes
    b. No
2. On average, how many hours do you work per week?
3. How long have you worked with your current organization? (Organizational Tenure)
    - Less than 1 year
    - 1-5 years
    - 6-10 years
    - 11-15 years
    - More than 15 years
4. Which of the following best describes the industry in which you work (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013)?
    - Administrative Support

- Agriculture
- Arts/Entertainment/Recreation
- Construction
- Educational Services
- Finance & Insurance
- Food Services
- Health Care
- Information
- Manufacturing
- Military
- Professional, Scientific, & Technical Sciences
- Public Administration
- Real Estate
- Retail
- Social Assistance
- Student
- Transportation
- Utilities
- Warehouse
- Waste Management
- Wholesale Trade
- Other: _____

5. What is your current job level? (E.g., individual contributor, manager, senior manager)
6. What is your current job title?
7. How long have you had this job title?
8. Do you have a supervisor who you directly report to?
    - Yes
    - No
9. How long have you worked with your direct supervisor?
10. How often do you interact with your supervisor? (1= Very rarely, 5= Very frequently)
11. What is the race of your direct supervisor? (Supervisor-Subordinate Racial Similarity)
    a. Black/African-American
    b. Asian-American/Pacific Islander
    c. Hispanic/Latino
    d. American Indian
    e. Middle Eastern
    f. White/Caucasian
    g. Multiracial
    h. Other (please specify)
    i. Do not wish to disclose
    j. Do not know

    k. Any additional information you would like to provide with regard to your supervisor's racial and ethnic background?

12. To what extent is your supervisor culturally similar to you? (1-5 scale)
13. What is the gender of your direct supervisor?
    a. Man
    b. Woman
    c. Supervisor does not gender identify
    d. Transgender, Man to Woman
    e. Transgender, Woman to Man
    f. Do not wish to disclose

Diversity Climate

Authenticity of Diversity Management Scale

Citation:

Smith, A. N., Morgan, W. B., King, E. B., Hebl, M. R., & Peddie, C. I. (2012). The ins and outs of diversity management: The effect of authenticity on outsider perceptions and insider behaviors. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 42: E21-E55. Reliability = .88

Instructions:

Response Scale: 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

Organizational Inclusion (Mor Barak et al., 1998)

1. Management here encourages the formation of employee network support groups.
2. There is a mentoring program in use here that identifies and prepares all minority and female employees for promotion.
3. The 'old boy's' network is alive and well here.*
4. The company spends enough time and money on diversity awareness and related training.

Additional items developed based on diversity climate literature

1. Managers here recruit new employees from diverse sources.
2. Managers here offer equal access to training programs, regardless of factors such as ethnicity, gender, age, or social background.
3. Managers have open communication with regard to the importance of diversity for our company.
4. Managers publicize principles for diversity.
5. Managers respect the perspectives of people, regardless of ethnicity, gender, age, or social background.
6. Top leaders are committed to diversity.
7. Managers strive to be inclusive of all employees, regardless of ethnicity, gender, age, or social background.
8. The organization as a whole emphasizes inclusion of diverse perspectives in all processes, policies, and procedures.

*Item is reverse-scored

Feedback-Seeking (Inquiry)

Combined Feedback Inquiry, from Ashford & Black (1996) and Williams & Johnson (2000)

Citaton: Dahling, J. J., Chau, S. L., & O'Malley, A. (2012). Correlates and consequences of feedback orientation in organizations. *Journal of Management, 38*(2), 531-546.
Instructions: To what extent have you engaged in each of these tactics?
Rating Scale: (1) Never, (2) Rarely, (3) Occasionally, (4) Frequently, (5) Very frequently.

1. Asked your boss for feedback on your performance after completing assignments.
2. Asked for critiques from your boss about your work.
3. Asked your boss for feedback on your performance during assignments.
4. Asked your boss for his or her opinion of your work.
5. Asked your boss for information about what is required for you to function successfully on the job.
6. Asked your boss how well you are performing on the job.
7. Asked your boss for information about how well you are interacting with other workers.

Trust

Interpersonal Trust Scale

Citation: McAllister (1995). Affect- and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal cooperation in organizations. *The Academy of Management Journal, 38*, 24-59.
Instructions: Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about your **direct supervisor** at work.
Scale: 1(strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

Affect-based trust

1. We have a sharing relationship. We can both freely share our ideas, feelings, and hopes.
2. I can talk freely to this individual about difficulties I am having at work and know that (s)he will want to listen.
3. We would both feel a sense of loss if one of us was transferred and we could no longer work together.
4. If I shared my problems with this person, I know (s)he would respond constructively and caringly.
5. I would have to say that we have both made considerable emotional investments in our working relationship.

Cognition-based trust

1. This person approaches his/her job with professionalism and dedication.
2. Given this person's track record, I see no reason to doubt his/her competence and preparation for the job.
3. I can rely on this person not to make my job more difficult by careless work.
4. Most people, even those who aren't close friends of this individual, trust and respect him/her as a coworker.
5. Other work associates of mine who must interact with this individual consider him/her to be trustworthy.
6. If people knew more about this individual and his/her background, they would be more concerned and monitor his/her performance more closely.*

*Item is reverse-scored

Source Credibility

Source Credibility Facet of the Feedback Environment Scale

Citation: Steelman, L. A., Levy, P. E., & Snell, A. F. (2004). The feedback environment scale: Construct definition, measurement, and validation. *Educational and psychological measurement*, *64*(1), 165-184.

Instructions: Please answer the following questions regarding your perceptions of your current direct supervisor.

Response Scale: 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

1. My supervisor is generally familiar with my performance on the job.
2. In general, I respect my supervisor's opinions about my job performance.
3. With respect to performance feedback, I usually do not trust my supervisor.
4. My supervisor is fair when evaluating my job performance.
5. I have confidence in the feedback my supervisor gives me.

Black Racial Identity

Centrality Subscale of the Revised Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity used in Sellers et al (2003)

Citation: Sellers, R. M., Rowley, S. A., Chavous, T. M., Shelton, J. N., & Smith, M. A. (1997). Multidimensional Inventory of Black Identity: A preliminary investigation of reliability and constuct validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *73*(4), 805-815.

Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

Response Scale: 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

1. Overall, being Black has very little to do with how I feel about myself. *
2. In general, being Black is an important part of my self-image.
3. Being Black is unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am. *
4. I have a strong sense of belongingness to Black people.
5. I have a strong sense of attachment to other Black people.
6. Being Black is an important reflection of who I am.
7. Being Black is not a major factor in my social relationships. *

* Item is reverse-scored

Job Satisfaction

Brief Job Satisfaction Scale

Citation: Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., Durham, C. C., & Kluger, A. N. (1998) Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: The role of core evaluations. *Journal of applied psychology*, *83*(1), 17-34. adapted from Brayfield and Rothe (1951).

Instructions: Some jobs are more interesting and satisfying than others. We want to know how you feel about your job. For each statement below, use the following scale to indicate which is most descriptive of your current job.

Scale: 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

1. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.
2. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
3. Each day of work seems like it will never end. *
4. I find real enjoyment in my work.
5. I consider my job rather unpleasant. *

*Item is reverse-scored.

Work stress

Job Stress Scale

Citation: Parker, D. F., & DeCotiis, T. A. (1983). Organizational determinants of job stress. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 32, 160-177.
Instructions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.
Response Scale: 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

1. I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.
2. Working here makes it hard to spend enough time with my family.
3. My job gets to me much more than it should.
4. I spend so much time at work, I can't see the forest for the trees.
5. There are lots of times when my job drives me right up the wall.
6. Working here leaves little time for other activities.
7. Sometimes when I think about my job, I get a tight feeling in my chest.
8. I frequently get the feeling that I am married to the company.
9. I have too much work and too little time to do it in.
10. I feel guilty when I take time off from my job.
11. I sometimes dread the telephone ringing at home because the call might be job-related.
12. I feel like I never have a day off.
13. Too many people at my level in the company get burned out by job demands.

Feedback Orientation

Feedback Orientation Scale

Citation: Linderbaum, B. A., & Levy, P. E. (2010). The development and validation of the Feedback Orientation Scale (FOS). *Journal of Management, 36*(6), 1372-1405.

Instructions: Please answer the following questions based upon how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Scale: 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

Utility

1. Feedback contributes to my success at work.
2. To develop my skills at work, I rely on feedback.
3. Feedback is critical for improving performance.
4. Feedback from supervisors can help me advance in a company.
5. I find that feedback is critical for reaching my goals.

Accountability

1. It is my responsibility to apply feedback to improve my performance.
2. I hold myself accountable to respond to feedback appropriately.
3. I don't feel a sense of closure until I respond to feedback.
4. If my supervisor gives me feedback, it is my responsibility to respond to it.
5. I feel obligated to make changes based on feedback.

Social Awareness

1. I try to be aware of what other people think of me.
2. Using feedback, I am more aware of what people think of me.
3. Feedback helps me manage the impression I make on others.
4. Feedback lets me know how I am perceived by others.
5. I rely on feedback to help me make a good impression.

Feedback Self-Efficacy

1. I feel self-assured when dealing with feedback.
2. Compared to others, I am more competent at handling feedback.
3. I believe that I have the ability to deal with feedback effectively.
4. I feel confident when responding to both positive and negative feedback.
5. I know that I can handle the feedback that I receive.

Learning Goal Orientation

Learning Goal Orientation Subscale of the Work Domain Goal Orientation Scale
Citation: VandeWalle, D. (1997). Development and validation of a work domain goal orientation
instrument. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 57(6), 995-1015.
Instructions: Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.
Scale: 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree)

1. I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from.
2. I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge.
3. I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I'll learn new skills.
4. For me, development of my work ability is important enough to take risks.
5. I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent.

Job Complexity

Job Complexity Subscale of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS)

Citation: Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. 1974. The Job Diagnostic Survey: An instrument for the diagnosis of jobs and the evaluation of job redesign projects. *Catalog of Selected Documents in Psychology*, 4: 148-149.

Also used in: Man, D. C., & Lam, S. S. (2003). The effects of job complexity and autonomy on cohesiveness in collectivistic and individualistic work groups: a cross-cultural analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *24*(8), 979-1001.

Instructions: Please rate how accurate each of the following statements are in describing your current job.

Scale: 1 (very inaccurate) to 7 (very accurate)

1. My job requires me to do many different things using a variety of my skills and talents.
2. My job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills
3. My job is quite simple and repetitive. *

* Item is reverse scored

Autonomy

Autonomy Subscale of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS)

Citation: Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. 1974. The Job Diagnostic Survey: An instrument for the diagnosis of jobs and the evaluation of job redesign projects. *Catalog of Selected Documents in Psychology*, 4: 148-149.

Also used in: Man, D. C., & Lam, S. S. (2003). The effects of job complexity and autonomy on cohesiveness in collectivistic and individualistic work groups: a cross-cultural analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *24*(8), 979-1001.

Instructions: Please rate how accurate each of the following statements are in describing your current job.

Scale: 1 (very inaccurate) to 7 (very accurate)

1. My job permits me to decide on how to go about doing the work on my own.
2. My job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
3. My job denies me the chance to use my personal judgment in carrying out the work.*

* Item is reverse scored

Leader Member Exchange (LMX)

Leader-Member Exchange Scale

Citation: Scandura, T. A., & Schriesheim, C. A. (1994). Leader-member exchange and supervisor career mentoring as complementary constructs in leadership research. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(6), 1588-1602.

Instructions: This questionnaire contains items that ask you to describe your relationship with your leader. For each of the items, indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you by circling one of the responses that appear below the item.

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader and do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?

Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly often	Very often
1	2	3	4	5

2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?

Not a bit	A little	Moderately	Mostly	Fully
1	2	3	4	5

3. How well does your leader recognize your potential?

Not at all	A little	Moderately	Mostly	Fully
1	2	3	4	5

4. Regardless of how much formal authority your leader has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very high
1	2	3	4	5

5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he or she would "bail you out" at his or her expense?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very high
1	2	3	4	5

6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.

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

7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?

Extremely ineffective	Worse than average	Average	Better than average	Extremely effective
1	2	3	4	5

Feedback Seeking (Monitoring)

Feedback-Seeking Scale

Citation: Roberson, L., Deitch, E. A., Brief, A. P., & Block, C. J. (2003). Stereotype threat and feedback seeking in the workplace. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *62*(1), 176-188.

In this paper a combined scale was used based on prior work from Ashford (1986) and Ashford & Tsui (1991).

Instructions: In order to find out how well you are performing in your current job, how frequently do you engage in each of the following activities?
Scale: 1 (very infrequently) to 5 (very frequently)

1. Compare yourself with your peers.
2. Observe what behaviors your manager rewards and use this as feedback on your own performance.
3. Pay attention to how your manager acts toward you in order to understand how he/she perceives your work performance.
4. Observe the characteristics of people who are rewarded by your manager and use this information.
5. Pay attention to how your peers act toward you in order to understand how they perceive your work performance.
6. Pay attention to informal, unsolicited feedback from others.
7. Pay attention to casual remarks that your manager and peers make.

Open-Ended Feedback-Seeking Question

1. To what extent do you think your culture endorses seeking feedback?

Attention Check Items

Citation: Huang, J. L., Liu, M., & Bowling, N. A. (2015). Insufficient effort responding: Examining an insidious confound in survey data. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *100*(3), 828.

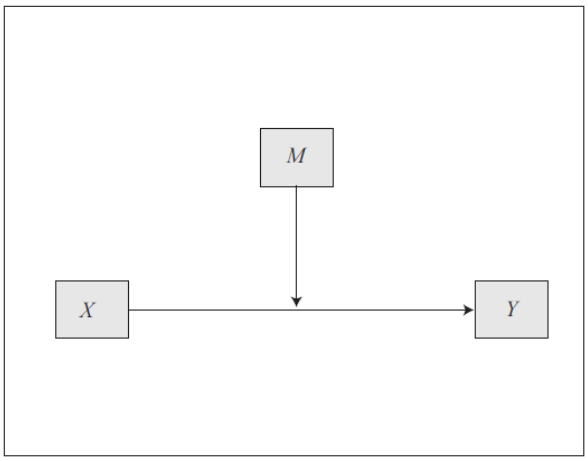
1. I can run 2 miles in 2 min.
2. I eat cement occasionally.
3. I can teleport across time and space.
4. I am interested in pursuing a degree in parabanjology.
5. I have never used a computer.
6. I work fourteen months in a year.
7. I will be punished for meeting the requirements of my job.
8. I work twenty-eight hours in a typical work day.

APPENDIX B

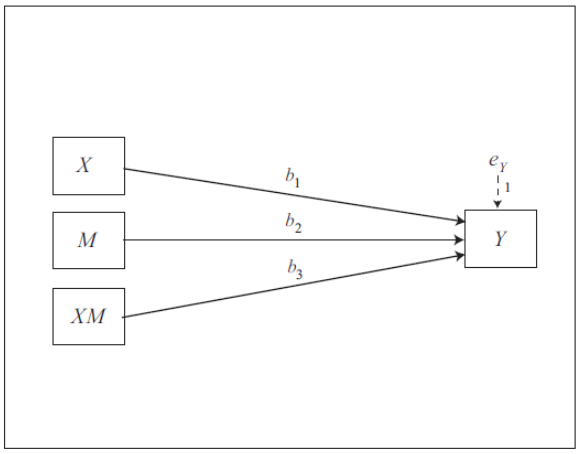
CONCEPTUAL AND STATISTICAL PROCESS MODELS TO BE USED IN HYPOTHESIS TESTING (HAYES, 2013)

Model 1

Conceptual Diagram



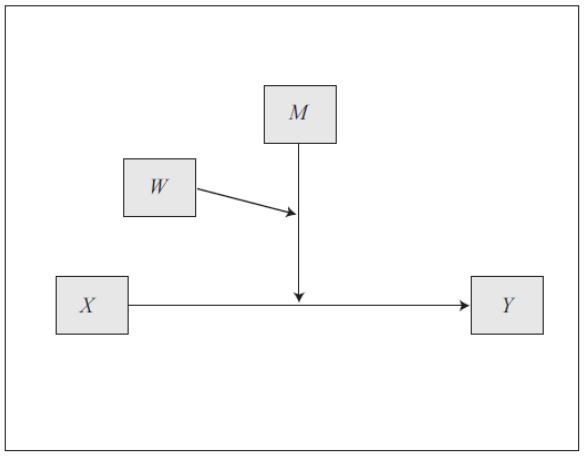
Statistical Diagram



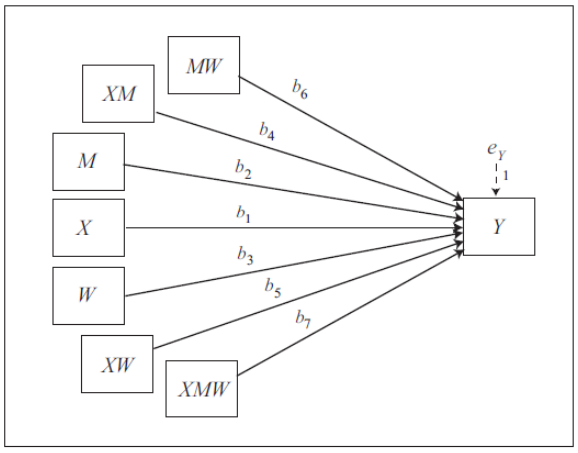
Conditional effect of X on $Y = b_1 + b_3M$

Model 3

Conceptual Diagram



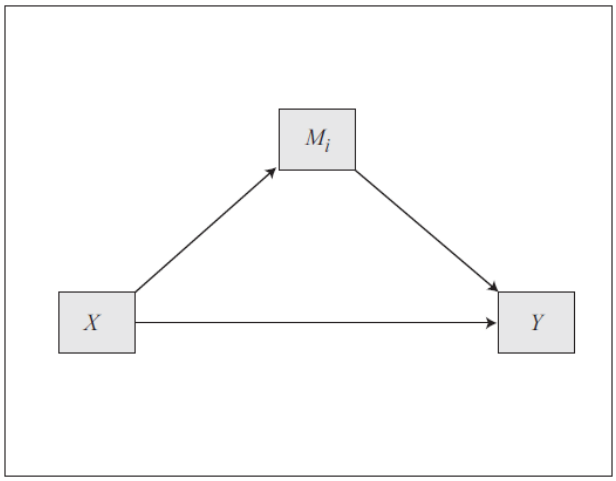
Statistical Diagram



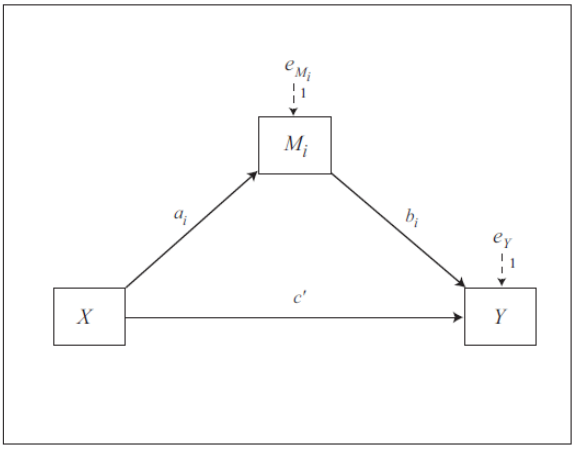
Conditional effect of X on $Y = b_1 + b_4M + b_5W + b_7MW$

Model 4

Conceptual Diagram



Statistical Diagram

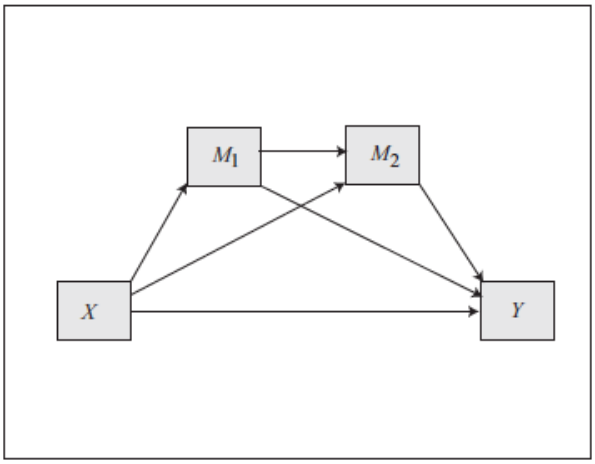


Indirect effect of X on Y through $M_i = a_i b_i$

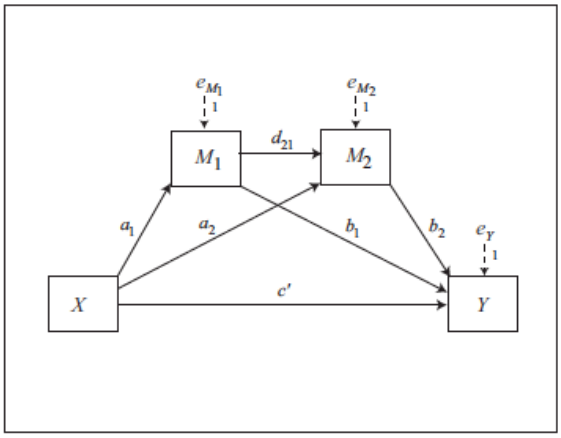
Direct effect of X on $Y = c'$

Model 6
(2 mediators)

Conceptual Diagram



Statistical Diagram



Indirect effect of X on Y through M_i only $= a_i b_i$
Indirect effect of X on Y through M_1 and M_2 in serial $= a_1 d_{21} b_2$
Direct effect of X on $Y = c'$

Note: Model 6 allows up to 4 mediators operating in serial.